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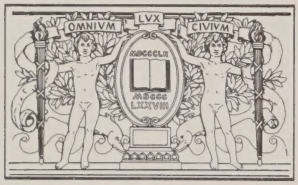

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 5, 1883.

The Week.

As the season progresses without further serious damage to the small-grain crop than was reported in the early spring, the prices of all breadstuffs and provisions continue to decline. The winter wheat is already being harvested, and a week more will put the spring wheat out of danger. The corn crop will still be subject to various contingencies, and will not be secure before the latter part of August, but its present prospects are good. Those of the cotton crop throughout the entire cotton region are more favorable than usual, and, in view of the nearly absolute certainty of a large crop, prices have been declining. Commercial and financial prosperity is so entirely dependent upon these crops that trade and speculation have waited for results until the usual hot-weather stagnation has come over the speculative markets. But it is now accepted as a foregone conclusion that minimum prices must rule, at least for the present, for all these important commodities as well as for iron, leather, coal, etc., etc. The basis is therefore established for a favorable condition of our foreign trade, which will justify an increase of its volume both of exports and imports. In financial affairs the current week is one of the usual landmarks in the year's progress, because the first week of July brings out from $60,000,000 to $70,000,000 of interest and dividend disbursements, and in the present instance is making an excessive supply of floating capital that must find investment in securities or loans or in speculative purchases of commodities; and while the past week has presented nothing but declining prices for commodities, securities, and joint-stock shares, it is generally acknowledged that this tendency is likely to be checked if not reversed by the necessity of finding employment for capital. The stock market, however, which would seem likely to draw a large share of this capital, continues extremely languid, and prices are as a rule very much below the average of the past two years, owing largely to a general distrust of the management of a majority of the American railroads.

Messrs. Beirne and Elam, the Richmond duellists, met on Saturday, near New Hope, in Augusta County, Virginia, having succeeded in eluding the police, and did their best to kill each other. The range was made only eight paces, and at the second shot Mr. Elam was struck in the thigh. Mr. Beirne then expressed himself as "satisfied," and Mr. Elam had to be, as he could not fight any longer. It is not clear, however, that Mr. Elam will die, and therefore Mr. Beirne's satisfaction must arise from the fact that he hit Mr. Elam and was not hit himself—a feeling which any man will at once understand. Both combatants have been interviewed with regard to the fight, which seems to have been conducted according to the local rules governing the subject; but neither of them has thrown the least light on the bearing of the result on the issue over which the battle was fought. We are sorry to have to go back to this matter, but Mr. Beirne, our readers will recollect, is editor of the *State*, Mr. Elam of the *Whig*, and the battle was fought about a description which Mr. Elam gave in his paper of Mr. Beirne, and a description which Mr. Beirne gave in his of the followers of Mahone. Were these descriptions, or either of them, correct? If Mr. Beirne hit Mr. Elam, the followers of Mahone would be proved to be a "vicious, corrupt, and degraded gang," in favor of miscegenation and mixed schools. If, on the other hand, Mr. Elam hit Mr. Beirne, it would be proved that "lofty pretensions of superiority in manners, morals, and letters are laughably ridiculous coming from a source so pitiable in all moral and intellectual resources" as Mr. Beirne.

Some of the Southern comments on the affair are excessively funny, or would be, if such events were not a serious blot upon Southern civilization. The *Landmark*, for instance, of which we observe that Mr. James Barron Hope announces that he is editor, solemnly warned us before the battle began not to indulge in "brutal levity," on the ground that we were inflaming the passions of Messrs. Beirne and Elam to such a degree that they would be forced, in order to escape ridicule, to "come back from the field with somebody on a stretcher." It calls upon us to "look into our conscience" and "ask of that monitor if it can hold itself guiltless of having uttered words which must inflame the parties to this deadly controversy and stimulate others, perhaps, to escape its [our] pungent irony by bloodshed under similar circumstances." It can, esteemed *Landmark*, it can; for the reason that civilized men do not regard it as wrong to ridicule a barbarous and criminal practice merely because of the effect ridicule may have upon the minds of the barbarians who keep it up. The practice of duelling will probably not survive many Beirne-Elam affairs even in Virginia. If the Virginians will now go to work and punish somebody for the violation of the law, or, at any rate, try to, they may, to a certain extent, relieve the State from the stigma of this disgusting fight; but the *Landmark* and all like it may be assured that to encourage other Elams and Beirnes there is no better way than to thank God that the "trouble is over," and to speak with bated breath of the heroism of the two ruffians who have caused it. The discovery of the *Landmark* that the Northern press is responsible for duels because it ridicules duelling, throws a valuable side-light upon the imbecility of mind which the custom seems to produce.

The Butler trouble at Harvard blew over on Commencement day so completely that many people are no doubt asking themselves why so much fuss was made about the grim old warrior and his degree. He came to the alumni dinner at the invitation, we believe, of the President of the College, was called upon for a speech, and made one in which he spoke in a very complimentary strain of the College, and breathed forth no threats of any kind. In fact, Butler now appears to be a warm friend of Harvard and the higher education and all good things. Refusing him the degree, instead of "riling" the old man, has probably led him to think all the better of the College. It is the people who truckle to him, and pretend to think that he is a great and good statesman, for whom he probably has the most profound contempt.

The result of the Harvard-Yale boat race seems to have convinced all observers that Yale will have to abandon its present stroke. It will also probably have to abandon its present curious system of "bunching" the seats of its boat in twos. In other words, unless all impartial observers are wrong—and among them we include even Harvard rowing men, for there is really no interest to either college in such a race as that of last Thursday—Yale will have to abandon the idea with which it still deludes itself, that it can find out, if it only devotes time and ingenuity enough to it, some brand-new device or trick that will enable it to win races without adopting the system which time and experience have taught all the leading rowing colleges of the world. The lesson that it does not pay as well to be "smart" and ingenious, and continually introducing novelties, as to abide by what the world has actually learned, was taught Harvard by bitter defeats, and is now apparently being taught Yale in the same way. By all accounts, the finest crew that Yale ever turned out was easily beaten on Thursday because they were possessed with the idea that they knew something about rowing which nobody could teach them.

The Iowa Republicans had "a large and harmonious" convention, with no struggle about the candidates, and seemingly none about the platform. Among the former there are no men of national reputation, but as they are the old incumbents now renominated, with the exception of Judge Reed, the candidate for Judge of the Supreme Court, it must be assumed that they are generally acceptable to the party which once elected them and now wants to elect them again. As to the platform there seems to have been a minority of dissenters, but scarcely strong enough to make an impression upon the majority and hopeless of accomplishing anything. The first resolution "points with pride" to what the Republican party has accomplished in the past. The second puts the people of Iowa in the same category with "the people of all countries who are struggling for their rights in opposition to oppressive laws and systems." To these struggling peoples earnest sympathy is offered, and then the same sympathy is, by implication, asked for the people of Iowa, for the Convention goes on to say that "we also plant ourselves on the side of the homes of our own people in their contest against the saloons." This is not as clear as it should be. The fact is that the Iowa

Legislature passed, for submission to the people, an amendment to the Constitution prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquor; that it was approved by a majority of nearly 30,000, but that it was then declared void and of no effect by the Supreme Court on account of some irregularity in the passage of it. It would seem, therefore, that the people of Iowa, in what the Convention calls their "struggle for their rights," have been baffled, not by "oppressive laws and systems," or any other form of despotism, like other peoples struggling for their rights, but by their Supreme Court, or rather by their bungling legislators, whose work was condemned by the Supreme Court. However, the Convention resolved that it is the duty of the Legislature to make the prohibitory amendment over again, this time, we suppose, in a more workmanlike way, so that the Supreme Court may not have another chance to undo it. To be sure, the wording of the amendment will have to be clearer than the wording of the resolution which recommends its reënactment.

We do not think we risk anything in saying that many of those who voted for this resolution, especially the more prominent and experienced politicians, are seriously apprehensive that this liquor question, as it has already once reduced the formerly enormous Republican majority in Iowa to small proportions, may do so again. Still, they voted for it, as they did for another resolution, insisting strongly upon the maintenance of a high protective tariff, and vigorously denouncing the efforts of the Democrats in Iowa for a change of the customs laws in the direction of free trade. We venture to say that in this instance, too, some of those who supported this resolution without believing in it, know very well that the movement for a reform of the tariff by a reduction of duties has made nowhere in the West a larger number of converts than in Iowa; that among these converts there are many Republicans, and that a not inconsiderable number of them may refuse to vote as they have done before, if this issue is clearly and strictly made. It is very much to be regretted that the Iowa Republicans followed the example of those of Ohio in recommending the repeal of the time clause in the law concerning the application of soldiers for pensions, or, in other words, the extension and perpetuation of the pension-arrears scandal. This is a kind of demagogy which should not, and in the long run will not, pay.

The Republican State Convention of Minnesota has incorporated in its platform a resolution on the tariff which would be open to great objection if coming from a gathering of pretended free-traders, but which appears more acceptable coming from a party in which the protection sentiment is predominant. It insists upon maintaining the taxes upon whiskey and tobacco, and, in addition to them, "a system of duties upon imports, so applied as to provide revenue for the necessary expenses of the Government, and so adjusted as to encourage the development of the manufacturing and labor interests of the country." Theoretically it countenances the principle of protection, but as it wants revenue raised only to defray the necessary expenses of the Government, and insists upon keeping the large revenue derived from the whiskey and tobacco taxes, the additional amount to be raised through duties on imports will be small. Consequently the Minnesota Republicans must favor a very thorough revision of the tariff in that sense. For a convention of protectionists this is doing very well. If the whole Republican party would adopt this platform and act upon it in good faith and with consistency, it would gradually solve the tariff problem in a satisfactory way, and deserve in that respect more confidence than the Democrats. A party moving from protection premises in the direction of a liberal revenue reform would be more trustworthy than a party starting from a free-trade standpoint and moving in the direction of protection.

It seems that General Crook's reasons for the policy he advocates with regard to the Apaches whom he has brought in from their stronghold in the Sierra Madre, were at first not quite clearly understood and appreciated at Washington. Perhaps the War and Interior Departments did not like to assume the responsibility of ordering or authorizing things which were so little in accord with their first impressions, and so repugnant to the critical mind of the country. At any rate, there seems to have been some hesitation about the admission of General Crook's captives to the reservation, and the General himself was summoned to Washington for consultation. He will be there in a day or two. His management of Indian matters in war and peace has been throughout so vigorous, at the same time so humane, and, on the whole, so successful, that neither the War nor the Interior Department will compromise its dignity in following his advice. It is true that on former occasions these restless Apache vagabonds did break out again after having been located and decently treated on reservations; but it is apparently General Crook's opinion that they are now too thoroughly convinced of the hopelessness of further attempts in that line to indulge again in such eccentricities. If this is General Crook's opinion, the Government will do well to accept it; public opinion will not charge it with any responsibility if General Crook should prove mistaken.

The foreign missions of the Mormons are so successful that twenty-two missionaries, who returned on the *Nevada* on Sunday, were able to bring with them 674 accessions to the Church of the Latter-Day Saints. They cannot be sent back because they are not paupers. The adults are well dressed and have considerable baggage, and the children are healthy. The few of the company who are infirm are well cared for by relatives. Some of the immigrants have been assisted, but only in the way citizens of foreign birth for many years have helped their friends to join them in this country. The Mormon leaders not only aim to secure converts, but they shrewdly give them money for the journey to Utah. It is said that $35,000 has been expended in this way during the last year. Since these Mormon immigrants cannot be prevented from landing, it is encouraging to know that the sexes are about equally divided, that the men are farm laborers and mechanics, and that therefore they are probably going to Utah not to practise polygamy, but to work for a living. The multiplication of Mormons in this way by no means implies the multiplication of polygamists. While plurality of wives is adopted as an article of faith, as a domestic custom it is losing rather than gaining strength.

Stalwart sensitiveness in regard to the reputation of men who are not of that faction is illustrated in the case of Postmaster Pearson. When it was discovered that Mr. Pearson's name was associated with a district messenger and telegraph company, the Stalwarts at Washington, instigated thereto by the Stalwarts of New York, insisted that the Postmaster ought to be removed for engaging in a business which infringed upon the postal monopoly of the United States. It made no difference that it was at once explained that the messenger business did not come within the statutory prohibition; that Mr. Pearson had no connection whatever with the company, and that he never had authorized the use of his name in association with it, further than consenting as a friendly favor to sign the petition for its incorporation. This did not prevent the delicate and susceptible Stalwarts from insisting that even the appearance of evil must be avoided—by everybody but Stalwarts—and that the New York Postmaster must go. It did not prevent the Stalwart organ at Washington from sneering at "the truly good reform Postmaster" and the "dearly beloved Postmaster." But the sincerity of Stalwart sensitiveness is exposed to the gravest suspicion when the appointment by Commissioner Evans of the man Horton, who was once dismissed from the Revenue Department for cause, and against whom charges of gross corruption have been made, escapes all criticism whatever from the organ which impudently professes to speak for the Administration as well as the Star-route defendants. Certainly there could not be better ground for sensitiveness than the editorial relation of the Assistant Postmaster-General to such a newspaper.

Puck had a picture the other day showing Dorsey and Brady coming gayly out of one door of the court-house, free, and "counsel" coming out of another, very wealthy. This it called "Results of the Star-route Trial." For these results the Trial will probably always be regarded as one of the most remarkable in the history of jurisprudence. It has had a new result now, and a very singular one, in a threat of a libel suit against the Attorney-General by Mr. Cook, the "ex-counsel" for the Government, founded on an interview in which the Attorney-General stated that the ex-counsel had been discharged by the Government, and strongly hinted that after he had been discharged he "sold out" to the Star-routers. The ex-counsel says he never was discharged, but went out of the cases voluntarily; and also that he never sold out, though he seems to admit having a wicked partner who had a pecuniary transaction of some sort with the Star-routers which lent color to the accusation.

We are surprised that Mr. Cook is willing to confine himself to a libel suit. He ought to begin criminal proceedings. If the ex-counsel would have Mr. Brewster arrested and locked up in one of his own jails, it would teach the old slanderer a lesson which he would never forget, and greatly embolden timid counsel and ex-counsel who have wicked partners all over the world.

The visit of the plumbers to this city is an event of some interest, as it has enabled them to give—what is always so valuable in the case of any oppressed class—their view of their position. It appears from their proceedings that they attribute the feeling against them partly to the licentious attacks of the press, and partly to the rise of the sanitary engineer, who, they say, knows nothing about plumbing, and is an impostor. This seems to call for some reply from the sanitary engineers, many of whom, it is believed, privately hold and express the same opinion of plumbers that the plumbers do of them. Let them come out like men and tell us not only what they think are the facts with regard to plumbers, but what they have to say for themselves. There is of course no use in asking the press to withdraw its charges against plumbers; the press in this, as in so many other cases, is "down" on plumbers, because many editors think they are an unpopular class and try to curry favor with their readers by abusing them. But it is hopeless for the plumbers to attempt by argument to affect the minds of a class so depraved.

A good deal of excitement was occasioned in Chicago a little while ago by a decision of one of the courts there as to what are known as "superstitious uses." We have not the text of the decision before us, but the principle involved was that trusts made for "superstitious" purposes—for such purposes as saying masses for the repose of the souls of the dead—were not in this country void. The same question has now arisen in this city, and resulted in a decision that such trusts are void. Margaret Gilman, a pious old Catholic lady, in August last put the sum of $2,300 in the hands of a friend named McArdle, directing that the money should be used after the death of herself and her husband to pay for funeral expenses, the erection of a monument, and to have masses said for the repose of the souls of both. The old lady was then eighty-five years old, and she made the trust while alive, no doubt because she feared that a will might be disputed. She also very ingeniously united with the masses two other objects—a funeral and a monument—universally regarded as legal throughout the Christian world. Mrs. Gilman and her husband shortly afterwards died, and she has now, in the curious vernacular of New York jurisprudence, been badly "beaten" by Judge Freedman, of the Superior Court.

His decision is in substance that there is no objection to the trust on the ground of its being "superstitious"; that the old English doctrine with regard to the matter cannot be applied in this country, where the law recognizes complete equality among beliefs and creeds; but that in this case there is no beneficiary, no person in existence for whose benefit the trust is held. Mr. and Mrs. Gilman are both dead; the money is intended to benefit their souls. But, says Judge Freedman, the soul of a dead person "is incapable of taking an interest in property left behind." But how does Judge Freedman know this? In just the same way that Mrs. Gilman knew just the opposite. Mrs. Gilman and pious Catholics generally think that the soul will be benefited by masses, but living Catholics have never seen one so benefited, and living Protestants have never seen the contrary. Protestants say that there is no purgatory; Catholics say that there is. If the Catholics are right, it is obvious that the souls of Mr. and Mrs. Gilman are now deprived of a substantial property right, and the decision can only be supported on the theory that the Catholic religion is a superstition and the Protestant religion true. This is exactly what the courts in this country have always refused to decide, on the ground that one religious belief (in the eye of the law) is no more irrational than another; that the law has no machinery for deciding between them, and that it cannot undertake such a task without establishing, as far as it goes, a state creed. The Gilman funeral expenses were, in Protestant eyes, just as ill calculated to benefit the Gilman souls as the masses. A judge who has made up his mind that it is part of the common law that a soul cannot be benefited in any way by the expenditure of money in religious rites, is entering, we believe, on a new and, we may add, a not very safe field.

The Deceased Wife's Sister Bill was lost in the House of Lords last week by a vote of 145 to 140. This probably shows that in a year or two it will pass, as the vote against it has been steadily decreasing for a long period. The bold rally of the Conservatives against the bill is of course all the grander the more hopeless the cause becomes. It is sad to think, however, that the time when the English sister-in-law or aunt can lead a blameless and unsuspected life in the family of her brother-in-law is drawing so rapidly to a close. The good old times are fast passing away.

The vote on the second reading, which is usually decisive in the Lords, set English Conservatives to reflecting about the probable consequences of the passage of the bill. The principle which, according to them, underlies the prohibition of these marriages was very neatly stated by the Archbishop of Canterbury in the course of the debate. As the restriction is religious in origin, and he is the head of the Church, he must know; and he says, and says it boldly, that marriages of affinity are all right if in describing them you "count four"—*e. g.*, the man, his deceased wife, the deceased wife's relative, and another relative of the man himself; for example, a man's wife's sister may be married by his son; but it is a sinful and illicit connection if you "count three"—*e. g.*, the man, his deceased wife, and his deceased wife's sister. This, however, is only a test. The reason of the rule may be found, not, as we should naturally suppose, in the Bible—for the Bible is singularly silent on the subject—but in the last number of the *Saturday Review*. This well-known Conservative organ has thought the matter out carefully, and points out that if the barriers are once thrown down, the next step will be to demand the legalization of marriages with a man's own sister. All the arguments in favor of one, it says, can be used in favor of the other.

> "She is presumably as well suited to him in age as his wife's sister, certainly suited to him in station, probably more suited in disposition than any stranger in blood. They have to each other, by hypothesis, that reasonable affection without which marriage should not be contracted. The woman loves her nephews and nieces already (at least in most cases), for their own sakes and for the sake of her brother. The acutest judge on the bench may be very respectfully asked to point out a single flaw in the analogy."

The analogy seems to be perfect, and the inference drawn that the bill is "but an instalment" shows at once why the Conservatives have so stoutly resisted its passage, and why they dread the future should it become law.

Very cordial expressions of friendship and mutual good-will were exchanged between the Emperor of Germany and the Czar of Russia at the time of the latter's coronation; but in the meantime the German Government does not forget to provide for possible contingencies in the future. The cable informs us that the small fortress of Küstrin is to be transformed into a fortified place of the first class. Küstrin is situated between Berlin and the Russian frontier, on the river Oder and at the crossing of the railway from Berlin to Warsaw with several other roads of importance. The place is evidently intended to serve for the protection of the German capital in case of a war with Russia. The latter Power will scarcely have any reason for complaining of this apparent mark of distrust, for Russia began first to fortify her German frontier. The action of Germany can, indeed, not be taken as a hostile demonstration having an immediate meaning. It is merely an act of that timely caution for which the general staff of the German army is so well known.

The Count de Chambord seems to be really and seriously ill this time. The Royalists at Paris are naturally in a state of great excitement, for the death of the Count de Chambord means to them not only the demise of one king and the advent of another, but in this case the passing of the crown, or rather the right to the crown, from one house to another, from the Bourbon to the Orleans. And even more than that. It means the passing of the leadership of the Royalist cause in France from the hands of a pretender who represented the old régime overthrown by two revolutions, and who was so firmly wedded to its traditions that he threw away a chance to be King because he would not accept the tricolored flag, to the representative of a family identified with the leading principles of those revolutions, a man of modern ideas and of more than ordinary ability.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 27, to MONDAY, July 2, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR'S scheme for consolidating the revenue districts has been subjected to much criticism because in many cases where collectors were retained the preference was given to Stalwarts, the Independents being dropped. His friends urge in his defence that a careful analysis of the internal-revenue consolidation, in connection with the rule which the President adopted as to retaining or dismissing the collectors, will disarm some of the criticism. The rule is said to have been that where two or more districts were united, the collectors longest in the service should be dropped and the one of most recent appointment should be retained, provided the new man had a good record for efficiency. In a reduction of forty-six districts the oldest collectors were dropped in thirty-eight cases, leaving only eight instances in which this rule was departed from. These exceptions have excited the most criticism.

Mr. Frank D. Conger, son of the Michigan Senator, has been appointed by the President to be Postmaster at Washington, the previous nominee having declined.

Postmaster-General Gresham has decided to consider the relation of the lotteries to the mails, in view of the many complaints which have been made by some of the lottery companies of discrimination against them in favor of one company.

Mr. W. A. Cook, of the original Government counsel in the Star-route cases, has made a statement in regard to his connection with them, in which he says that he became connected with the Star-route cases in the spring of 1881, at the solicitation of Attorney-General MacVeagh; that soon afterward he had a private interview with President Garfield about the cases, in which the latter plainly set forth his views touching them, as follows: "That it was to be regretted that there was any apparent occasion for the investigation of the official and personal conduct of individuals who had occupied a high position in public life or of any contractors with the Government; that every one, according to the established rule of the law, was to be presumed innocent until fully proven guilty, and that in his opinion no criminal case could be properly conducted from any other standpoint against any citizen; that while this was true he desired and expected a full, fair, and impartial investigation of all the facts involved in each case, without regard to the persons who might be accused; but that in making such investigation he wished me to avoid what was at times too common among attorneys, the evil of 'making a case for the sake of having a case,' and that he did not regard it as proper to obtain an indictment against any one unless the facts made out a strong probable case and appeared to be such as would fully justify a trial before a petty jury." Mr. Cook has threatened to sue Attorney-General Brewster for slander, because he asserted in a recent interview that the Star-route thieves had used their plunder to buy up ex-counsel for the Government.

Representative Blackburn, of Kentucky, it is ascertained, expects to devote himself in the next Congress to an investigation of Star-route matters, and will very probably introduce a resolution creating a committee to examine the subject.

Secretary Folger has instructed the Emigration Commissioners in this city to prevent the landing of all immigrants found to be paupers within the meaning of the law, and in cases where such pauper immigrants have already landed, to take all practicable measures to have them reshipped to the port whence they came. The Commissioners have adopted resolutions instructing inspectors that all the immigrants must be examined on board the vessels bringing them.

Gen. Rufus Ingalls, Quartermaster-General of the Army, was retired at his own request on Monday, and Col. Samuel B. Holabird was recommended by Secretary Lincoln to the President to succeed him, and on Monday was appointed.

Information received at El Paso, Texas, from a Mexican citizen, says that Apache raiders on Wednesday last appeared in the neighborhood of Janos, and captured three herders and a quantity of cattle. General Crook discredits the report, and asserts that Indian troubles in that region are at an end for the present.

David L. Payne has applied to the United States Circuit Court at Topeka, Kan., for an injunction against Secretary Lincoln and General Pope, restraining them from interfering with his entrance into and occupation of the Oklahoma District of the Indian Territory. This application brings up for decision the whole question of the status of the Oklahoma District.

The new tariff laws and the laws as to money orders went into effect on July 1.

The public-debt statement, issued in Washington on Monday, shows a reduction during June of $18,098,201 43.

A war on trade silver dollars has begun in this city, and the movement has rapidly spread among the merchants and tradesmen of other cities not to receive them at their face value after July 1.

At St. Louis the flood has subsided and business has been resumed.

There were great rain-storms in Pennsylvania on Wednesday. Valuable mines about Wilkesbarre were flooded. There was great destruction of crops. Twenty-three collieries near Ashland, Pa., were flooded on Wednesday.

In the balloting of the New Hampshire Legislature for Senator on Wednesday Mr. Rollins received 105 out of 322 votes. There was no radical change in the situation up to Monday evening, as a quorum did not vote on three days.

The Iowa Republican Convention on Wednesday renominated the old ticket, headed by B. R. Sherman for Governor, and adopted a platform favoring prohibition and protection, and commending the Administration of President Arthur. It refused a renomination to Judge Day, one of the majority members of the Supreme Court who overthrew the prohibition amendment.

In the Minnesota Republican State Convention on Wednesday the organization was perfected by the friends of the Hubbard administration, thus defeating the Windom faction. Governor Hubbard was renominated by acclamation. A resolution condemning the action of those Republican legislators who refused to vote for Windom as Senator after he had received the caucus nomination last winter, was laid on the table by a vote of 148 to 92. The platform approves the River and Harbor Bill, urges the repeal by Congress of the time clause in the law relating to the application for soldiers' pensions, and advocates a revenue tariff so adjusted as to encourage home industries. A full ticket was nominated.

Considerable opposition has developed in Ohio to Judge Hoadly, the Democratic candidate for Governor, within the ranks of his own party. A son of ex-Senator Thurman has announced his intention of supporting the Republican nominee, because of Judge Hoadly's record as a Republican and a Liberal. His connection with the Archbishop Purcell troubles, as counsel for the assignee, in which capacity he contended for the sale of church property in the Cincinnati diocese, will also, it is asserted, injure his prospects. A decision in this case has not yet been rendered, and it is alleged that Judge Hoadly is trying to have it kept back until after the October election.

In a speech at a dinner in Springfield, Mass., on Thursday night, Mr. John Kelly sharply criticised Mr. Tilden for not courageously calling on the people to sustain him in assuming the Presidency of the United States in 1876. He also said Mr. Tilden tried to get the nomination in 1880, and, failing in this, used his influence in New York to defeat General Hancock.

After much negotiation and great efforts to escape the police and evade the law, Messrs. Beirne and Elam, the Richmond editors and duellists, met on Saturday morning near New Hope, Virginia. At the first exchange of shots neither was touched. At the second shot Elam was struck in the upper part of the right thigh, and Beirne escaped unhurt. Beirne then expressed himself as satisfied, and the parties left the field, going in opposite directions. Mr. Elam is editor of the Richmond *Whig* (Readjuster), and his opponent of the *State* (Bourbon). The wound of the former is severe, and may become dangerous. Under the laws of Virginia duelling is a felony; but no one has ever been convicted under the statute.

Valentine's recumbent figure of Gen. Robert E. Lee was unveiled at Lexington, Va., on Thursday, in the presence of 6,000 persons. Gen. Wade Hampton acted as Chief Marshal. Maj. John W. Daniel delivered the address.

Commencement exercises were held at Harvard, Yale, and Union on Wednesday, and at Trinity, Wesleyan, Dartmouth, Hamilton, and the College of the City of New York on Thursday. Governor Butler attended the Harvard Commencement, accompanied by his staff and escorted by the Lancers. At the alumni dinner, in responding to the toast for the Commonwealth, he made a speech very complimentary to Harvard, referring especially to her record in the war. He was received with great applause and cheers.

More ill-feeling has been caused at Union College by President Potter's course in not giving out the diplomas to the seniors on Commencement Day, but telling them to call at his house. As each student asked for the diploma he was cross-questioned by Dr. Potter regarding his opposition to the President.

Stephen Alexander, LL.D., Professor Emeritus of Astronomy at Princeton College, died on June 26, at the age of seventy-seven.

The Harvard College Freshman eight defeated the Columbia College Freshmen in a boat-race at New London, Conn., on Wednesday, by six lengths; time, 11:03. Harvard led from the start.

The Harvard College eight-oared university boat crew defeated the crew of Yale College on Thursday, at New London, Conn., by about fifteen lengths; time, 25 minutes, 46¼ seconds; distance four miles straightaway. The defeat is attributed by many oarsmen to the new stroke which Yale has been rowing for two years.

A great railroad scheme was reported from Indianapolis on Saturday. The design is as follows: Two double-track narrow-gauge roads are to be built, traversing the country in opposite directions from New York to San Francisco and from Chicago to New Orleans. There are to be 11,000 miles of track, with a capital stock of $300,000,000. It is to be called the People's Railroad Company, and is something in the nature of a benefit association. The whole scheme is said to be visionary, and of a kin with the Greenback movement.

The State Camp at Peekskill, N. Y., is now being occupied by the militia regiments in turn for their annual drill and outing. The Thirteenth, of Brooklyn, took possession on Saturday. Chaplain Beecher preached to them on Sunday.

"Dr." Hathaway, the Philadelphia malpractitioner, was on Wednesday sentenced to pay a fine of $500 and the costs of prosecution, and undergo an imprisonment in solitary confinement at labor in the Eastern Penitentiary for a period of seven years.

Major Ellis P. Phipps, the Philadelphia Almshouse ex-Superintendent, was sentenced on Saturday to five years' imprisonment at hard labor, for forgery.

Archbishop Purcell was very ill at the Convent of St. Martin's, O., on Friday, but on Monday he was reported much better, though not out of danger.

Rear-Admiral Benjamin F. Sands, of the Retired Navy List, died at his residence in Washington on Saturday evening, at the age of seventy-two years.

FOREIGN.

There has been a great panic in Egypt during the week on account of the cholera at Damietta, Port Saïd, and other places. The flight of Europeans has been great. A commission has been formed to devise means to protect Alexandria. A strict quarantine has been ordered at all Turkish ports against vessels arriving from Egypt. There were 113 deaths from cholera at Damietta on Wednesday and part of Thursday. The deaths averaged more than one hundred in twenty-four hours throughout the week. There have also been a number of fatal cases at Mansurah and Port Saïd. The Egyptian ministers have voted $25,000 for the use of the Sanitary Commission. Two thousand persons have already fled from Alexandria. The alarm has spread to Spain, and even in England there is much apprehension. The usual pilgrimage to Mecca has been prohibited in Algeria. On Sunday the number of deaths at Damietta reached 141.

The serious illness of the Comte de Chambord, the head of the Bourbon house of France, was reported on Sunday from his home at Frohsdorf, Austria. On Monday his condition was very critical, and his death was hourly expected.

Mr. Trevelyan, Chief Secretary for Ireland, replying in the House of Commons on Thursday afternoon to a question as to whether it was true that pauper emigrants had been sent to America with the knowledge and consent of the Government, said the reports about the landing of paupers in America were greatly exaggerated. He said that all emigrants sent by the Commissioners had been supplied with funds. No paupers had been sent out by the Boards of Guardians. He said that the *Furnessia* took out 421 emigrants, of whom only five families had been in the workhouse, and in each of these cases friends in America had offered them homes. He had himself seen all the tickets of the emigrants, including railway tickets from the other side. They had also checks for the full amount of the landing allowance, which for adults is £1 and for children 10s. The Secretary of the Tuke (Ireland) Fund declares that all emigrants who have been assisted to go to America by the fund have been sent direct to relatives or friends in that country, and have been provided with money on landing. It was announced in the House of Commons on Friday that the British Government had received no remonstrance from the American in regard to pauper emigrants.

A Parliamentary election in County Monaghan, Ireland, on Saturday, resulted as follows: Mr. Healy, Home-Ruler, 2,376; Mr. Monroe, Conservative, 2,011; Mr. Pringle, Liberal, 270. At Monaghan on Monday evening Mr. Healy addressed a large crowd of people, by whom he was received with great enthusiasm. He said that landlordism had been trampled under foot, and that the election represented the demand of Ulster for speedy reform in the land laws. He had little doubt that before many years every farmer in Ireland would be the owner of his holding. Mr. Healy said that the victory of the Parnell party would lead to a reopening of the land question and other great reforms.

The Court of Appeals has rendered a decision at Dublin in the important test case of Chaine against Nelson, on which 40,000 other cases depended. The Court held that the new rents became payable from the first gale day after the act was passed, and not from the day when they were fixed by the Commissioners.

Peter Carey, the Irish informer, is on his way to America.

The Rev. Thomas N. Burke, the well-known Irish priest and lecturer, died on Monday, at the Tallaght Convent, Ireland. He was a Dominican, and visited this country in 1872, as an inspector of the houses of that order. His sermons and lectures gained him much reputation as an orator. Among them was a series of discourses in reply to Mr. Froude, on his views of the relations of England and Ireland. Father Burke was fifty-three years of age.

The British House of Lords on Thursday rejected the bill permitting marriage with a deceased wife's sister on its third reading by a vote of 145 nays to 140 yeas.

It is reported in London that there is reason to believe that the Marquis of Lansdowne, Chairman of the joint committee of the House of Lords and House of Commons on the Channel Tunnel project, will report favorably upon that scheme, and that there will also be a minority report adverse to the project.

Alderman Hadley, of London, it is asserted in this city, has completed arrangements for the laying and operation of a new cable line between England and America. The name of the new company is the American, British and Continental Cable Company. Its capital stock is £1,500,000, divided into 150,000 shares at £10 each. This has all been subscribed by English capitalists. The objects of the association are to establish communication between Sable Island and Belle Isle and other points on the shores of the Dominion of Canada, and of Great Britain and the European Continent, or elsewhere, and also between any points on the Pacific coast of the Dominion of Canada and Japan, China, Australia, and India. In London the scheme is discredited.

In the House of Lords on Monday afternoon Lord Derby, Colonial Secretary, said that the Government was not prepared to annex New Guinea, owing to the enormous extent of the territory, the unknown character of the interior of that country, and the certainty that the natives would object to annexation. Mr. Gladstone made a similar statement in the House of Commons.

At a dinner of the Cobden Club in Greenwich, England, on Saturday night, Mr. Horace White, of New York city, responding for "Foreign Visitors," said that abstract free-trade principles had made little progress in America, but that free trade itself had made much progress. The Democrats would not do anything heroic. A little more bankruptcy would do more for knocking off the tariff here than free-trade doctrines. When free trade should be adopted in America that country would become England's greatest competitor in the world's commerce. Mr. Thomas G. Shearman recounted the history of free trade and protection in America, explaining that protection was due to the civil war.

The American Rifle Team reached England safely on the *Alaska* on Wednesday. Owing to the late hour at which they reached Liverpool, no reception was given them. The team went to Birmingham on Thursday, where they practised until Monday evening.

The Committee of the upper house of the Prussian Landtag approved the Church Bill, and its passage was secured, on Monday, by a vote of 64 to 16. The session of the Diet was then closed.

The chief proposal contained in the last note of Cardinal Jacobini, the Papal Secretary of State, to Prussia, is that the Vatican will recognize the duty of notifying the Prussian Government of clerical appointments on condition that Prussia declares the exercise of all priestly functions exempt from prosecution, and the training of priests free from all restrictions. The note emphasizes the desire of the Vatican to continue the negotiations notwithstanding Prussia's violation of diplomatic usage by passing the Church Bill while negotiations were pending.

Prince Bismarck's health continues to improve.

It was reported on Friday that Germany had suggested the mediation of Russia in the difficulty between France and China. On Monday it was asserted that Russia was not disposed to undertake the task. At the British Foreign Office it is asserted that China is resolved to prepare for the eventuality of war while carrying on negotiations with France to gain time.

The town of Küstrin, situated at the confluence of the River Wartha with the Oder, and the main point of cover for Berlin against an invasion from Russia, is being converted into a first-class fortress, capable of sheltering 50,000 men, by the German Government.

The arrest of M. Krazewski, the Polish author, and others in Germany, has led to the belief that a conspiracy exists for betraying secrets relative to the German military organization. Twenty arrests were made at Berlin and Dresden on Wednesday of persons supposed to be connected with the conspiracy, and other arrests have been made at Halle, Hanover, and Cologne.

The Russian Government announces that the negotiations between Russia and the Vatican have been concluded. The hierarchy will be allowed freedom in matters of faith, but interference in questions regarding the temporal power is forbidden.

Placards have been posted in Warsaw inciting the people to a general revolt and to an alliance with the Nihilists.

The Pope is indisposed. He is reported to be much disturbed by the state of affairs in Ireland and France.

It is reported in Paris that President Grévy has refused to grant a request made by the Radical members of the Chamber of Deputies to commute the sentence of Louise Michel to exile.

A desperate attempt was made on Thursday in a carriage of a railway train running from Calais to Paris, France, to murder and rob the Rev. Mr. Witchborne, an English clergyman. The murderer attacked Mr. Witchborne with a chisel, stabbing him five times. The assassin tried to make his escape when the train arrived at Amiens, but was captured after a terrific struggle. The assailant is an Englishman. He attempted to commit suicide, and, as well as his victim, is in a precarious condition.

General Wallace, the United States Minister to Turkey, still persists in his refusal to recognize the validity of the new Turkish tariff which took effect on March 13.

The Committee of the Belgian Chamber of Representatives has rejected the import duties on tobacco proposed by the Government.

The Fine Art Exhibition was opened at Munich on Sunday. The American exhibit is reported to be good.

Sir Alexander Galt, in a recent conversation at Montreal, said that the right of Canada to make her own commercial treaties had been practically conceded by England. The *modus operandi* was that representatives of Canada should be associated with the British Minister, and that the proposed terms be submitted for approval to the British Government. To these conclusions England reserved the right of judgment, especially in cases where treaties, in its opinion, were objectionable or would lead to national complications.

William Spottiswoode, LL.D., F.R.S., died in England on Wednesday at the age of fifty-eight. He was graduated at Oxford in 1845. In 1878 he was elected President of the British Association at the Dublin meeting. He will be buried in Westminster Abbey.

HONORARY DEGREES.

THE question of Governor Butler's title to a degree from Harvard College can hardly be considered settled as yet. There can be no greater mistake than to suppose that the respectful and friendly reception given him at the Commencement dinner indicated any change in the feeling toward him of the graduates of the University, which remains precisely what it has been for the last seven years. Those who thought it was well to refuse him the degree think so still. Those who thought it was a mistake not to give it think so still also. All that the cordial greeting given him at Commencement meant was that good manners had triumphed over prejudice or resentment, and that no departure was to be permitted from the usage which from the earliest times has made the Governor of the Commonwealth welcome at all ceremonies and fêtes of Harvard College.

The question whether he shall have the degree will come up again, should he be reelected—as many think likely—next fall. The Corporation of the College were all in favor of giving him the degree, and we believe are still sorry it was not given him; and the majority against giving it to him in the Overseers was a very small one, and only decided that this year he should not have it, so that the College has still to say whether the practice of making every Governor a LL.D. shall be abandoned or resumed. Some formal decision of the matter is absolutely necessary. If it be left as it is now, there will probably be a controversy over it whenever any one elected Governor is for any reason obnoxious to any considerable body of the graduates. As long as the LL.D. remains a college honor, to be bestowed or withheld as the college authorities may please, there will be protests from time to time against giving it to this or that man who may reach the Governor's chair. It is not likely that there will, under such conditions, ever again be complete acquiescence in the doctrine that a majority vote makes a man fit for any honor whatever, even for a distinction which the College, in theory at least, reserves for acknowledged and conspicuous merit in literature, science, art, or law. So that in the interest of peace and quiet, if of nothing else, it seems as if the College would have to say, formally and openly, either that it would give the degree to no more Governors, or that it was not in the Governor's case to be considered a college honor at all, but something to be bestowed on him, as a matter of course, like the title of "Excellency," and neither expressing, nor intended to express, any feeling about him whatever, either in the way of praise or blame. But it is obvious that a public announcement of this sort would deprive it of much, if not all, of its value in Gubernatorial eyes. Nothing to the unmeaningness of which the popular attention has been formally called, was ever long coveted by anybody.

The question can hardly be decided either way without a thorough overhauling of the expediency of all honorary degrees. As at present bestowed, their effect is to lower the value of all college honors in the popular eye. Originally they meant something positive and well defined. A Master of Arts was once a man who had pursued a certain course of study and passed certain examinations successfully. So was a Doctor of Divinity or a Doctor of Laws. At present these three degrees have no definite meaning at all. They are bestowed lavishly by all the colleges for all sorts of reasons, some of them not altogether creditable—because a college benefactor has asked for it, because the grantee is himself a college benefactor, because a man has written a book, because he has reached the age of sixty, because somebody else has to have it, and his feelings would be hurt if he did not get it too, because he has himself teased the Trustees for it, because he has a large congregation, because "charges" have been made against him unsuccessfully, but have left him in low spirits. The result is that the country is swarming with Masters of Arts who have never mastered any arts, and Doctors of Law who do not know any law, and Doctors of Divinity with whom divinity has very little indeed to do. Making every Governor of Massachusetts a Doctor of Laws simply for the purpose of testifying the respect of Harvard College for the Commonwealth is, of course, a piece of the same great unreality. It is right that the College should respect the State, and uphold in all proper ways its connection with it, but to express its respect by calling the very ignorant, and it may be obscure or vicious, person whom the chances of politics may any day put in the Governor's chair, a Doctor of Laws, is a custom worthy rather of an heraldic office than of a great institution of learning, in the country which, more than any other, has driven fiction and pretence out of politics and society and law.

There is just now a good deal of talk about university reform and changes in the curriculum and in the status of both students and professors. It would seem, therefore, an eminently fit time to discuss the propriety of giving reality and definiteness to college degrees, and stripping them of their mediæval drapery, or rather of the drapery which modern custom has hung round the mediæval idea. Would it not be well, for instance, for Harvard to take the lead in making its M. A. or LL.D. a bona-fide certificate that the wearer has knowledge of a certain definite kind, in a certain definite quantity; its D.D. a certificate that he really possesses theological learning, and that his life is pure and above reproach? This would be a step in the direction in which all modern institutions are now being compelled to move—the direction, we mean, of truthfulness and simplicity—as the prime condition of their retaining their hold on popular affection or respect. To those who are prejudiced against such a change on grounds of sentiment, we would say that there is nothing less sentimental in our time than all forms of sham, and one of the greatest shams of our time is a LL.D. who knows nothing, or a D.D. who has no divinity. There is nothing about him or his degree to excite the reverence of any human being, but much to bring college learning, in our country, into popular disrepute.

THE PAUPERS AND THE IMMIGRATION LAW.

MUCH as has been said as to the defects of the law passed by Congress to regulate immigration, we have not seen in the discussion to which the subject has given rise any definite suggestion as to how the act of 1882 ought to be amended. The States, until within a few years, undertook to protect themselves against immigrants likely to become a public charge by a head-money tax, or by requiring a bond from the steamship company conditioned against the immigrant becoming a public charge within a certain term of years. The head-money system has been declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, and the United States law of 1882 is designed to supersede all State legislation on the subject. In the first place, the head-money and bonds are replaced by a duty of fifty cents for every alien landed here, the money to be paid into the Treasury, and to constitute an "immigrant fund," and to be used, among other things, "for the care of immigrants arriving in the United States" and "for the relief of such as are in distress." This clause, it will be seen, is of considerable importance, for it contains a recognition of a fact which always has influenced and always must influence the immigration policy of this country—that temporary distress is not a test of pauperism, but may be, and often is, due to accident or misfortune.

The next clause of the act undertakes to dispose of the pauper question, and declares that it shall be the duty of the State Commission, Board, or officers "to examine into the condition of passengers arriving at the ports within such State in any ship or vessel, and for that purpose all or any of such Commissioners or officers, or such other person or persons as they shall appoint, shall be authorized to go on board of and through any such ship or vessel; and if on such examination there shall be found among such passengers any convict, lunatic, idiot, or any person unable to take care of himself or herself without becoming a public charge, they shall report the same in writing to the Collector of such port, and such persons shall not be permitted to land."

The execution of this law in this port requires action on the part of the Emigration Commission; but although the law was passed in August of last year, they did not until Thursday of last week take any steps to enforce it. They then adopted the following resolution:

> "Resolved, That inspectors employed by this Board are hereby instructed to conduct their examination of immigrants on board the vessels bringing them, and that the Collector of the Port be asked to detain the said vessels in stream for sufficient length of time to permit said examination."

Of course any pauper whom they refuse to allow to land will have to be taken back by the steamship company at its own expense; and it was, we presume, with a view to inducing the steamship companies to keep a strict watch in their own interest on the class of immigrants they bring over, that this clause was inserted in the bill. The companies do not wish to be carrying back rejected pau-

pers as dead-heads. They will, we may suppose the framers of the bill to have argued, be very careful whom they bring over. And this is exactly the way in which the law seems to have worked. From Mr. Trevelyan's statement in the House of Commons, on Thursday, it appears that even the five families of workhouse emigrants who came by the *Furnessia* have friends here who have offered them homes.

That the law is likely, when enforced, to prove a more efficient protection against this class of emigrants than is generally supposed, is strongly suggested by the circular letter of the Commissioners to the English companies announced as having been drawn up within a day or two. This circular informs the companies that if they will consent to take back any passenger landed at Castle Garden whom the Commissioners may find likely to become a public charge, the Commissioners will not insist on a rigid inspection of all passengers before landing. As a thorough inspection and examination on board the vessels would be likely to cause a great deal of delay and inconvenience to the companies, there seems little doubt that they will agree to this. The circular shows how much power the law enabling the Commissioners to prevent the "landing" of suspected emigrants really gives them, and how much it makes it for the interest of the companies to avoid causing trouble by "flooding the country" with paupers. The Revised Statutes (U. S. R. S., Sec. 2162) contain a provision with regard to the importation of coolies, requiring the certificate of the consul at the port of embarkation of the fact that the emigrant comes "voluntarily"—*i. e.*, is not brought over in a kind of slavery. A similar provision might, of course, be adopted with regard to paupers. The consul might be required to give a certificate that the emigrant was not likely to become a public charge. For this purpose, however, he would have to make an examination into the case of every emigrant on the other side, before his embarkation, and the inquiry would be no less difficult than an inquiry into the voluntary or involuntary character of the trip. But everything would depend on the energy and vigilance of the consul, just as it does, under the present law, upon the energy and vigilance of the Commissioners. Had the Commissioners originally taken steps to inform themselves what the law was, and sent their circular to the steamship companies before the assisted emigrants began to come over, and made preparations for a vigilant system of inspection, there would probably never have been any trouble. It must be said, however, also, that we should have lost a very remarkable and instructive "scare."

The fact remains, of course, that there is no absolute test of pauperism in these cases, and that an inquiry into the likelihood of immigrants becoming charges upon the State must be rough and summary, and generally decided by an inspection of the immigrant and his purse. But we would respectfully ask our contemporaries who have been discussing the subject, What else, in view of the uncertain condition in which all State regulations have been left by the head-money decision, they have to suggest? Why is not the idea which seems to underlie the law a very good one?

STANDARDS OF MANNERS.

A CORRESPONDENT asks us to publish, as a complete reply to the question, What is a gentleman? the following definition, which, he says, was first published some years ago in a New York newspaper:

"The gentleman is distinguished from him who is not a gentleman by moral qualities which have justly won the highest place in the respect and admiration of the world. The gentleman restrains his passions and subdues his selfishness; he considers the comfort of others before his own; he respects the personality of those with whom he is brought in contact; he never takes an unfair advantage; he is scrupulously regardful of his own honor, doubly scrupulous if the honor of others be committed to his keeping; he may lack mental culture, but he is never without moral refinement; he may have an unpolished exterior, but never a base nature; courage he has, but shows it less in facing danger than in meeting responsibility; if not always sincere, he is always reliable; and to him may be safely committed all that others hold most dear, in simple reliance upon his honor; he is a man whose manly traits are penetrated and modified by the gentleness of woman's nature, and who still preserves and endeavors to constantly act upon the manliest of instincts—magnanimity."

The view of the subject on which this definition is founded is a very old one. Thackeray and Dickens were both very fond of it, and both made use of it in their different ways—Thackeray chiefly by drawing a gentleman, setting him on his legs, and making him so real that we feel as if we had known Colonel Newcome in the flesh; Dickens by exposing the odious selfishness and want of magnanimity and consideration for others which he thought the distinguishing marks of the people of the so-called polite world. According to their theory, a true gentleman is a synonym for a polite Christian, but neither of them ever pointed out, as the author of the foregoing extract does, that, in the type, sincerity must be sacrificed to "reliability." What this means, we presume, is that complete consideration for others requires us often to dissemble our actual feelings, as in the *mot* attributed to the Duc de Morny, himself a polite and at the same time bad man—that the most perfect illustration of good breeding is furnished by a man who listens with interest to things he knows all about, when they are told by a person who knows nothing about them.

The difficulty with this theory is, that when those who uphold it are called upon to give an illustration of the type, they always refer us to some character in fiction, or to some person long since dead, of the details of whose life little has been preserved except some signal act of generosity like that of Sidney's cup of water, which has evidently been handed down to us because it struck Sidney's contemporaries just as it does us, as a wonderful piece of unselfishness, not to be expected from any one. A lady dying on the field of battle might do such a thing as a matter of course—provided that the soldier was not of her own sex; but beautiful as the story is, as a test of good breeding it is plainly ridiculous. Thackeray delivered a lecture to show that George IV. was no gentleman, because he was a cruel, selfish debauchee; yet his contemporaries never seem to have thought that this affected the question at all.

There is no doubt, however, that the modern notion of a gentleman has been considerably affected by the hold this view of the subject has secured in literature, and this is one of the reasons why it is becoming increasingly difficult to make out what people mean when they speak of a gentleman, or indeed, for that matter, of a lady. It is certainly dreadful to think what the consequences would be if we actually should attempt to apply the standard of refinement of feeling and consideration for others to society, which in theory ought to consist only of ladies and gentlemen. It would exclude from society some of its best, most energetic, and progressive members. No one, for instance, would be in society who made himself agreeable to Mrs. Jones by declaring to her, as we so often hear people do, that Mrs. Brown is the handsomest (or the cleverest, or the best-dressed) woman he ever saw. Consideration for the feelings of others clearly requires us to say "one of the handsomest," as this is the only way to leave a loophole for Mrs. Brown's vanity. So we should bid a long farewell to those of our companions who address people by the wrong name—often by the wife's name, or a married woman by her maiden name; who habitually mispronounce and misspell names, who tell a friend that they have mistaken him or her for another person—for in nine cases out of ten to say "You resemble so and so" hurts the feelings of the person to whom the remark is addressed. We should no longer be entertained with critical remarks upon our clothes, looks, or ways. We should no longer hear that we "have no appetite" or "eat nothing." On the other hand, we should be deprived of the satisfaction of making ourselves the great topic of conversation, especially our personal habits, our daily bath, shirts, boots, hats, and, worse than all, our ailments. We should have to avoid the fascinating occupation of digging up the past and talking about "old times"—a kind of excavation that disagrees terribly with some people.

We should not be able to ask people how much wages they pay their servants, or to laud to the skies absent friends of whom those present know nothing, or to describe with entirely incommunicable rapture places they have never seen. The old rule that politics and religion are not good subjects for general conversation because they lead to quarrelling, would have to be revived. We should not even be able to turn up our friend's dinner-plates to find out the value of his china, nor ask him where he got his chairs. Questions of this kind, which were formerly considered in very bad taste, furnish one of the great staples of modern conversation, and the friendly curiosity which has broken down the barriers that formerly surrounded furniture, pictures, and plate, is rapidly becoming regarded as legitimate in matters of dress, many women liking apparently to be asked where they got and what they pay for their clothes. General conversation as to underclothing is not yet recognized as permissible; but the deep and permanent interest which attaches to the subject makes it difficult to believe that it will be permanently tabooed. Systematic questioning of any kind was once universally considered bad manners—a fact recognized in

the old story of the London alderman's remonstrance: "Sir, with your damned interesting questions you've made me swallow a piece of green fat without tasting it"; for it is not only our finer feelings that an ideal code requires others to respect.

What do we think of a dinner party where the men are all in full dress, but the women "go-as-you-please"? What is to be said about the almost universal practice of indiscriminate introductions of people to one another without any inquiry as to whether they wish to know each other or not? Dropping the title "Mr." altogether on short acquaintance, and calling people by their last names, was formerly considered as insulting. But this sort of familiarity has now become complimentary, and the almost universal use of nicknames by men and women makes it look as if the change were founded upon some deep-rooted modern tendency. Brummel is said to have once rebuked a lady severely for using the expression "take tea," saying, "Madam, a vulgar man can take liberties, but one drinks tea"—an anecdote which not only shows how completely useless the learning of Brummel's day actually is, but also that Brummel, were he alive now, would not be likely to succeed as a man of fashion, for there is one kind of consideration for the feelings of others that may nowadays be regarded as a *sine qua non*—that which always teaches us to refrain from rebuking the vulgar for their vulgarity. Their numbers are so great as to make it very unsafe.

THE UNIVERSITY BOAT RACE.

NEW LONDON, Conn., June 28, 1883.

IT has seldom happened in the history of American college rowing that the crew which up to the very last days of training was looked upon as a sure winner has been so easily and thoroughly outrowed as were the Yale men in to-day's race. When the correspondent of the *Evening Post* wrote from Cambridge five weeks ago that the Harvard boating men were in despair over the apparent impossibility of securing a good stroke to take the seat left vacant by Mr. Curtis's untimely withdrawal, it was generally conceded that the young "giants" from New Haven had an easy task before them, and few of those interested in the annual race between the two universities ventured to hope for a close contest, resigning themselves to the prospect of witnessing another of those mournful "processions" which every now and then mar the enjoyment of all the spectators, except perhaps a few of the youngest and most enthusiastic supporters of the winning crew. Soon after the University eight took to the water of the Charles at the opening of the spring the most ominous rumors began to spread of the poor form and general weakness shown at their practice. It was whispered that in a trial spin with a "scratch" eight from the Union Club of Boston the University had been easily beaten, and it subsequently turned out that the report was true. With three new men in the boat, necessitating frequent changes; with stroke's thwart not permanently filled, Harvard's chances, even as late as during the last weeks of May, were with good reason considered worse than ever before at a time so near the race. Moreover, the Columbia crew, when they appeared at New London to take part in what some people are ill-natured enough to call their "side-show" with Harvard, were ranked above the latter, and on the morning of the race were backed at odds to beat the Cambridge men.

Whatever objections may be urged to the occasional Harvard-Columbia race, it certainly cannot be said that it detracted from the interest of the Harvard-Yale race of to-day. So far from this being the case, there can be little doubt that but for Harvard's easy defeat of Columbia the attendance to-day would have been a mere handful compared with the throng which filled the grand stand, the observation train, and the pleasure-boats along the course. The result of last week's race was a genuine surprise, and opened people's eyes to the fact that the Harvard men had been greatly underrated, and consequently public interest in the race with Yale, which had decidedly flagged, began to revive at the bare prospect of a close struggle. And yet the original predictions of the wise were at least half true. To-day's affair was, as they prophesied, an old-fashioned "procession" of the most pronounced sort, with only this difference—that the favorites were beaten out of sight.

With New London's usual good fortune, the fresh southerly wind with which the morning opened fell just short of causing a postponement. There was no call for any delay, although the rough and choppy water meant poor time. But good time is no longer a criterion of excellence, or a necessary element for a successful boat race, since the universities have taken to pulling on the New London course. In this respect, as in almost every other, the university race has come to resemble its English model, and the crew which to-day wins by "the fastest time on record," may be beaten over the same four miles to-morrow in worse time than it has ever made in practice, so varying are the conditions of the course in point of wind, tide, and water. Nevertheless, it is a capital course, equally fair to the crews, and possessing every advantage for spectators. The management this year was better than ever, leaving nothing to be suggested, and reflecting the greatest credit upon the skill and energy of the gentlemen of New London who had the matter in charge. The race came off with admirable promptness. Both crews came out as the press boat steamed up the river, and dropped their shells into the water before the observation train had reached the starting point. When the train came in sight the eights, in obedience to the referee's signal, pushed from their floats and immediately drew into position. Yale showed as fine and strong a crew as ever sat in an eight-oared boat. Their peculiarly short and jerky stroke calls for so much strain upon the arms that their breasts and biceps seemed, for rowing men, abnormally developed. Their long, odd-looking craft, with its curious pair-oared rigging, bore a huge windsail at its nose, in the middle of which was fastened the little blue flag at a distance from the centre of the shell equal to half the length of the Harvard boat, an arrangement agreed upon to equalize the advantage to Yale of eight or ten extra feet of length. A few minutes' unavoidable delay arose from the fact that Harvard's starting skiff had dragged her anchor down stream, and the Yale captain very naturally demanded a proper alignment, which consumed some time, during which the "press" and "university" boats drifted down stream half a mile from the start. At last we caught the flash of the oars, and the crews were off.

It seems almost incredible, but no less than four reporters on the press-boat, who made most careful preparations for accurate counting, "caught" Yale's rate, during the first minute after the first ten strokes, at fifty-three. Harvard went away briskly at thirty-seven, splashing very little, considering the state of the water, while Yale for half-a-dozen strokes dashed up the foam in clouds of spray. It was impossible to see from the press-boat which crew got off first, but Yale's rapid dash gave her a commanding lead at once, and rowing at least a dozen more strokes to the minute than her rival, she began to draw away from her before a hundred yards had been pulled. It must have required a good deal of nerve for Mr. Perkins, Harvard's new stroke, to feel the Yale boat slipping by him without getting flurried or losing his head. But he kept his men to their easy, swinging pace, and Yale, a little more than a quarter of a mile from the start, led Harvard by almost one of her own long boat's lengths, so that the little blue-capped coxswain could glance over his shoulder at the bow oar of the Harvard boat. But just before the half-mile flag was reached the Harvard stroke spoke to Mr. Sanger, the coxswain, and the latter, as it subsequently appeared, called to his men to "take her up for twenty strokes." For just twenty strokes and no more the spurt lasted, the pace jumping to thirty-seven or thirty-eight from thirty-four to the minute, but the effect was marvellous. The Harvard boat drew up to the leaders hand over hand, for an instant the two eights were even, and then Harvard, pulling easily at thirty-seven, drew rapidly ahead, with Yale tugging desperately at forty-four. So quickly was the lead reversed that the men in the two boats seemed to change places like the spokes of two wheels turning in opposite directions.

In less than a minute the race was lost and won. At the half-mile flag Yale's nose was ahead. In another hundred yards Harvard had taken the lead, and before three-quarters of a mile had been rowed her coxswain was ahead of the Yale bow, and slipping away at every stroke. Before the mile flag was passed the first open water between the two boats began to show, and at the mile Harvard led by from three-quarters to a full length clear. In the next half mile the lead was doubled, and at the two-mile stake Harvard's advantage, so far as could be reckoned from the press-boat, was between three and five lengths of clear water. It was at this point that Yale did her poorest rowing. Mr. Folsom ran up his stroke to forty-four, and hardly a man in the boat was able to keep his form at that rate and row the stroke out. The swing was out of time, and the "catch," although fairly even, was weak and ineffective. To add to their discomfiture, the wind, which had shifted slightly to the westward, caught their huge windsail on the starboard side and sent them heeling over to port. This forced Mr. Tucker, their coxswain, who throughout the race handled his boat admirably, to jam his rudder hard down so as to keep the shell close to her course, with the inevitable result of a loss of headway. The Yale boat, it should be said, was visibly better adapted to smooth water. The body lines were carried well out each way and she rode too high for the stiff wind and choppy sea which the Harvard men, with their free, rhythmic stroke and neat recovery, found so comparatively easy to cope with. Harvard passed the three-mile flag eight or ten lengths ahead, still rowing at thirty-four, Yale at forty-two, which she increased to forty-five half a mile from home. Mr. Perkins made no change in his stroke until just before the finish, when he spurted to thirty-seven, and his men sent their boat flying over the line the easiest of winners by a score of lengths. They had been beautifully steered from start to finish. Over a minute later, as the Harvard men lay resting on their oars across the finish, Yale came pounding down the course. Mr. Folsom rallied bravely and forced his stroke up to forty-five; his men responded with vigor and drove their boat over the last hundred yards, coming in in

26 minutes 59 seconds, to Harvard's 25 minutes 46½ seconds.

It was a very bad defeat, and must have been a mortification to the men who have obstinately stuck to a style of rowing which the best New Haven oarsman and coach had warned them was absolutely false. It was a pity for Yale, as Captain Cook said a year ago, that Harvard's sweeping victory did not come then, and that the "eel grass" furnished an excuse for Yale's defeat in 1882, which was in reality due to the same causes that put her so far behind to-day. With practically the same veteran crew of a year ago, they were disastrously beaten by an eight which had but a few weeks' pulling together in their present places, and was composed of men most of whom were schoolboys when half of the Yale crew rowed their first and a winning 'Varsity race. In point of size, weight, and seasoned strength the Yale men were immeasurably superior to their rivals. But all these advantages were rendered absolutely nugatory by the deliberate adoption of a style of rowing in which they were of no avail.

G. W. G.

THE BRIGHT FESTIVAL AT BIRMINGHAM.

LONDON, June 16, 1883.

THE celebration at Birmingham of Mr. Bright's silver wedding to that constituency, the twenty-fifth anniversary of his first election there, is an event without parallel in our political history for the largeness of the scale on which it has been carried out and the enthusiastic recognition of the services of its central figure. There is no other place in England which could have organized such a gathering. Birmingham is the most political of all our seats of political life. In our other great English towns, in Manchester, Liverpool, Newcastle, Leeds, Sheffield, London itself, both parties are strong, and though the Liberals command a majority in all of these except Liverpool, still the Tories are also so powerful that neither has been able to gain a complete command of the place, and the upper classes in particular are so largely Conservative as to give that party a social prestige which compensates its numerical inferiority. But in Birmingham the Liberals dominate and pervade the whole place. They have so overwhelming a majority in the Parliamentary constituency that they return three Liberal members in spite of a voter's being allowed, under the minority-vote device, to give only two votes instead of three. They have the municipal government entirely in their hands, and every department of local administration. They have invented a system of representative councils of the party which has served as a model for the rest of the country. Nowhere is there so keen an interest in political affairs among the mass of the voters. Nowhere are the relations of the working people with the classes next above them more intimate, and their coöperation in political action more cordial. In Birmingham both that party discipline which often checks enthusiasm, and that enthusiasm which is apt to break down discipline, are at their highest point. The importance, as a centre of political thinking as well as action, which was attributed to Manchester forty years ago, has now passed from Lancashire to the capital of the West Midlands, and its name excites the same hostility from the land-owning interests as that of Lancashire did in the days of the Anti-Corn-Law League.

It is not altogether easy to account for this newly-won ascendancy. Something is probably due to mere chance, to the accident which has raised up in Birmingham a group of able and energetic men with a passion for political life, and who have known how to rouse and guide the working classes. But the character of Birmingham trade has no doubt also its influence. There exists here much more largely than in the Lancashire towns a class of small employers of labor, men who form a link between capitalists and workingmen, men who have often sprung from and retain the political feelings of the workingmen, but have not grown rich enough to acquire the plutocratic sympathies of the great northern mill-owners or coal-owners. The manufactures of the place are also very largely those which require highly-skilled labor, which attract the most intelligent artisans, and develop their aptitudes to a high point. There is a good deal of intellectual life about Birmingham, an unusually large number of societies for study and discussion, a great use of public libraries.

So soon as the town perceived that its influence was recognized and had begun to alarm the conservative classes, it was naturally roused to greater exertions. The possession of Mr. Bright, so long the leader of English radicalism, the close political friend and only oratorical rival of Mr. Gladstone, has been a great feather in Birmingham's cap, and the opportunity for at once honoring Mr. Bright, making a democratic demonstration, and showing what Birmingham can do, stimulated the people to the utmost. You have already read accounts of the proceedings, and probably also reports of the speeches delivered by Mr. Bright, Lord Granville, and Mr. Chamberlain. I need neither abstract these, nor repeat the observations made in a recent letter to you on the position which Mr. Bright now holds in England, and the reasons why the abuse wherewith he used to be assailed twenty years ago has been replaced by a sentiment of respect even from his opponents, and of pride in the mind of the public at large. But the speeches he has made, containing so much historical or retrospective matter, suggest some further reflections on his career and on the sources of his influence.

His political action, now covering a period of more than forty years, has been devoted to three causes—those of free trade, Parliamentary reform, and of peace. The first of these questions has been practically at an end among us since 1852, when the Tory Government of Lord Derby abjured protection, which Peel had already overthrown; for, although the work of striking the fetters off trade was not quite completed then, and although attempts have been since made to get up a sort of disguised protectionism under the name of reciprocity, there has never been, and is not now, any serious falling away from faith in the theory of free trade, or from the practical applications which our legislation has given to that theory. Mr. Bright's work in this direction may therefore be said to have been complete more than thirty years ago, and he has enjoyed ever since the distinction of being one of those to whom the world has come round.

The Parliamentary-reform agitation which, beginning about 1859, produced the abortive bill of Lord Russell and Mr. Gladstone in 1866, and the Parliamentary Franchise Act of 1867, carried by Mr. Disraeli—to the astonishment of all England, and, above all, of the country squires who voted for it—was largely the work of Mr. Bright. His aim was to extend the suffrage to the upper part of the working classes, the skilled artisans and persons generally from whom a fair measure of intelligence and interest in politics might be expected. He was quite satisfied with the act of 1867, so far as the boroughs were concerned—indeed, it was conjectured that he would have been just as well pleased if the qualification had not been so far reduced, for it included a great many people belonging to the lower and less educated section of the working class. The county franchise still remained, and remains to this day, much more restricted; but Mr. Bright's interest was mainly for the borough people, and he knows, like everybody else, that the change in the counties cannot be long delayed. Thus this second great object of his exertions having been attained, he has found it the easier to rest from his labors, and look back with satisfaction on the past. In the third aim he has been less successful. The Crimean war was waged in spite of all the opposition he and Mr. Cobden could offer. His resistance to Lord Palmerston's Chinese war in 1857 cost him his seat at Manchester. He has seen Britain engaged in a good many colonial wars since then, and retired from the Ministry last July because it had entered on military operations in Egypt. The principles of non-intervention are still far from dominant in this country, and seem unlikely to become so in this generation. Yet they have made considerable progress since he first appeared as their advocate, as the fall of Lord Beaconsfield's Government and the amount of resistance evoked by the recent Egyptian expedition have amply proved; so that in this respect, also, Mr. Bright has good reason to be proud of the influence he has exerted, and to look hopefully toward the future.

He now rarely speaks either in the House of Commons or on a public platform. Though his health is fairly good, and his oratorical powers undiminished, he has all the air of a man who has done his life's work, and does not seek to embark in any new struggles. Upon the topics which form the programme of the present Radical party he seldom expresses himself. He is indeed a foe to established churches, and presided the other day, for the first time in his life, at the meeting of the great nonconformist society which seeks to disestablish the state churches of England and Scotland. But he takes no part in the skirmishing which goes on upon ecclesiastical questions in Parliament. He rarely touches on Irish affairs, and though every one knows that he sympathizes with the sufferings of the Irish people, and would advocate afresh his old plan of aiding them to buy out the landlords, he is a stout upholder of the Union, and denounced with severity the "rebel party," as he called it, which has sought to paralyze the House of Commons. He shows, by his dislike to such proposals as those which Mr. Chamberlain commended (in a remarkable speech delivered in his honor at this Birmingham celebration) for the establishment of equal electoral districts and the payment of members of the House of Commons, that he is far from being an ultra democrat.

The great position he holds, the confidence which he inspires, are not due mainly to his eloquence, remarkable as that is. Nor are they to be wholly ascribed to the fact that he has proved to be right in so many hotly disputed questions—right about free trade, about Parliamentary reform, about the disestablishment of the Anglican church in Ireland, about compulsory church rates, about the civil war in the United States—a contest in which the clearness and boldness of his attitude have been the better remembered because he stood opposed to most of the upper and so-called respectable classes in England. What has specially impressed the people of Great Britain is the singular consistency of his career, as the index and consequence of a singularly simple and straightforward character, and of a political faith which is, so to speak, all of a piece. No one has ever had the least doubt what he thought, or in which camp at any moment to look for him. He has often been accused of bit-

terness and violence, sometimes of narrowness; but no enemy has suggested that he had any personal ends to gain, or that there was in him any trace of weakness or hesitation. This sort of character is what most commends itself to Englishmen and to democracies, and the best wish that can be formed for English democracy is that it should continue to trust and value its leaders mainly for their honesty and single-mindedness. Such qualities are by no means the only ones needed in a popular leader; yet the want of them is even more fatal than the want of that tact in party management and skill in moving masses of men by speech which democracies tend to develop. With such a character and influence, it is a pity that Mr. Bright cannot remain in public life for another twenty years to help us to steer through the storms which seem to be awaiting us in the near future. But this, as Mr. Ruskin has said, is the most vexing thing in human affairs, that when one is most fitted by knowledge and experience to serve the world, one's time to leave it approaches. Y.

PROGRESS OF FEMALE EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, June 21.

A FEW days ago there took place at Cambridge a ceremony which, though it attracted no great notice here, and has perhaps not been telegraphed to America, deserves notice as illustrating the progress of one of the most beneficial movements of our time. This was a festival, if a quiet and unpretending afternoon gathering can be called by that ambitious name, held at Newnham Hall, in the outskirts of the university town—a college founded some twelve or fifteen years ago for the higher education of women. The occasion was the presentation to Miss Anne Jane Clough, sister of the poet, Arthur Clough, and principal of Newnham since its foundation, of her portrait, executed by one of our best artists (W. B. Richmond), and subscribed for by former students of the College. The day was fine, a piece of good fortune which seldom attends open-air ceremonies in England, and a good many sympathizers in the cause of female education had gathered from London and other places, not only to show their regard for Miss Clough, but to celebrate the growth of the institution and rejoice over the triumph of the cause which it represents. About one hundred of the past students and nearly as many present ones covered the lawn with their pretty summer dresses. The speeches, most of them made by ladies, were short and genial, and the only adverse criticism passed on the proceedings came from some of the male sympathizers, who observed that the girls needed to be trained in the art of cheering, their high-pitched voices giving rather a dropping fire than a solid volley of sound.

The whole question of university education for women seems to have excited so much attention in America lately that your readers may be interested in hearing what has been done in England during the last eighteen years. It is from the year 1865 that the movement dates. In that year a Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into and report on the endowed grammar schools of England and Wales, and on what is called "secondary" education generally. Several ladies who were already alive to the deficiencies in the education of their own sex, memorialized this Commission to extend the scope of its inquiry to girls' schools, and the Commission, taking what was then thought quite a bold step, consented to do so. A considerable number of girls' schools were accordingly visited, and some evidence taken regarding the state of girls' education generally, the result of these inquiries being, as was expected, to show that it was scanty and superficial, inferior even to the education received by boys, poor as that generally appeared to be. One of the points brought out was the absence of any institutions doing for women what the universities did for men, and the consequent difficulty in which women stood of obtaining the highest kind of education—a difficulty which told on girls' schools by making it hard for them to procure thoroughly competent mistresses. This led in the course of the next year or two—the report of the Commission having been published in 1868—to the establishment of a college for women, which was first placed at Hitchin, a town on the Great Northern Railway, between London and Cambridge, and in a little while, when money had been collected sufficient for the erection of buildings, this college was finally settled at Girton, a spot about two miles from Cambridge, whence it takes the name of Girton College. Its purpose was to provide for women the same teaching in the same subjects as men receive in Cambridge University, and the teachers were nearly all of them professors or tutors there, men in some cases of high eminence.

Meanwhile, in Cambridge itself, a system of day classes for women, taught by University teachers, had been created, at first as an experiment for one year only. When several years had passed, when the number attending increased, and it was found that women came to lodge in Cambridge in order to profit by these lectures, a house was hired in which to receive them, and ultimately a company was formed and a building erected a little way out of Cambridge, under the name of Newnham Hall, to which the lectures, now mainly designed for these students coming from a distance, were attached. Thus, at about the same time, though from somewhat different origins, Girton and Newnham came into being and began their course of friendly rivalry. Both have greatly developed since then. Their buildings have been repeatedly enlarged. Their numbers have risen steadily, and now average in each institution from seventy to eighty. In Girton the charge for lodging, board and instruction is £100 per annum, in Newnham a little less. The life in both is very similar, a lady being placed at the head as resident principal, while the affairs are managed by a committee including both men and women. The lectures are delivered partly by Cambridge men, professors in the University, or tutors or lecturers in some of the colleges, partly by ladies, who, having once been students themselves, have come back as teachers. These lectures cover all the subjects required in the degree examinations of the University; and although students are not obliged to enter themselves for those examinations, they are encouraged to do so, and do mostly set the examinations before them as their goal.

Originally the University took no official notice of the women students, and their being examined by the regular degree examiners of the University was a matter of pure favor on the part of those gentlemen, who consented, year after year, to add this additional labor to the duties which the University imposed on them. At last, however, some examiners came into office (for the examiners are changed every two years) who disapproved of this informal examination of the women candidates, and accordingly a proposal was made to the University that it should formally authorize and impose on the examiners the function heretofore discharged by them in their individual capacity. This proposal, after some discussion and opposition, was carried, so that now women may enter both for the honor examinations and the pass examinations for the University degree as a matter of right. Their names do not appear in the official lists among those of the men, but separately; they are, however, tested by the same question papers and judged by the same standard, so that whatever honors they obtain have at least as much value as those obtained by a young man.

Some Oxford graduates and their friends, stimulated by the success of Girton and Newnham, have founded two similar institutions in Oxford, one of which, Episcopalian and indeed High Church in its proclivities, is called Lady Margaret Hall, while the other, in compliment to the late Mrs. Somerville, has been given the title of Somerville Hall. These establishments are conducted on much the same lines as the two Cambridge colleges, but they are still much smaller, and the University of Oxford has not yet directed the admission of women to its degree examinations. In the large towns where new colleges have been lately founded or courses of lectures established, such as Manchester, Liverpool, and Leeds, steps are usually taken to provide lectures for women, but, so far as I know, no regular places of residence and teaching have yet been opened. It has, however, been proposed that the University of St. Andrew's, the oldest but also the smallest and most disadvantageously placed of the Scottish universities, should be turned into a university for women, the number of its students being now very small, while the seclusion of the location may be thought favorable to its prospects as a place of studious quiet for young women.

What is called among you the question of co-education has come up very little in England. All the lectures given inside the walls of the four English colleges I have mentioned are, of course, given to women only, the colleges being just as exclusively places for women as Trinity and St. John's are places for men. No one has proposed that women should be admitted to Trinity or St. John's, for the conditions and usages of our undergraduate life would be unsuitable for women. On the other hand, there are many University lectures to which the students of Girton and Newnham resort, sometimes with, sometimes, I believe, without, the escort of an elder lady. No difficulty seems to have ever arisen from this practice. The women take their seat by themselves in one part of the lecture room, listen and take notes, rise and walk or drive back to their college, when the lecture is over, without exciting any remark. It would, of course, be possible to go further—to matriculate them as full members of the University, subject them to the ordinary University discipline and regulations, and give them the ordinary University privileges which undergraduates possess. But this has not been asked for. Things have gone on quietly and profitably so far, and no trouble has arisen from the fact that these women's colleges stand in or near towns filled with young men, many of whom are pretty idle and allowed to do what they please.

More significant even than the progress which I have endeavored to trace in the number of female students, and in the legal recognition they have won, is the change in English public opinion on the subject. Thirty years ago the idea of giving women a university education would have been scouted as absurd. Twenty years ago, when a few enthusiasts began to talk of it, it was met with ridicule, or with arguments that education was not needed for women, or would injure them and destroy all the feminine graces. Now this hostility has so completely vanished that its existence is scarcely remembered. People take the colleges for wo-

men, the admission of women to examinations as a matter of course; even the comic papers have ceased to make jokes on the subject. A little of that sentimental interest which induced the Cambridge undergraduates, who walked out to see Girton College being built, to ask the bricklayers to let them place a brick in the rising wall, still lingers, and makes people more earnest in working and subscribing for women's colleges than they would be for men's; but otherwise the sexes stand pretty much on a level in this matter. People of all ranks, all political or religious opinions, send their daughters. At this moment the principal of one of the two halls of which Newnham consists is a daughter of the Prime Minister, while her predecessor was a niece of the Marquis of Salisbury. The principal of Girton is a niece of the late Lord Lawrence, the famous Governor-General of India. Of the students a fair proportion belong to the wealthy classes, while a somewhat larger proportion mean to take teaching as their profession, and do, in fact (until they marry), obtain places as teachers in those high schools for girls which have sprung up in our large towns of late years, and which in turn help to feed the women's colleges by raising the level of and the taste for education. Though there is no reason to think that the number of university students will ever become nearly so large among women as it is among men, we expect it to go on steadily increasing, and regard Girton and Newnham as only the earliest among the many seats of female learning that are likely to arise in England.

Y.

Correspondence.

McMASTER AND MACAULAY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are some things which critics scarcely need point out to persons of ordinary reading, and which are so obvious as to pass without saying. Macaulay's style is easily recognized, and the more successful the attempt to imitate it, the more certainly the model is recalled. In your Notes in No. 938, you say "that the new 'History of the United States' was immediately noticed by all the papers and all the weekly and monthly magazines; it was received with a unanimous chorus of praise. The style, in particular, received especial attention; *but no one thought of the forgotten writer of forty years ago:* all looked at once to an English historian of our own day. Every one said that Mr. McMaster had imitated Mr. Green (though the English history did not appear until the American was half written), *and no one perceived that he resembled Macaulay.*" Mr. McMaster tells us that education was almost wholly neglected in the South prior to the Revolution, and nowhere to such an extent as in South Carolina; and that the same is true of to-day (p. 27). Curiously enough, in view of this historical fact, if the *Nation* is right in the quotation we have made, a Charleston paper was the only one to recall the forgotten writer of forty years ago. The *News and Courier* of March 20, noticing the first appearance of this book, says that it cannot give a better idea of its scope than by quoting the opening paragraphs, which it does in full, and thus comments: "No reader of this passage will doubt where Mr. McMaster has 'picked up his style.' The influence of Macaulay is manifest enough, and it is only fair to say that the echo is not unsuccessful."

We agree with the *Nation* that, whether Mr. McMaster's style be pure imitation or the similarity that comes from the effort to attain the same end, the result is undeniable. "The likeness is at times painful; one feels uncomfortable in listening to the familiar rhythm, and meeting one after another the well-known mannerisms." But, whether consciously or unconsciously, Mr. McMaster has imitated Macaulay in other respects besides his style, and repeats the faults which have reduced the most exquisite picture of England ever drawn from the level of authoritative history to that of romance. We turn to Macaulay for enjoyment, not for historical study. It has been said of Macaulay that when he is describing the merits of his friends and the faults of his enemies his pen knows no moderation. He has a constant tendency to glaring colors, to strong effects, and will always be striking violent blows. He is not merely exuberant, but excessive. There is an overweening confidence about his tone; he expresses himself in trenchant phrases, which are alike challenges to an opponent to stand up and deny them. His propositions have no qualifications. Uninstructed readers like this assurance, as they like a physician who has no doubt about their case. But a sense of distrust grows upon the more circumspect reader as he follows page after page of Macaulay's categorical affirmation about matters which his own experience of life teaches him to be of a contingent nature. We inevitably think of a saying attributed to Lord Melbourne: "I wish I were as cock-sure of any one thing as Macaulay is of everything."

Mr. McMaster is just as cock-sure, and sometimes falls into very serious mistakes in consequence. As an instance, he says (at p. 27): "In the Southern States education was almost wholly neglected, but nowhere to such an extent as in South Carolina. In that colony, prior to 1730, no such thing as a grammar school existed. Between 1731 and 1776 there were five. During the Revolution there were none." For this statement he refers to Ramsay's 'History of South Carolina.' In this paragraph Mr. McMaster misquotes Doctor Ramsay, to whom he refers, and makes statements which are untrue, and the untruth of which is capable of demonstration by reference to book, page, and line of works which were open to him. We must take some other occasion to refute his assertions more fully than we can do in the limits of such a communication as this. Suffice it for the present to say that Doctor Ramsay, so far from authorizing the statement that there was no grammar school in South Carolina before 1730, tells of the establishment of a free grammar school in Charleston in 1710–12, gives the history of other public and private schools, and makes this distinct statement: "The knowledge of grammar and of the Latin and Greek languages could be obtained in Carolina at any time after 1712, or the forty-second year subsequent to the settlement of the province." As matter of history, not only were the schools in South Carolina already in existence kept open during the Revolution until closed by the bayonets of the British soldiers, but while the city of Charleston was invested by the enemy the General Assembly were establishing more schools throughout the State.

Macaulay proposed, in writing his history, to turn over hundreds and thousands of pamphlets; and his critics claimed that in doing so he was led to rely for some of his assertions upon papers of very questionable authority. Mr. McMaster says our ancestors were dependent upon their private correspondence for information as to public affairs; and he observes of these letters, that it is from this source that a just and accurate knowledge is to be obtained of many great events and stormy times. We have no doubt that such contemporaneous criticisms upon the actions and actors of any given period of history throw great light upon transactions which one desires fully to understand. But such light is always a side-light. The impatient and fretful outpourings of an active politician to his friends at home, written in the moment of defeat or excitement of contest, are not the sources from which historical facts can be established. They are, as to facts, the most unreliable of historical data. Yet it is upon such that Mr. McMaster relies to prove, as matter of history, a most corrupt bargain for the establishment of the seat of government at Philadelphia (see p. 581).

If Mr. McMaster followed Macaulay's example of turning over hundreds and thousands of pamphlets and papers, the work must have confused him; for we find him (p. 287) referring to the New York *Gazetteer and Country Journal* of July 21, 1786, for an account of a mysterious secret organization in Charleston called the Hint Club, the precise purpose of which, he says it must be owned, is obscure, but which he assumes was an original Ku-Klux, formed for the purpose of maintaining the credit of the State currency. No such paper is mentioned in Hudson's 'History of Journalism.' There was a New York *Gazette*, but that was started in 1759, and is not among those mentioned as having passed through the fire of the Revolution (pp. 111 and 144). There was a South Carolina *Gazette and Country Journal*, but the reference cannot have been intended for that paper, for that, too, was published only from 1765 to 1775 (see Hudson's 'History of Journalism,' p. 119, and King's 'Newspaper Press of South Carolina'). We must be sceptical, then, of this original Ku-Klux until a reference is given us by which its existence may be verified.

There is an occasional characteristic of Mr. McMaster's style which he certainly did not copy from Macaulay, and that is *flippancy*. In describing the debate on the revenue system and on tonnage, and giving very fairly the reasons which were presented by the representatives from South Carolina and Georgia against these measures—the same arguments against protection which are agitating the whole country to-day, and which the *Nation* is pressing so ably — Mr. McMaster adds contemptuously: "The complaints were not heeded, and the duty was laid. Indeed, the House, it should seem, had reached the wise conclusion that the members from South Carolina and Georgia could be pleased with nothing" (p. 552). This is smart, but scarcely in accord with the dignity of history or the elegance of Macaulay.

Mr. McMaster's dislike to South Carolina is as great as Macaulay's to the Stuarts. It is doubtful, however, whether Macaulay, much as he is read, has influenced to any great extent the opinion of the world as to that unfortunate family; and we do not much fear that Mr. McMaster will in the end do South Carolina much harm, unless hereafter he is more careful in his flings and accurate in his quotations.

Edward McCready, Jr.

Charleston, S. C., June 26, 1883.

[Since the publication of our Note on the above subject, we have received proof of a much more extensive and much earlier detection of Macaulayism in Mr. McMaster's work than had come under our observation up to that time.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

The second volume of Bancroft's 'History of the United States' (Appletons) extends from 1688 to 1763, the date which is usually taken as that which separates the Colonial from the Re-

volutionary era of our history. Mr. Bancroft, however, follows a different division of periods, and makes the last half of this volume (vol. iv. of the original edition) commence the period of the Revolution. The present instalment falls, therefore, into two nearly equal parts: Part 3 of the History of Colonization—"Colonization of the West and of Georgia"; and Epoch 1 of The American Revolution—"Britain Overthrows the European Colonial System." The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), instead of the treaty of Paris (1763), is taken as the commencement of the Revolutionary epoch. It is worth while to note this arrangement with some particularity, because the division into periods is the most essential foundation of any historical treatment, and the conclusions of an historian of Mr. Bancroft's eminence, held to for half a century, are entitled to high respect. We ourselves, however, prefer the other division. It seems to us that the conquest of Canada is the great crowning event of the Colonial period, closing that period, and that the Revolutionary period begins with the financial legislation which grew out of this conquest, and which may be dated from the change of Ministry in 1763; so that this year, in which the English empire in America was consummated and the first step taken toward alienating the colonies from Great Britain, may properly be regarded as the close of one period and the beginning of another.

Mr. Henry J. Wisner has recently published, through G. P. Putnam's Sons, a guide-book, 'The Yellowstone National Park: A Manual for Tourists, being a Description of the Mammoth Hot Springs, the Geyser Basins, and other Features of the Land of Wonders.' The author has availed himself of all the official material at his command, and has presented in a well-arranged form concise and graphic descriptions of the principal objects of interest, together with the necessary information as to the best methods of reaching them. Not only to tourists contemplating a trip to the Park, but to all admirers of the wonders of nature, the little work will prove far more attractive than the average of its class. It is accompanied by a map of the region, which, although very imperfect, is as good as any that has been published. Now that the Government has leased grounds for the erection of hotels to accommodate pleasure-seekers, and has undertaken to build roads and bridges, it is to be hoped that we may soon have a map of the very best kind, and on a scale sufficiently large to represent the necessary details of topographical structure.

Roberts Bros. have published a new edition of the Rev. Edward Everett Hale's 'Ten Times One is Ten: the Possible Reformation.' A few pages at the end enumerate a certain number of charitable organizations which owe their origin to this work: the Ten Times One Club, the Harry Wadsworth Helpers, the Look-up Legion, etc. These imperfect and at best not very striking statistics seem to us rather prejudicial to the mathematical illusion on which Mr. Hale's story is constructed. As a matter of fact the ten club members do not produce one hundred philanthropists like themselves, any more than each subscriber to a struggling paper procures one other, and so doubles its circulation at once.

The influence of the New Shakspere Society has been felt in this country, its prizes for school work on Shakspere being open to our students as well as those of England. Hence a demand for information how to proceed in order to compete, and the little hand-book, based on experience, by William Taylor Thom, Professor of English Literature in Hollins Institute, Virginia, entitled, 'Two Shakspere Examinations: with some Remarks on the Class-room Study of Shakspere' (Boston: Ginn & Heath). The papers and answers are reproduced, the latter without correction except for clerical errors. Professor Thom's remarks will generally commend themselves. The untimely death of one of the prize-winners has made this in some sort a memorial volume.

In the Rolfe edition of Shakspere the series is continued (perhaps concluded?) with his Sonnets in one volume, and his remaining Poems in another. Here, from the nature of the case, the editor's expurgation ceases, as the need of it ceases, for, as Mr. Rolfe remarks, neither schools nor Shakspere clubs will meddle with these poems. His annotations and comparison of diverse readings have been as painstaking as in the case of the plays.

On the 29th of May the Huguenot Society of America was organized in this city with Mr. John Jay for President. Its objects are commemorative, historical, and literary. It contemplates collections pertaining to the genealogy and history of Huguenots in America, the ultimate formation of a special library, the periodic reading and discussion of papers, the preparation of a memorial history, and the establishment of branch societies. Membership is by male or female lines of Huguenot descent from families which emigrated to America prior to the Edict of Toleration, November 28, 1787; but is also open to descendants of French Protestants antedating the same edict, and to students of Huguenot history. The Secretary is the Rev. A. V. Wittmeyer, 222 West Twenty first Street.

The thirty-first volume of *Lippincott's Magazine* calls for no special remark except as to the table of contents, which is a mere alphabetized transcript of titles, with the prefixed article *a* or *the* retained. This is not convenient even for one who turns to the volume with a reference ready made; and it greatly impairs the attractiveness of the collection for the chance reader. An analytic table, resolving such enigmatic titles as "Among Citrus-Blooms," "A Work of Imagination," "The Queer Service," etc., would be well worth the slight expense attending the making of it. This is what Poole's Index does for titles that do not explain themselves.

Four cook-books fall together on our list, and illustrate in a very interesting way the different aspects of the subject of cookery. 'Domestic Economy,' by Mrs. R. C. Hollyday (Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.) is the old-fashioned book compiled from the recipes of good housekeepers in Maryland and Virginia. If they betray hands unused to the pen, this deficiency is more than made up by the fine flavor of the old Southern cookery. A new edition of Miss Parloa's 'Appledore Cook-Book' (Boston: Andrew F. Graves) comes none too soon for its many friends. It gives New England dishes with both plain and rich cooking, systematized under the cooking-school influence. The 'Nonpareil Cook-Book' by Mrs. E. A. M. (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.) adds a well-chosen and well-tried list of French and German dishes. 'Ice Cream and Cakes' (Scribners), by "An American," provides all necessary directions for "household and commercial use," though upon a scale which will evidently better serve the confectioner and caterer than the housekeeper. It is arranged with much care and skill.

Mr. Thorvald Solberg's admirable catalogue of books and articles relating to literary property has now overtaken and embraced the *Publishers' Weekly*, which has naturally given more attention to the subject than any periodical (on this side of the water) that could be named. Its articles are now indexed, volume by volume, as well as alphabetically, and this instalment of Mr. Solberg's work, like those that have preceded, is printed in the *Weekly* itself (June 16).

Science proposes that the American Association for the Advancement of Science appoint a committee, at its next meeting, to draw up a definite list of such foreign technical journals of mathematics, physics, and the like as do not compete with any enterprise of any publishing firm in the United States, and then urge upon Congress the passage of a special act putting these journals on the free list.

A list of the issues of the press in Pennsylvania from 1760 to 1769 inclusive, by Mr. Charles R. Hildeburn, is printed with the latest Bulletin of the Library Company of Philadelphia.

In their sixty-second annual report the Directors of the New York Mercantile Library complain bitterly of the vandalism of readers admitted to the free use of the reference department. Some valuable and scarce books have been stolen and many mutilated, one "to such an extent as to render it useless." So great is the appreciation of the article "Political Economy" in Appleton's Cyclopædia that it has twice been cut out of its place in the volume containing it. A reward of $50 has been posted for the detection of any engaged in this "satanic mischief," and we join in the prayer of the Directors: "Would that the sight of it would paralyze the hand of the evil-doer."

Students of history will be interested to learn, from the sixteenth annual report of the Provost of the Peabody Institute, Baltimore, that the library department has acquired complete sets of the *Moniteur Universel* from 1789 to 1833, the *Journal des Jacobins*, the *Journal de la Montagne*, the *Bulletin du Tribunal Révolutionnaire*, *L'Ami du Peuple*, besides many memoirs and other works relating to the Revolutionary period of French history.

The Trustees of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts will open an exhibition of the works of living American artists on October 16, and close it on November 27. The number of contributions is limited, but the kind may be black-and-white and water-color drawings, oils, or sculpture. They must not have been exhibited publicly in Boston before. The expense of transportation of works from a distance which are *accepted* will be borne by the Trustees. Mr. Charles G. Loring is Secretary of the Committee of Arrangements.

The fifteenth annual session of the American Philological Association will be held at Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., commencing Tuesday, July 10, 1883, at 3 o'clock P. M. The address by the President of the Association, Professor Milton W. Humphreys, of Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn., will be delivered on Tuesday evening. A number of interesting papers have been promised. Further information may be had by addressing the Secretary of the Philological Association, Cambridge, Mass.

The Concord Summer School of Philosophy will open for a fifth term on Wednesday, July 18, and will continue four weeks. Students must be registered before July 10, at the office of the Secretary, Mr. F. B. Sanborn. Among the lecturers will be Mr. Sanborn, Prof. W. T. Harris, Prof. William James, Mr. Denton J. Snider, Mr. John Albee, Mr. D. A. Wasson, Rev. Dr. Bartol, President Noah Porter, Miss E. P. Peabody, Miss E. D. Cheney, Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, Mr. Julian Hawthorne (a lecture on Novels). Readings from the Thoreau MSS. will occupy one evening as usual.

Under the mocking title of 'The Protectors of Letters in the 19th Century,' Champfleury discourses in *Le Livre* for June on an absurd Napoleonic bookseller, Pick, or Pick de l'Isère, as he magnificently styled himself—the very name provokes a smile. Pick's occupation was ruined by the siege of Paris. Portraits of him with and

without his furs (for he was given to posing at the photographer's) accompany Champfleury's badinage. The only other noticeable paper is a translation, by M. Victor Develay, of an interesting passage on the abundance of books, from Petrarch's 'De remediis utriusque fortunæ,' or 'Remèdes de la bonne et de la mauvaise fortune,' as it is here rendered—'Remedes de lune & lautre fortune: prospere & aduerse,' according to the Paris version (1534) of Bishop Oresme; and 'Phisicke against fortune, as well prosperous, as aduerse . . . Expedient for all men, but most necessary for such as be subiect to any notable insult of eyther extremitie . . . First Englished by Thomas Twyne' (London, 1579). We should mention also engravings after the statue of Alexandre Dumas to be erected by the city of Paris in the Place Malesherbes, and its bas-relief, both the design of the late Gustave Doré, and his very latest work. The bas-relief represents a group consisting of a reader and two attentive listeners. The novelist sits above, tablet in hand and pen in hand, in an interval of composition.

We showed lately how the Roman *consilium principis* grew into an important body. Herr O. A. Ellissen has shown, in suite of himself, how the Senate in the Eastern Empire did not become important. He undertook to prove that this body had been unduly neglected by historians; but M. Charles Diehl, in the *Revue Critique*, sums up his result as follows: The Byzantine Senate was originally merely a municipal council; after the separation of the East and West it became an Imperial senate, to be sure, but was as often as not neglected by the Emperors, and had very little real power. Finally, in the ninth century, the title of Senator became entirely honorary; the Senate as a body ceased to exist, and all its functions were transferred to a new *consilium principis*.

Parts 66–71 of the new 'Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon' (Westermann) complete the comparatively uninteresting letter D and begin on E. The plates are all mechanical. The folded maps still relate to Germany—railroad and steamship connections; and historical phases. Those in the text show Dieppe, Dover, Dresden, Dublin, Düppel. Dresden furnishes one of the longest articles; the Thirty Years' War another; the Danube a third, being brought down as late as the Danube Commission of February 28, 1883, at London. The biographical articles on the two Döllingers, father and son; the three Dohrns, a very remarkable family of naturalists, voyagers, littérateurs, and politicians—though the last distinction has not yet been won by the younger son, Anton, head of the famous Zoölogical Station at Naples; and the two American Drapers, pleasantly illustrate hereditary genius. We might add Stephen Douglas and Frederick Douglass as twins, for they stand side by side, without regard to color prejudice. Douglass's marshalship in the District of Columbia has been overlooked. The article Dollar is naturally mainly concerned with our absurd varieties.

—In *Lippincott's* for July, C. B. Todd has an article on New York clubs, mainly descriptive of a few of the best known. The statistics of club life bring out in a striking way the steady growth of clubs in New York, which is now, after London, the principal headquarters of clubs in the English-speaking world. The old clubs go on increasing in number, and new ones are constantly added. Into the rationale of the American club the writer does not attempt to go, and consequently does not discuss the more interesting aspects of the club problem. The old rural hostility to clubs, as places where men go to escape the restraints of female society and indulge their worst passions, has pretty much died out; chiefly, no doubt, because women have found out that this is not the use for which men form clubs. In New York, of all places, a club is a necessity for numbers of married men during one-third of the year, when their families are at a "resort," which they can only visit at intervals of a week or two. The growth of clubs in this city would be very healthy and natural were the great question of club government and club privacy settled. The town-meeting form of government, which is still the type of club management with us, involves sooner or later great laxity in the admissions and in discipline generally; and an elected board of governors which undertakes to be very strict, will "get itself disliked" and finally remodelled in the interest of liberality. The standard, as the members increase, must be gradually lowered, just as happens in politics, and the sense of its being a private association soon disappears, and members feel about it and talk about its affairs as if it were really a public body, or political corporation. Then it gets into the newspapers, the members "talk freely" to reporters about the club gossip, and the club elections, and club rows, and thus privacy disappears. For those who dislike publicity in private life, and consider it a blot on club life, some other form of government is necessary, and this fact will, no doubt, in time produce a number of "proprietary" clubs, or clubs governed by close corporations, the character of which will be a guarantee against the evils produced by the town-meeting system.

— We are informed by a correspondent of the sudden death, presumably from heart-disease, of Mr. Edward FitzGerald, during a visit to his lifelong friend, the Rev. George Crabbe, at Merton, Norfolk. On the night of the 13th of June Mr. FitzGerald retired in his usual health, to all appearance. As he did not come down to breakfast on the following morning, his host went to his room, and there found him lying dead in his bed. His age was about seventy-five, as he was born some time in 1809. It was his spirited, however free, version of the 'Rubáiyát' of Omar Khayyám that first attracted any considerable degree of attention to Mr. FitzGerald's literary merit. A list of nearly all that he wrote is given in *Lippincott's Magazine* for February, 1875. Since that date, however, there has been issued, for private circulation, his 'Readings in Crabbe's "Tales of the Hall,"' a small volume of 242 pages. Mr. FitzGerald married the daughter of Bernard Barton, the Quaker poet; but their union was followed, almost immediately, by an amicable separation. To but very few of his neighbors was he known except by sight; and his singularly recluse habits gained for him, though quite groundlessly, the repute of being a misanthrope. A large circle of acquaintances was not to his taste: it sufficed him fully to enjoy the occasional companionship of a half-score or so of friends like Mr. Tennyson, Professor Cowell, and the late Mr. Spedding. The inheritor of a handsome patrimony, he was enabled to give himself entirely to literature. His favorite diversion for many years was yachting; and his tasteful schooner, the *Scandal*, was a thing of which he was, perhaps, as proud as of any production of his fastidious pen. It was his long familiarity with the waters of the German Ocean, which adjoined his home, that qualified him to compile his 'Sea Words and Phrases along the Suffolk Coast,' a curious pamphlet, which was succeeded by a supplement. Mr. FitzGerald was buried at Woodbridge, the scene of the greater part of his hermit-like career.

—M. Narducci has long urged the expediency and practicability of a general catalogue for all Italian libraries. Acting on the principle that he who wishes a thing done should do it himself, he sent a circular to the 408 public libraries of the kingdom asking for a copy of their author-catalogue for the syllable AB. Half of them paid no attention to his request, but what the other half sent was enough to make a very interesting catalogue, and to prove his point. The contributing libraries are numbered, and at the end of each article of the catalogue one finds the numbers of all possessing that particular work. Moreover, each title has a serial number by which references are made from four indexes, (1) an index of personal names (collaborators, annotators, translators, publishers, persons to whom the books are dedicated), (2) an index of subjects, (3) a typographical index of cities, with an alphabetical arrangement of printers under each city, (4) a chronological index. This is substantially the plan proposed twenty-two years ago by Mr. Jewett in his "Plan for Stereotyping Catalogues"; but apparently it was reserved for an Italian to carry out the American's idea. Possibly the Italians have more need of such a catalogue than we, because their libraries are proportionately more consulted for purposes of research than ours, and because ours contain more that is not worth such careful cataloguing, and, again, because our rapid growth would leave any such catalogue much sooner behind. Yet it cannot be necessary to insist on the convenience to scholars, and we have often enough advocated printing a title once for all in place of our present practice of printing it separately for each library. But there is one great difference between the two countries that we have not alluded to. The Italian libraries, if they are not all Government institutions, are all, we suppose, under the power of one central government, which can prescribe uniform objects and uniform methods. Any American coöperation must be on the voluntary system. The Government is powerless in the matter; it cannot compel others to work, and it is not likely to be induced to furnish the necessary funds. Nothing but an enthusiastic millionaire—enthusiastic about a matter which is not likely to touch the heart or suit the tastes of those who get millions in this country—would be able to forward this public work.

—It was only in 1867 that the Parisian became acquainted with Ice-cold Soda-water, and the spectacle of whole American families swallowing large glasses of foaming froth was to the Parisian one of the most astounding sights of the Exposition. That was sixteen years ago, and already is the Parisian prophet getting ready to put on sackcloth and to heap ashes on his head, because Paris is rapidly becoming too American. "Les dieux s'en vont," wrote the late Paul de St. Victor; "nous devenons décidément des Américains." One of the most lively chapters of the new annual volume of M. Claretie's always lively 'La Vie à Paris' (Paris: Havard; New York: F. W. Christern), is a discussion of the Americanization of the French capital by means of giant stores, huge office-buildings, crossing telegraph wires, and Mr. Slosson's billiard-playing. M. Claretie, however, is honest enough to quote, a few pages further on, the remark made by Longfellow to M. Louis Dépret, his French translator. The American poet, recalling the circumstances of his first visit to Paris, thirty-five years before, said that what struck him most was the radical change in the language. "I thought I knew French thoroughly; well, I no longer understand it. There is not the same accent and not the same tone; . . . even the manner of pronouncing words has changed. Even at the Comédie-Française, that conservatory of the spoken tongue, they do not express themselves as they used. I heard Talma, Mlle. Mars, Firmin, Monrose, Ligier, Beauvallet, and

they pronounced differently from the current custom." He ended by confessing that he was afflicted that the real "French accent was disappearing even in France." Surely this is not the fault of Miss Daisy Miller and the other ladies who rush boldly into grammatical quagmires where scholars fear to tread. If Paris is getting itself Americanized, it is the fault of the Parisians themselves. M. Claretie's book, as usual, has many amusing pages. Especially noteworthy are the chapters on the distinguished sitters of M. Bonnat, and on a recent French exhibition of the wall-papers of the last century. Highly comic are the two studio jokes of M. Arago, one an imitation of a guide showing a "personally conducted party" through the Louvre, and the other putting a burlesque speech in the mouth of Marshal Soult. Altogether, there is much in M. Claretie's pages to gratify the antiquaries of 1982 when they seek to reconstruct the Paris of the present.

—We have received the fourth annual supplement to 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon'—"Jahres-Supplement, 1882-1883"—forming the twentieth volume of the work. It is as bulky and as densely crammed with valuable matter as its predecessors, but its contents are, perhaps, less attractive to the general reader. It is apparently becoming more and more the object of the editors to furnish the latest data concerning every branch of knowledge, and to satisfy equally all special demands rather than to present popular information, the bulk of which, at least, would be interesting to every educated purchaser of the Cyclopædia. The number and extent of articles on scientific, technological, industrial, and commercial topics are constantly increasing, while the historical, biographical, and literary notices are becoming less ample and enjoyable. Electricity, for instance, is represented in this volume by "Accumulators," "Dynamo-electric Machines," "Electricians' Conference," "Electric Expansion," "Electric Railways," "Electric Units," "Electric Light," "Electric Exhibition," "Electrodynamometer," "Electromagnetic Engines," "Telephones" ("Fernsprecher"), "Galvanic Battery," "Galvanometer," "Galvanic Plating," and "Telegraphy"; and there are more than two score technological articles. Of national literatures only the German, English, French, Italian, Dutch, American, Polish, and Portuguese are reported about, while the Danish, Greek, Norwegian, Russian, Swedish, Bohemian, and Hungarian—all of which had their notices in the first two supplements—are omitted. The extent of these special literary reviews seems to depend upon the greater or less fondness of the contributors for their subjects, rather than upon an editorial plan. The United States is specially favored in this respect. The space allotted to our latest literature is comparatively very ample, and the praise bestowed by Herr R. Lutz, the reviewer, on most of its products is all that could be desired by the authors or their admiring countrymen. A little less enthusiasm with a little more carefulness in statement and proof-reading would, perhaps, be preferable in the interest of literary history; but then, while T. Tilton would be the gainer by appearing, instead of "J. Tilden," as the justly-praised author of 'Swabian Ballads,' and Holland would not be classed as an imitator of the writers for the British "*Tadler*," H. Bancrof, on the other hand, would not be exalted from the position of a well-assisted compiler to the high dignity of "ausgezeichneter Ethnolog" and "Geschichtschreiber grossen Stils." The article is, however, as readable as it is appreciative, and evinces a laudable, though not profound, familiarity with the subject. That the writer, being a foreigner, is not well posted as to the semi-identity of *Scribner's Monthly* and the *Century* is surely pardonable; and that he discriminatingly applies the definite article *das* to the *Atlantic Monthly* and *der* to the *Eclectic* can only cause us to admire the depths of German grammatical wisdom, though it may not always guess rightly. Less admirably wise appears to us the editorial decision which, instead of making the article "Juden" tell what happened to the Jews in various parts of the world during the year just elapsed, devoted it exclusively to the anthropology of a race as old as history. Could the desire to offer something piquant to both Semites and anti-Semites have prompted the choice? A little more information on the Malagasy race would have been much better in its place just now under the head of "Madagascar." The latter is one of the most inadequate historical notices. Of new biographies that of Kuenen is one of the poorest. The additions to former biographical sketches are very numerous, and, as additions, very valuable. The latest obituary date in the volume is that of the death of Diefenbach, March 28, 1883.

—"Fears of the brave and follies of the wise"—and blunders of the learned. If we withdraw our confidence and admiration from all who make even the most patent mistakes, we shall dangerously narrow our sympathies. Here are three flagrant specimens that crossed the track of one of our friends the other day—three in as many hours of desultory reading. An editor of Pindar, a clever man and a scholar undoubtedly, speaks of the "Wratislaw" life of the poet. For "Wratislaw" read "Breslau," for the supposition that the writer meant to give the Polish name of the town would postulate affectation worse than any ignorance. An historian of Greek literature tells of "Cypselus' [Cleisthenes'] feast for the suitors of Agariste," the famous feast in which Hippocleides "handled his legs" so nimbly. The third mistake, and not the least, is that of the learned German author of a great Greek grammar, who quotes Aristophanes, 'Clouds,' 870, in which Socrates is represented as ridiculing the pronunciation of "old Pheidippides." The brilliant Irishman who was guilty of the second slip has been severely rapped by classical scholars for similar mistakes, and, truth to tell, he often gets his proper names mixed up, but he would not have been guilty of saying, "beim *alten* Pheidippides," even in his sleep. The moral is obvious. The true scholar should forgive everybody his mistakes except himself.

JOHN A. DIX.

Memoirs of John Adams Dix. Compiled by his Son, Morgan Dix. Harper & Bros. 1883. 8vo.

ALTHOUGH tracing his blood back through an unmixed Puritan strain to the settlers of Plymouth, and himself an immigrant from New Hampshire, General Dix bore none of the outward and visible signs of a New-Englander. To his townsmen the familiar figure met in their daily walks and haunts, associated with public service, kindly acts, and courteous ways, suggested rather the type of a citizen of the world. He had taken his part of education in Canada, war on the frontier, and official work at Washington, before fixing himself in early manhood at Albany, where his public career began. The short time spent in law practice at Cooperstown makes no mark in his life. Thereafter, for twenty-three years, until he reached the age of fifty-five, the prime of his manhood was devoted to political affairs in the highest spheres. As Secretary of State, member of Assembly, United States Senator, and, not the least, as one of that powerful knot of sagacious men known as the Albany Regency, he found employment for natural ability trained to the utmost, and experience of which he shrewdly made the most. There followed a brief space of retirement, not inaction, for during it he applied his talents to the affairs of great corporations, and proved himself versatile and practical in protecting the rights of Trinity Church and developing the westward growth of an expanding railroad system.

When he reappeared in public life, the storm of civil war was lowering. In New York, the Administration, compromised in the scandal of frauds in the Post-office, demanded the character and services of some man of unsullied honor to protect and rescue it. At Washington, the half-paralysis, anticipating change, that always rules between November elections and March inaugurations, broke down into helplessness under Cabinet defection and secession menace. Here, too, the high name and tried ability of Dix came in aid. When he took the place of Secretary of the Treasury in a Cabinet of resolute and able Union men, public confidence revived and private capital flowed freely out to meet public needs.

When the suspense following the retirement of Buchanan with his Cabinet, while the nation held its breath, was broken at last, the clearing smoke from Ruffin's first gun at Sumter showed political lines sharply drawn in New York, and at the head of the hosts of the War Democracy, pledged to Union, stood John A. Dix. The War Democrats saved this city to the nation. Here the ruling party was neither liked nor trusted, nor could it at first make itself feared. Commanding by no means all the wealth, nor all the ability, nor all the military knowledge, it had few votes and an untried organization. Stanton's letter to Dix, quoted at page 18 of the second volume of this work, shows plainly the doubt prevailing in stronger minds and the alarm shaking weaker ones until the political army led by Dix struck hands with the Republicans on the higher plane of patriotism. Theirs was the harder political task: they had to break with old associates, enduring attack from both sides, instead of sweeping on with the torrent of new enthusiasms.

With the development of the personal ambitions and interests well described by Stanton, General Dix felt the full effect of intrigue and insincerity. Though neither by age nor by health unfitted for the active command deserved by his experience, he was placed at Baltimore in a post which, seeming secondary, became one of great importance, demanding skill and firmness. The only movement in the field which he directed was made in the spring of 1863 by an effective advance, in considerable force, upon Lee's communications, during the invasion by the latter of Maryland and Pennsylvania, leading to the battle of Gettysburg. General Dix, transferred to the Department of the East, with headquarters in this city, just after the draft riots of July, 1863, retained that command till the close of the war. New York, an unquiet city in profound peace, had just shown into what terror of turbulence it might flame up under the stress of war. Whatever disaffection there was against the Government festered here, with its plots, agents, and money. The control of these, the management of affairs on the Canada border, the execution of summary orders called out by the famous forged proclamation, and the oversight of the November elections of 1863, gave occasion for the firm and prudent exercise of authority which could not have been so safely trusted to any other hands than his. But for the great respect which upheld General Dix, it is not easy to

say what confusion might not have followed the astonishing experiment on the patience of all that was decent in the city made by the War Department in sending a notorious Bobadil to head the force ordered here during the election, when for a while, in the biographer's words, "it seemed difficult to tell who was in command in the city of New York."

Upon the restoration of the Union, there arose many subjects demanding explanation with foreign Powers, some of which required forgiveness of offence, and others atonement. One of these, the invasion of Mexico by France, expiated itself, and our delicate relations with that Power, which it had disturbed, were managed with skill by General Dix, sent as a messenger of conciliation. Among the great variety of ministers who, from the days of Versailles to those of the Élysée, have faithfully represented our country in France, both as to its good and its bad characteristics, no one more accomplished or more acceptable than General Dix has ever been sent thither. A singular episode in his life followed his return to this city, illustrating as clearly as any of his public employments the influence of his high repute and trusted honor. It became necessary to wrest the control of the Erie Railway from the organized bandits who had seized and rifled that great corporation. Other craft than his planned its redemption—the material execution of the plan was naturally assigned to a far more coarse and desperate agent—while his name, giving confidence abroad and commanding respect at home, lent the moral force which assured the success of the enterprise.

While the name of War Democrat was still a spell to conjure with, General Dix, pressed to accept the Governorship of the State, had steadily refused to quit his military post. Twice afterward, his nomination, judged timely and conciliatory by all parties, failed of acceptance through obscure political intrigues. At length, in 1872, in a sort of campaign of bewildered enthusiasm, Dix came, by an enormous majority of votes, to the Executive chair at Albany. His chief acts while in office were in the field of finance, in restoring the State Sinking Fund, and opposing the increased issue of national-bank paper. Two years later, when party lines were again clearly drawn, the utter distrust of the Washington administration involved and overwhelmed all its supporters, and General Dix, defeated on a renomination by a vote almost as large as that he had before received, retired from the Governorship, and ended his political career.

This is the story of a very useful and a very successful public life. Why was it less than a great one? John A. Dix saw and was a great part of the public civil and military life of his country during most of the century. As a soldier, he was too young for action in the war of 1812, and, when action was past, his experience followed only routine. In the civil war he naturally gave place to younger generals with modern ideas and larger political influence. As an orator and statesman, he was surrounded by Webster, Calhoun, Benton, and their peers. As a political manager, Van Buren, Wright, and the elders of the Regency overshadowed him. Only one other man of his day watched the rise, growth, and overthrow of as many great political parties. He saw the end of Federalism; he was at the birth of the Democratic, the Anti-Masonic, the Whig, the Secession, the Free-Soil, the Republican parties, and watched the downfall or transformation of all of them. For more than forty years he was a Democrat through evil and good repute, yet the highest office he gained was that of Senator for Wright's unexpired term of five years. When he ran for Governor in 1848, the Free-Soil party supporting him was a minority party; when he led the War Democracy in 1860, he headed the minority of a minority party; and though he profited by the fusion of 1872, his supporters fell back again two years later into a minority. Here, then, appear in ample variety the changes and combinations out of which the trimmer or the turncoat snatches his prizes; and Dix was content to forego them because he scorned to be either. His New England blood and training told. Pliancy might have helped him to greater success, but character lifted him to repute among his countrymen, and again and again challenged their appeal to him on occasions when worth and honor were indispensable to the public welfare.

Nor can it be said that Dix's accomplishments as a scholar really stood in his way to preferment. Scholarship, while no help, is in itself no hindrance in any field above ward politics. Here, as in England, though elegant cultivation carries no recommendation to public success, yet if a candidate shows the qualities for leadership, he may be as cultivated as he chooses without losing public regard. It is only the scholarship of the recluse, unfitting men for contest, that impedes their rise. Derby could lead a party though he translated Homer, and many a Southron in our old Congress had the classics at his fingers' ends. Yet in times of public violence rough boldness elbows to the front. General Dix's scholarship was as much above the dilettante's range as below the professor's nicety. If he could not have edited a Greek play, he loved, and constantly read, the Latin classics, and has left some strong and finished translations. His 'Dies Iræ' is closely moulded to the original, burns with a glow and poetry of its own, and may well bear comparison with the best renderings of that famous test of ability in translation.

To complete the measure of information as to those passages in General Dix's life which the public is entitled to understand, selections from his speeches and literary productions, judiciously chosen, are given at length in these pages, in illustration of the occasions that called them out. An appendix contains the more important of those documents and letters contributing to solve the many grave questions encountered in his political course. The relations of his domestic life and personal characteristics are drawn with a loving and reverent hand. On one subject the biographer's filial admiration is noteworthy in a professional teacher of morality. General Dix was a prominent supporter of the scheme to send the free-negro population out of the country. He opposed the agitation which defeated that scheme and eventually brought about emancipation. He assented to the extension of slave territory. He approved the Fugitive Slave Law. In short, he took sides throughout against a movement which, judged by its results, was as clearly providential as any recorded in history. We need not censure the father for being no wiser than the majority of his countrymen; but we cannot praise the perspicacity of the son in finding his parent's attitude, at every stage of his resistance to the greatest reform of the age, correct, just, and highly commendable.

ENGLISH ART AND ART CRITICISM.

Cecil Lawson. A Memoir. By Edmund W. Gosse. With Illustrations by Hubert Herkomer, J. G. Mc. N. Whistler, and Cecil Lawson. London: The Fine Art Society.

THERE is no more contested question in art criticism than the determination of the position of English art. One critic denies it the name of a school, another stamps it the most original of modern schools, and another subdivides it into more schools than we know in Italy. Talent it has, nor are there wanting instances of the highest artistic type, as Turner and Rossetti, and, among the elder men, Gainsborough; but when we come to seek some common artistic quality, which shall characterize a school, we find none. The individuality is strong, but so entirely dispersive that the dominant trait is found to be diversity. If the ruling naturalism be claimed as its bond, it need only be replied that naturalism and art are so entirely diverse that it may almost be said that they coexist in inverse proportions—the closer to nature the further from art; and in individuals this is, as a rule, true. Weak men cling to nature as a child to a chair, afraid to cut loose; and isolated men or men of isolated natures find no guide but nature, for a school supposes masters and canons and traditions—community of thought and method—conventionalisms and sympathy in, though not necessarily uniformity of, style. What makes a school is what distinguishes Perugino and Raphael, taken together, from Titian and Veronese taken together—it is the art and not the naturalism of one or the other of those great painters which stamps them as consummate, and would so mark them were they much further from nature than they are.

If it be true that the only tie of English painting, the only collective tendency, is its naturalism, as we are inclined to believe, then is it equally true that if there be an English school, it is one of pictorial naturalism, not of art, and those consummate artists, Turner and Rossetti, are the furthest removed from this common ground by being both defiantly non-naturalistic. Watts and Burne-Jones, who were next in the order of artistic organization, Holman Hunt and Millais (in spite of the fine brush power of the latter) come still lower, and, already naturalistic and therefore non-artistic, all differ one from the other in aims and method as much as though they were educated in different countries. To include all these in one school of art is simply to misuse terms.

The generous spirit of fellowship and love of art which made the Italian schools, the willingness to impart what they knew or thought, characteristic of the greatest of their painters (and to a certain extent surviving in France and Germany), is never seen in England. There are no masters and necessarily no schools, good or bad. You may, it is true, see the Royal Academy School, where bad draughtsmen pretend to make good ones; you may from certain inferior painters get lessons at a guinea an hour by which you may pick up little tricks and facilities; you have South Kensington, giving a stone to the children who ask for bread; but in general the condition of English art so called is that a number of individuals, with more or less marked artistic tendencies, are trying, more or less unaided, to acquire an artistic education—amateurs more or less all, and destined all, more or less, to become, so far as the technique of art is concerned, bad painters, now and then redeemed by curious facilities, singular gifts of individuality, and by self-taught, and therefore ill-taught, expression of the most rare artistic gifts. Turner and Rossetti, the two most purely artistic minds of this century, probably, neither had learned to draw properly nor paint, except in water color, in all their lives of study and struggle. And in the lower ranks, what grappling with mediums and methods, experiments and failures—those who develop partial successes guarding their secrets with the jealousy of a trade advantage; a mixture of the amateur and the tradesman.

In this state of art the greatest of all successes is to develop a certain originality—if eccentricity, so much the better: every man is his own master and student. The most casual look at an English exhibition is convincing enough that (with the exception of some of the water-color

painters) solid technical education in painting is no part of the qualification of the exhibitor. Clever he must be in a small way—with the brush mainly, however; he will sometimes be imaginative, sometimes vivid in his conceptions, and possibly dramatic; but of the learning of art, that which corresponds to classical education in literature—knowledge of the means, resources, traditions, and accomplishments of what has been done—there is nothing. The distinction between the classical and academical even is not felt, the very word "academical," the form and mould of education, being taken as a reproach. Individuality carried to eccentricity; originality even developed to the grotesque; extravagances of motive, of color, and even of action, catch the eye and secure the suffrages of a public blunted to the finer charms of art and ignorant of its principles. Add to this a generally received notion with the English public that art is the easiest thing in the world to write about. It is not necessary to study it, nor to have any very definite ideas about it; the public has no criterion, and at the worst the critic who knows nothing can entrench himself behind the *de gustibus* maxim, so that journals which in their appointment of a musical critic would demand a certain standard of musical education, open their columns to the first-come clever young writer who has the ability to dash off fine ringing sentences about æsthetics. A puzzled friend one day asked one of the most widely known of English critics what he meant in a certain magniloquent sentence. The critic replied, "I don't know that it means much, but doesn't it *sound* well?" And the incident, which is authentic, characterizes the larger part of the criticisms of the London press.

Some of these critics are literati capable of good work in other branches of literature, but possessed by the unfortunate delusion that art has nothing positive. They play the frog to Mr. Ruskin's bull, but unfortunately without the catastrophe. Not only the daily press breeds them, but the reviews, even the most serious, keep them alive. If they write long enough, the public finally accepts them as authority; perhaps they graduate, like Mr. Comyns Carr, as editor of an art journal. The crowning achievement of one of these amateur critics is to exalt his pet genius, or that of his set, into Olympian proportions; but it must be rare that the liberality of publishers or the recklessness of book-buyers gives one of them such an opportunity as Mr. Gosse has found in his life of Cecil Lawson, a sumptuous book, an in memoriam worthy of Rossetti or Regnault. Cecil Lawson was one of those painters, so much more common in England than in countries where art education is solid and easily attainable, who build large, if ephemeral, reputations on small capital, mainly through possession of an intense individuality acting through a very limited range, and whose achievements, precisely because untaught in method and therefore apparently spontaneous, seem to the ill-educated critic and less educated public to contain great promise of originality and individual insight, while in reality nothing is original but the manner of expression, and the real inspiration of the art is borrowed from other artists. He possessed not one of the great talents of a painter in a high degree. He never had learned to draw, as even his biographer admits; his color was a continual struggle with mechanical difficulties which he never mastered, and only evaded far enough to show that his organization was highly sensitive to color; his conceptions were of those scrappy, fragmentary kind which English art delights in—"bits" rather than pictures—compositions which had no recognition of grace of line, and were more like fragments of a large picture or of the backgrounds of figure-pictures; his execution, while bold, was also slovenly—a sort of slap-dash which had the virtue of freedom, but not that of accuracy or refinement; the boldness of an indifference to the refinements of form, not of command over them. Finally, in his very love of Nature and pursuit of her, one could see that some other painter's spectacles were always on his nose: now of Wilson, now (and oftener) of Constable, and again of Gainsborough. In the picture which created his reputation, "The Minister's Garden," could be seen by the experienced eye the assurance of a brief success, a precocious and limited talent, stimulated and fostered rather than educated by the influence of other art, but inevitably of the kind which, germinating in shallow soil, springs up quickly and perishes in the heat of the first success. Lawson was a man whom art had mastered, not one constituted to master art.

Mr. Gosse, however, with a personal partiality pardonable to the man but not to the critic, has written a eulogy which his subject must have been a Keats in color to merit. He has unbent license in encomium and made criticism bankrupt in words for great achievement. If Lawson had lived to ninety, his art would have had no greater horizon than "The Minister's Garden" and "The Hop-Fields of Kent." The roots of his failure were those also of his success—the narrowness of his mental and artistic nature. "The Minister's Garden" was too complete a success in its intense but narrow and morbid way to leave any hope for great work to come. "The Hop-Fields," if somewhat more vigorous, was less sincere, and its painting showed a false method carried to a degree of facility and success which negatived progress as definitely and certainly as blindness, and which already showed decadence. When, therefore, Mr. Gosse treats his subject to rhapsodies like the following, we clearly see that he is at sea without a compass:

"Contemporary criticism, which is very ready to see merit in a hundred living painters, is a democratic influence, and hates to acknowledge superlative merit in any one of them [a dictum which is the exact reverse of the truth, and simply a bit of rhetoric misplaced, as contemporary criticism is always creating Titians and Raphaels]. Yet it is already beginning to be perceived that there were some aspects of Nature, some combinations of her forms, some spiritual intuitions of her finer elements which Cecil Lawson grasped in the grip of genius ["It don't mean much, but doesn't it sound well?"], seizing what had escaped all previous observers, rendering with precision what had been too fleeting and volatile for others, and in short forcing from the visible earth and sky a message which had been given to none but him. And this is the very essence of originality in a landscape painter, that he should see the world as it has never been seen before, and reproduce his impressions in such a way that they shall never be unfamiliar to mankind again."

It is impossible in the same number of words to compress greater and more mistakes or ignorance as to the particular subject of consideration, or as to the relations of art and nature. The virtues attributed to Mr. Lawson are those of which he was the most nearly destitute. He owed his artistic existence purely to his artistic predecessors, and every illustration of the many in this book recalls something by some other painter. He has not recorded a single new phase of nature, and the very power of his impression on the public was the way in which he reminded us of great painters. Mr. Gosse repeats, for the hundredth or thousandth time, but in other words, the absurd notion of Ruskin's, that "this is the very essence of originality in a landscape painter, that he should see the world as it has never been seen before, and reproduce his impressions in such a way," etc., which is arrant nonsense. Men's eyes, and the faculties of seeing in general, differ only in more or less. The eye is a mechanical organ, and, except for color-blindness, sees what comes on its retina in the same manner in one man as in another. The notion that men see color differently is (if they see it at all) a mere superstition. But the imitation of nature and art are entirely different matters, and the most exalted and purest art may be as absolutely separated from the representation of natural objects in painting as it is in music; and no man is qualified to criticise art who does not recognize this law and is not competent to follow out the one or the other element in plastic art. The man who adheres most closely to nature in her larger or smaller facts is the most removed from artistic creation. The poet, the creator, the artist is shown in the revival, the combination, the exaltation, and the giving of spiritual (or emotional, if that word is objected to) meaning to the combination or adaptation. The originality is not in the least in seeing, but in choosing from what has been seen what will convey an impression which has nothing in common with external nature and cannot be borrowed from it. When, a little further on, Mr. Gosse says, "We go further, and say that our common transcripts from nature contain facts unrecognized by the founders of modern landscape, and that an academy student, if he sketches carefully, might teach Van Goyen something about clouds and show De Vlieger new truths in wave form," he shows that he knows nothing about the artist's way of seeing nature, any more than he did about the true nature of art.

BACH AS A MODERN COMPOSER.

Sebastian Bach. By Reginald Lane Poole, Ph.D. [Hueffer's "Great Musicians" Series.] Chas. Scribner's Sons.

BIOGRAPHERS of Bach and writers on hereditary genius usually begin their task with a detailed account of the great Bach family, which presents one of the most remarkable fields of observation ever opened to a psychologist. "Throughout six generations," says Forkel, "there were hardly two or three members of this family who did not inherit a natural talent for music, and make the cultivation of this art the principal occupation of their life." In one place—Erfurt—the town-musicians were during a whole century so completely identified with "the Bachs" that this generic title remained to them even after the house had disappeared. The Bachs were a very prolific family—Sebastian had no less than twenty children, by two wives—and intermarriage was of frequent occurrence. The marriage of several sisters of one family by several brothers of another also appears to have been common in this family, and another odd phenomenon was the birth, in 1645, of twin brothers who were so much alike in appearance that their own wives could not distinguish them. Both adopted the same profession, played the same instruments, were subjected to the same illnesses, and the dates of their death were little more than a year apart. One of them, Johann Ambrosius, was the father of Johann Sebastian, the greatest of all the Bachs, and the profoundest musical thinker the world has ever seen. The similarity of Sebastian's father and uncle in appearance, tastes, and character was not the only abnormal mental trait of the family. Sebastian had a weak-minded aunt, and one of his own children was an idiot. This near alliance of great wits to madness is observable in the case of other remarkable men, but here too close intermarriage may have been a cause as effective as an unusual delicacy of cerebral and nervous organization, resulting in either genius or insanity, according as the conditions of physical development were favorable or otherwise.

In Sebastian Bach's case these conditions were

so extremely favorable that they enabled him to become not only the greatest composer and organist of his own time, but in many respects of all time. Bach is preëminently the musicians' composer—a place that has been frequently, but erroneously, claimed for this or that other master. His own generation evidently had not the remotest conception of his gigantic genius, although he was recognized as the first of organists and a great writer of fugues. The number of his works was almost incredibly large (the Peters edition includes more than fifty volumes), but of these only a few were printed during his lifetime—partly in his own house—and the majority seem to have been produced only under his own supervision. Soon after his death they were almost entirely forgotten, until—more than half a century later—some of his great successors discovered these treasures and brought them again before the public. One of the first impulses was given by Mozart, who, in 1788, accidentally heard one of his vocal compositions at Leipzig in the St. Thomas Church, in which Bach had been cantor. He at once exclaimed: "Thank heaven, here is something new, from which I can learn something!" To Mendelssohn, however, belongs the credit of having restored Bach to full and immortal life. His enthusiasm was extraordinary, and as a mere youth of nineteen he arranged at Berlin, in 1829, the first performances of the great "St. Matthew's Passion," the epoch-making significance of which has only once since been equalled: by the Nibelung Festival at Bayreuth in 1876. Schumann was a warm coadjutor of Mendelssohn in his efforts in behalf of Bach, and was one of the founders of the Leipzig Bach Society, which began to issue in 1851 the valuable complete edition of Bach's works. Chopin, according to his own testimony, locked himself up for fourteen days before he gave a concert, and played Bach; and for those who can read between the lines, it is easy to see that on these occasions his exquisite harmonic sense must have found as rich nourishment in the inexhaustible stores of Bach's works as his digital dexterity improved under the severe discipline afforded by their complicated polyphonic structure. There are probably few pianists, violinists, or 'cellists at the present day who do not derive more benefit, in a mechanical as well as intellectual way, from the practice of Bach's sonatas and other compositions than from the works of any other master; for in Bach, as Mendelssohn claimed, are comprised "the fountain-head and the most important things in music." Richard Wagner, whose tastes and tendencies were so different from those of Mendelssohn, says that Bach's motets "constitute undoubtedly the most perfect unaccompanied vocal music in existence." And of his Passion Music and oratorios, he says: "What opulence, what fulness of art, what power, clearness, and withal simple purity, speak to us from these unrivalled master works! In them is embodied the essence, the whole substance, of the German nation." The opinions of other masters might be added to these, but enough has been quoted to prove that Bach is the musicians' composer, and the greatest source of inspiration to his successors.

Music is acknowledged to be an experimental and progressive art. The works of minor composers seldom survive their own generation, and even in the case of great writers like Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven, it cannot be denied that fully one-half of their works already possess merely an historic value. Why, then, is it that Bach seems to form an exception to this rule—that it took a century for the world to begin to appreciate him, and that there is every reason to believe that his popularity among the masses will grow in a steady crescendo? It is because Bach was a kind of musical Kant. His intellect was so profound and acute that he penetrated into the mysterious subtleties of harmonic combinations in a manner which his contemporaries could not appreciate, and which occasionally carries him clear across the so-called classical period (Haydn-Mozart-Beethoven), and brings him abreast with the latest German school of harmony and modulation. Doctor Riemann, in his admirable 'Musik-Lexicon,' has given such a clear, condensed, incisive characterization of Bach that we cannot refrain from translating a portion of his article:

"Bach is one of the greatest masters of all times—one of those who cannot be surpassed—because in them is embodied, as it were, the sentiment and knowledge of an epoch, as in the case of Palestrina, Händel, Gluck, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Wagner. But Bach gains a special significance, an unexampled greatness, from the fact that the specific styles of two different periods simultaneously reached in him a high development, so that he stands between both as a mighty boundary-stone, commanding a vast territory in each. Bach belongs with equal right to the period of polyphonic music, of counterpoint, canon, and fugue, and to the period of harmonic music and established tonality. He lived in a period of transition, when the imitative style had not yet lost its vitality, while the new style was still immature and in its first stages of development. Bach's genius united the peculiarities of both styles in a manner which must be regarded as worthy of imitation in a period which still lies before us. It would be absurd, therefore, to speak of Bach's music as antiquated, except in so far as this term applies to certain cadences, embellishments, and other superficialities in the use of which Bach was a child of his time and reminds us of it. His melodies are so healthy and absolutely original, his rhythms so varied and full of vitality, his harmonies so select, bold, and yet clear and transparent, that his works are not only the object of admiration, but of the most zealous study and imitation by the musicians of the present day, and will probably remain so for a long time to come."

The "cadences, embellishments, and other superficialities" of which Doctor Riemann speaks as the only antiquated elements in Bach's music, are by no means so conspicuous and tiresome as they are in the works of his contemporary Handel. Handel was one of the fashionable composers of his day. He wrote Italian operas for the fashionable world and oratorios for the people. He lived in the world, and was obliged to adapt himself to his environment. "The vocal runs and passages of Handel and Mozart," says Professor Ehrlich, "having been composed for certain great vocalists of their time, are to-day mostly antiquated. The vocal passages of Bach and Beethoven, on the other hand—characteristic, descriptive, occasionally tasteless and overladen, like the symbolic ornaments of Old-Gothic churches—are never devoid of style, and almost always quite distinctive." In so far, then, Bach may be regarded as a modern composer, while in the easy flow of his rhythms and in the naturalness of his cadences or endings he is more modern, as a rule, than Haydn, Mozart, and the early Beethoven. His recitatives are often marked by an emotional force and definiteness which foreshadow the modern music-drama. That Bach is not a dramatic genius is a notion that has been advanced by several historians and critics, Doctor Poole included. It is effectively refuted by many numbers of his Passion Music, and by the testimony of Wagner, who speaks of the "simple, vigorous, often highly poetic, interpretation of the text" in his vocal compositions. Occasionally he showed that indifference to the text which was shared by most of the ancient composers; but it is significant that when he did write a secular cantata for some ephemeral purpose, he habitually utilized the same materials in a subsequent sacred work for which they were better suited on account of the essentially ecclesiastic bent of his mind. Bach was familiar with the operatic music of the Italian composers and their German imitators, but he thought little of it, and always referred to it as *Liederchen* ("little songs"). Doctor Poole cites this to prove that Bach's "genius is essentially undramatic." Unoperatic would be the proper word. It was one of his peculiarities that the different positions as organist, chorus director, and capellmeister which he successively held, determined the form and character of his works. Had he been appointed operatic conductor, and left free to write according to his dramatic impulses, as revealed in the Passion Music and his cantatas, he would undoubtedly have produced operas as immeasurably superior in true dramatic import to the fashionable lyric operas of Handel as his fugues and orchestral works are superior to those of his worldly contemporary. Doctor Poole virtually admits this when he states that "the arias, duets, etc., which occur in his cantatas are the worthiest representatives of the opera that Germany produced before Gluck, whom, indeed, he anticipated in his treatment of the recitative." This dramatic instinct in Bach is therefore one of his principal claims to the name of a modern composer, for it is evident that the dramatic tendency in the music of the present is what principally distinguishes it from the lyric, indefinite, and absolute music of previous epochs, as typified by Handel, who, it is well known, had no sympathy with Bach. The chorals which Bach has scattered through his works, it may be added, are eminently dramatic, in the highest sense of the word, as they closely interpret the general character of the text, and by their majestic rhythms and harmonies arouse the spirit of religious devotion to the highest pitch of excitement. Wagner has shown, in the opening scene of "Die Meistersinger," what excellent theatric use can be made of a choral.

Of course we do not mean to assert that all of Bach's music is dramatic. It is so only when occasion requires, for no one would expect a fugue, for instance, to be dramatic except in the manner in which it may lead up to a grand climax. It must be observed, finally, that the style of Bach, in which the mediæval polyphonic and the modern harmonic styles are so admirably blended, and of which the fugue is the highest development in a formal sense only, has exercised an ever-increasing influence on modern composers, from Schumann to Wagner, and is destined to attain still greater significance in the future as a reaction against the mono-melodic or operatic style, in which the solo melody has undue prominence over the accompanying parts. Helmholtz has very appropriately divided the history of musical development into three periods. The first represents the homophonic music of antiquity, and the Asiatic (and savage) nations of the present day, who, like their remote ancestors, have only simple melodies without harmonic accompaniment. In the second, or polyphonic period, which extends from the tenth to the seventeenth century, attempts are made to unite several parts, each voice taking up the melody in succession (canon), while the others continue in such a way as to avoid discord without aiming at harmony for its own sake. The third is the harmonic period, in which harmony and discord are directly aimed at for the sake of expression and emotional shading. This classification is good so far as it goes, but it seems necessary either to subdivide the third period or to add a fourth. Since the beginning of the harmonic period there has been a tendency, as just intimated, to give excessive prominence to the leading melody at the expense of the other harmonic parts. This tendency culminated in Italian opera, in which the orchestra is simply used as a hazy background to the prima donna's

voice. It was resisted by the greatest of the German composers, whose scores are usually more or less polyphonic—*i. e.*, give the harmonic parts a melodic significance. But with the appearance of Wagner's music-dramas a new style came into existence, which might be called the neopolyphonic. It is based on the system of leading motives. These typical melodic, harmonic, and rhythmic phrases, representing the ideas and characters of the drama, are continually combined, contrasted, and interwoven with a contrapuntal skill which has not been equalled since the days of Bach, and which makes it possible to say in regard to Wagner's harmony what Forkel said in regard to Bach's—that it is "a manifold melody." The difference between the old and the new polyphonic style is that in the old but one subject or leading idea was used and treated in the different parts, whereas in the new the numerous motives of a whole music-drama are in turn united and contrasted with one another. Wagner's music, therefore, far from being formless, as his ignorant critics have so often asserted, is the very perfection of form, since it unites all the parts of a long drama as organically as the short compositions of the old polyphonic writers. The way in which Wagner has changed the taste of operatic audiences, so that the same people who twenty years ago would only listen to the warblings of a prima donna, now attentively follow the complicated web of his melodic harmonies, argues well for the future appreciation of Bach, whose works must be listened to in the same manner, although, of course, they lack the brilliant instrumental colors and scenic accessories of Wagner's, and can, therefore, never become equally popular.

Poole's little biography of Bach, which we have chosen as the text for our article, is one of the best works of the series to which it belongs, and cannot be sufficiently recommended to all musical persons. Nothing could be better for the cause of musical culture in this country than an effort to give greater vogue to Bach's compositions. Hitherto they have been unduly neglected, although some of our musical societies have repeatedly endeavored to dispel the popular illusion that Bach is only an erudite, pedantic scribe, without any warm red blood in his veins. So far is this from being the case that repeated hearing and careful study of his works always end in making enthusiasts of the performers as well as of the audience. As in the case of Wagner, this enthusiasm has led to the formation of special clubs. There are Bach societies in Berlin, Hamburg, Leipzig, Königsberg, London, and other cities, the object of which is to give annual performances of some of Bach's greatest compositions in a worthy manner. When shall we have the privilege of adding New York to this list?

CHERBULIEZ'S MEN AND THINGS.

Hommes et choses du temps présent. Par G. Valbert. Paris. 1883.

If any contributions to periodical literature on current events and characters of the time are worth collecting and republishing, the essays and articles, mostly political, contributed by M. Cherbuliez to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* under the *nom de plume* of "G. Valbert" are surely of the number. He is a studious and sagacious observer, a subtle analyzer of complex characters, and an undogmatic judge of situations. He is too reserved in politics to plunge into hasty estimates of probabilities; too sceptical to be dazzled by the brilliancy of momentary success; too genial a critic to distort what he opposes. He is too mindful of his standing in literature to sacrifice sense to piquancy, truth to style, or moderation to *verve*. Without ever displaying an imposing familiarity with his subjects, or a profound knowledge of history and literature in general, he has so much that is characteristic to say on every topic he selects, and says it with so much vivacity and such a profuse admixture of spirited generalizations—new or old—that even his more fugitive pieces have a value and a charm which do not pass away with the interest of the moment. His selection of topics, too, is felicitous, and pleasing by its variety.

There is, however, a little too much Bismarck in the pages before us—though probably not too much for the French taste, which is somewhat morbid on this point. The book opens, under date of December, 1878, with the great Chancellor, apropos of Dr. Moritz Busch's famous collection of "diary leaves" on 'Graf Bismarck und seine Leute, während des Krieges mit Frankreich.' The subject is very cleverly treated by M. Cherbuliez, and treated with conscious literary dignity. Nothing could be more shocking to French vanity, patriotism, or taste than the convivially confidential anti-French and similar ejaculations of the iron Chancellor, as recorded by his literary camp-follower in the great war. And Cherbuliez is a thorough Frenchman in his sentiments, though not by birth. He has here an excellent opportunity of showing up the great enemy of France, not only as a heartless foe, but in all the deformity of vulgar brutality, by merely copying, with a little comment, the revelations of the mercenary German diarist. He abstains from doing it—refrains from retort and invective. He copies enough to satisfy any Frenchman, but with the air of a man who sincerely doubts. Can that refrain of "burning and hanging," so frequently breaking through table-talk and culinary dissertations, be true? Can Bismarck really have said that his wife longed to see all Frenchmen, including their infants, shot and pierced? Are all those outbursts of more refined malice against friends and helpers true? Do Bismarck's irreverence, his deadly sarcasm, his ire or indiscretion know no bounds whatever? Is not his "Büschlein" responsible for a part of all that crudity? This garrulous historian, he thinks, is altogether a poor imitator of Plutarch. Plutarch was likewise fond of petty details, but he knew how to choose them in order to put in relief what is great. Plutarch, too, would have related of a hero that he had the superstition of deeming Friday a fatal day and thirteen a fatal number: but he would never have told of his great man, what Busch tells of Bismarck, that in his youth he could swallow eleven hard eggs one after another. Plutarch has been accused of occasionally lying; Busch never lies, but he has been often deceived by his recollections. "The only credence which M. Busch can obtain from us at certain points of his narrative is what Voltaire calls a subdued incredulity, an annihilation of reason, an adoring silence in the face of mysteries which surpass our comprehension." And M. Cherbuliez does the two revilers of France the justice of adding that "there is in the book many a page which shows the hero in his true stature, with a halo about his brow, and which forces us to admire, after wondering."

Bismarck, though unnamed, is in the background of the essay on "Realistic Politics," in which the unscrupulously grasping, Machiavellian policy of his partial prototype, Frederic the Great, is sketched after the first volume of that King's 'Politische Correspondenz.' The conclusion quotes Voltaire: "No man, perhaps, has ever understood reason better, and obeyed passion more." This is true, Cherbuliez thinks, of Frederic's doings in war, but "his high and luminous reason" guided his actions in peace. Other realistic politicians have been "as able as he in duping the Frenchman, amusing the Briton, cajoling the Russian, and ensnaring the Austrian"; but are they equally able, rational, and grandly successful in peace? That the Chancellor of the German Empire is not, is the thesis of one of the last essays, "The Deceptions of M. de Bismarck in his Internal Policy," based mainly on Karl Braun's 'Von Friedrich dem Grossen bis zum Fürsten Bismarck' (1882). In this late production not only the legislative shortcomings and parliamentary defeats of Bismarck are expatiated upon with little reserve, and perhaps with too little allowance for the difficulties in governing arising from the unnatural composition of the Empire, the absence both of absolute control and of parties able to form a parliamentary majority, and the crushing burden of unavoidable armaments; but even his mastery in international diplomacy is no longer looked upon with unbounded admiration. He has been baffled by the Liberal as well as the Ultramontane opposition, and also by Beaconsfield and Gortchakoff in an attempt contemplated in 1875—which may be doubted—and by Gladstone, in Egyptian affairs, in 1882. The French writer is here both bolder and bitterer than in his preceding pages; his gall would have risen higher still had he known, when writing, that Bismarck was just then weaving the threads of the now accomplished "pacific" triple alliance against France. We find the Chancellor also in the piquant sketch, "The Loves of Ferdinand Lassalle," in which we more than elsewhere recognize the pen of an eminent novel-writer; in "The Strength and Weakness of Democratic Governments," in which the novelist descends, in very bad humor, from the heights of fancy into the dreary arena of French republican politics and demagogy; in "King George V. of Hanover," a pleasing but incomplete historical sketch; in "The Jewish Question in Germany" and "The Roman Question," and in "The Last of the Condottieri," a powerful analysis of the political character of Garibaldi, in which, however, the "buffalo's head" is, we believe, made to weigh too heavily against the "heart of gold." The majority of the essays are fortunately unobscured by the shadow of the colossal figure the thought of which so often disturbs the serenity of French statesmen and writers. Among the topics which we can only allude to are Carlyle, Rohlfs's Tripolitan journey, the Channel tunnel, and Amalie von Lasaulx, the excommunicated nun, whose angelic character is depicted in an almost idyllic sketch.

Shaftesbury and Hutcheson. By Thos. Fowler. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. 240.

In the valuable series of "English Philosophers" (which has already contained Farrer's 'Adam Smith,' Monck's 'Hamilton,' Bower's 'Hartley and James Mill,' and Fowler's 'Bacon') we have now two companion essays by Professor Fowler on the moralists, Shaftesbury and Hutcheson. They are well done. First comes a brief sketch of the author's life, followed by an account of his works, full enough to give their general tone and purport, and the special points for which he was, or deserved to be, noted, with sufficient discussion of them to bring out their relations to contemporary and modern thought, and without much attempt to establish Professor Fowler's own views. Shaftesbury's style is not altogether prepossessing to a modern reader, who is apt to be impatient of the prolixity and involution that were agreeable to the leisurely audience of his day; but the Earl always wrote like a polished gentleman. His favorite mode of argument was courteous sarcasm; his sceptical tone did not disturb his belief in God and immortality. His philosophical optimism was expressed with the *blasé* air of a man who knows by experience the

insufficiency of the best the world has to give. He was a nobleman, and his system was characterized by its benevolence and honor. He was a man of the world, and as such he was a utilitarian. He was a man of culture, and he thought that conscience and good taste were only different names for the same thing. He did not teach people to do right from any sordid motive or hope of future reward; nor did he base right and wrong upon the glory of God or divine law. He relied upon the innate sensibility of a gentleman, the feeling of *noblesse oblige*, to enforce the harmony he aimed at. Accordingly, when the selfish paradoxes of Hobbes required an answer, he explained that virtue lay in the doing for others, and that this harmony with universal humanity was perceived directly by the moral taste of a cultivated gentleman, just as he recognized musical harmony; and it was not worth while to puzzle over abstruser metaphysics.

If we compare his position with that of a modern utilitarian, who thinks that it requires difficult scientific investigation to determine what is for the common good, he seems like an amateur. But thanks to his suitability to his age and to the finished form which Pope has given to his cheerful philosophy, it has been an important feature in English thought. Pope expressed its optimism well:

> "All nature is but art unknown to thee,
> All chance, direction which thou canst not see,
> All discord, harmony not understood,
> All partial evil, universal good."

Hutcheson, whose name is coupled with Shaftesbury's in a union closer than that between any other two names in English philosophy, was a less notable man, for the reason that he sprang from the middle class, and did not represent so well the opinions of well-bred men. He was a follower and defender of Shaftesbury, but his standpoint, as the son of a Presbyterian minister and college professor, inclined him to view as a special moral sense, that discrimination of right and wrong which seemed to the Earl of Shaftesbury merely the good taste of a man of culture. Professor Fowler has done well to treat them together, and his book is a useful one.

Classic Mythology. A Translation (with the author's sanction) of Prof. C. Witt's 'Griechische Götter- und Heldengeschichten.' By Frances Younghusband. With a Preface by Arthur Sidgwick, M.A. Supplemented with a Glossary of Etymologies and Related Myths. Henry Holt & Co. 1883. 8vo, pp. 267.

Professor Witt's 'Classic Mythology' is not a systematic treatise upon mythology, but a systematically arranged collection of myths. It begins with the Cosmogony—"The Beginning of All Things," followed by "The Golden Age"—and then goes on with the principal myths and heroic legends, without any separate chapters upon the several gods and groups of gods. The only ones of the greater deities that form the subjects of chapters are Artemis and Dionysus, and that not as greater deities, but as connected with interesting legends. The thirty-two chapters contain nearly all the best stories of this class, and we do not know any book which contains just this material so complete and so well told, and so tastefully printed. Of course Kingsley's and Hawthorne's collections do not come in competition with this; they present the stories dressed up in such a way as to be as fascinating as possible to the child—the book before us simply tells the story as it has come down to us, with no additions or adornments. It is, therefore, specially adapted for purposes of instruction, containing just the material that the teacher and the student want. The American editor has adapted it more particularly for class use by adding a "Glossary" (pp. xiii. to xxvii.) giving brief explanations of the names and the myths. Of this part of the work it need only be said that it represents in its extreme form the theories especially associated with Max Müller and Sir George Cox. No possible explanation is suggested except that of the most common operations of nature. We have, for instance, eighteen dawn-myths, including Æthra, Alcmene, Andromeda, Antigone, Aphrodite, Ariadne, Atalanta, Athene; sixteen myths of the sun, etc. This work of identification is done carefully and ingeniously, and it is hard to take exception to it in detail; but we cannot bring ourselves to ascribe such excessive sameness to the origin of a mythology so rich and varied. Why must we consider Aphrodite "the dawn as it springs radiant from *aphros*, the foam of the sea," rather than the foam itself? Why not, then, a sea-goddess? But for those who accept implicitly this school of interpretation this glossary will be very serviceable.

The Scientific Angler. By the late David Foster. Compiled by his Sons, and edited by Wm. C. Harris. Orange Judd Co.

Mr. Foster combined to a rare degree the art of catching fish and of telling how to do it. The English edition of this book has been several times reprinted, and in its arrangement and instructions compares very favorably with any of the standard works on angling. The chapters on the "Habits and Haunts of Fish" are particularly good, and bear strong evidence of having been drawn from the stores of personal experience. Mr. Foster does not agree with the prevailing opinion that anadromous fish will not feed except in salt water, and that their store of fat acquired in the sea is their only sustenance when absent from it. He says: "The young of both grayling and trout suffer greatly from the presence of salmon in the tributaries of our rivers. The former, particularly, are sought after and taken by them." We think the theory that salmon eat nothing in fresh water is being gradually given up, and on good grounds. Of course, there is a good deal in Mr. Foster's book that is of no practical use to the American fisherman—for instance, the chapters on the barbel, tench, and some other fish of which we have none on this side of the Atlantic; but these superfluities are not unpleasant ones, and the copious foot-notes by Mr. Harris, of the *American Angler*, are both interesting and profitable.

On the Conservation of Solar Energy. By C. William Siemens, F.R.S. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

The remarkable hypothesis of Siemens that the sun draws his fuel from the gases in space—certain dissociated hydrocarbons flowing into his atmosphere at the poles and being expelled by centrifugal force at the equator—has provoked much criticism, and the author of this striking theory has collected in a small treatise his own papers and also those of his more prominent critics. If this theory had been broached by a man unknown to science, it would undoubtedly have awakened little attention; but Doctor Siemens has earned a right to be heard, by his important labors in applied science.

In England and Germany, which are the centres of physical science at the present time, hypotheses unsupported by experiment are little thought of, and Doctor Siemens brings forward but one experiment of his own to support his theory. He apparently showed that the solar rays could dissociate hydrocarbons at a low temperature and pressure, forming carbonic dioxides. Reasoning from this, he concludes that the sun's rays provide fuel from the gases of interstellar space which are drawn to himself and are burned, while the waste products are expelled by centrifugal motion into outer space, where they become enriched and are again acted upon by the solar rays. This process has all the semblance of perpetual motion, but Doctor Siemens avoids the non-allowable by supposing that the sun in his motion through space toward the constellation of Hercules is constantly moving into new regions. Yet at certain times he seems not averse to the hypothesis that the solar energy which is apparently lost in space is employed in raising the potentials, so to speak, of the consumed gases, in order that they may again be drawn into the solar furnaces and again be expelled. It is necessary for his hypothesis that some evidence of the constitution of the gases in interstellar space should be obtained. He therefore cites the observations on comets and the analyses of meteoric stones which appear to prove the presence of hydrocarbons. The extensive formations of limestone on the earth he also cites as possibly owing their existence to the earth's passing, at some epoch, through an atmosphere largely acted upon by the dissociating effect of the solar rays.

Doctor Siemens meets formidable critics in Hirn and Faye. The former thinks that if the gases drawn into the sun at the poles were dissociated by the great heat of the solar atmosphere, in being driven out a recombination would occur at no great distance from the sun, and the heat set free in the one case would become latent again, and there would be no gain to the sun. Faye thinks that the rarefaction of the gases in space supposed by Doctor Siemens is too small, and that it would oppose excessive resistance to planetary motions, and would add a mass of matter to the solar system 100,000 times as great as that of the sun. His own observations on the cyclonic movement of sun-spots do not support Doctor Siemens's hypothesis; the observations of Laugier, Carrington, and Spoerer show that the displacement of the spots in latitude is small, and that those remote from the equator tend toward and not away from the poles. The centrifugal force of the sun, moreover, being only 1-48000 of solar gravity, would not be competent to throw matter into space. Doctor Siemens answers his critics in turn, and always in an interesting manner. One cannot help observing, however, that in order to support his original hypothesis he boldly frames many subordinate ones, each of which has very little evidence to support it. We are reminded, in reading Siemens's papers upon this subject, of Tyndall's phrase, "the scientific use of the imagination," and feel perhaps that we owe a debt to Doctor Siemens for stimulating the imagination; but the training of a scientific man leads him instinctively to reject a mosaic of hypotheses.

The Principal Southern and Swiss Health Resorts: their Climate and Medical Aspect. By William Marcet, M.D. Scribner & Welford. 12mo, pp. viii.-408. Illustrations.

Doctor Marcet devotes himself to the following topics: (1) The main features of life at the watering places of southern Europe; (2) the climate of the French and Italian Riviera; (3) a description of some health resorts in Algeria and in southern Italy; (4) an account of an ascent of the Peak of Teneriffe, and of a three-weeks' bivouac for scientific purposes near its summit; and (5) a summary description of some of the leading health resorts of Switzerland. From this somewhat heterogeneous material Doctor Marcet has made a useful popular book. He contributes a number of original observations

on the climate of Cannes, which he studies in comparison with that of neighboring resorts; and the section on atmospheric moisture (pp. 75–85) is a clear treatment of a subject that is usually slighted or muddled. On the other hand, Doctor Marcet seems not to have heard of the new preventive treatment of sea-sickness by the bromides—a treatment, it may be added, which is certainly effective, but which has the serious drawback that it is liable to produce symptoms quite as distressing as those of sea-sickness itself. Acclimation, the hygienic value of long sea-voyages, the effects of great elevation above the sea-level in the treatment of pulmonary disease, and of occupation and of idleness respectively upon the invalid—these and many cognate practical questions are discussed here with the intelligence of an experienced physician. The book is well indexed, and has a number of folded lithographs of scenery in Madeira, Teneriffe, and Switzerland, one of which represents the valley of Davos, the latest balneotherapeutic find in eastern Switzerland. It is not a systematic treatise, like Sir Henry Bennett's upon a kindred topic, and it lacks the finished style which has made that work almost a popular classic in its line; but that it is readable may be inferred from touches like this, a propos of hotel life at Cannes and the *désagrémens* of the table d'hôte. Doctor Marcet says: "It is a time for those sitting near each other to break the ice, and there may be a fear of some clever person, with a discussive turn of mind, originating a general conversation which may, perhaps, take a turn unpleasant to many of the guests."

E. F. Bickford Inv. 21884

Correggio. By M. Compton Heaton. Scribner & Welford. 1882.

THIS twelfth biography in "The Great Artists" series briefly narrates what is known of the life of Antonio Allegri, commonly designated by the name of his birthplace, Correggio, and gives an account of his most important works and the circumstances under which they were executed. The book is modestly written, the author confining himself to what he has been able to gather from the most trustworthy authorities. In addition to a convenient index, a list of Correggio's principal works, including their present whereabouts, and a chronological table of the leading events in the master's life, are given. There are also nine woodcut illustrations of good average quality.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alcott, Dr. W. A. Tobacco: Its Effects on the Human System. With Notes and Additions by Nelson Sizer. Fowler & Wells. 25 cents.
Ammen, Rear-Admiral D. The Atlantic Coast. [The Navy in the Civil War.] Charles Scribner's Sons.
Appleton's General Guide to the United States and Canada, 1883. D. Appleton & Co.
Black, W. Yolande: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Blackwell, Dr. Elizabeth. Wrong and Right Methods of Dealing with Social Evil. A. Brentano & Co.
Broglie, Duc de. Frederick the Second and Maria Theresa. 1740–1742. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Brooklyn Bridge: History, by W. C. Conant. The Bridge as a Monument, An Account of the Opening Exercises. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20c.
Coan, T. M. Studies in Biography. [Topics of the Time. —No. 1.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Cunningham, F. H. Familiar Sketches of the Phillips Exeter Academy and Surroundings. With illustrations. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Day, H. From the Pyrenees to the Pillars of Hercules. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 50.
Düntzer, H. The Life of Schiller. Macmillan & Co. $2 50.
Durfee, T. Gleanings from the Judicial History of Rhode Island. Providence: S. S. Rider.
Enault, L. Christine. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Franklin, A. Ameline du Bourg: a Tale of the Huguenots. J. W. Lovell Co. 15 cents.
Freeman, E. A. English Towns and Districts. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Fuller, E. Forever and a Day: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 50 cents.
Gilbert, J. H. Burning Words of Brilliant Writers: a Cyclopædia of Quotations from the Religious Literature of All Ages. Albany, N. Y.: O. R. Niver.
Gow, A. M. The Primer of Politeness: a Help to Home and School Government. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 75 cents.
Green, Ana Katharine. X, Y, Z: a Detective Story. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Handbook of Hospitals. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Hawthorne, N. The Hollyer Romance, etc. Sketches, etc. [Vols. xi. and xii., completing the Riverside edition.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2 each.
Hawthorne, N. True Stories from New England History, 1620–1692. Grandfather's Chair, Parts 1, 2, 3. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents each.
Hawthorne, N. Biographical Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Hayes, I. I. An Arctic Boat Journey in the Autumn of 1854. New edition, enlarged and illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.
Hinsdale, B. A. The Works of James Abram Garfield. Vols. ii. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
——. The Second Campaign: a Novel. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
——. Campaign. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: Ro——.
Holmes, ——. Pages from an Old Volume of Life: a Collection of Essays. 1857–1881. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Howe, Elizabeth. Hazleburgh: a Romance. W. B. Smith & Co.
Humphreys, General A. A. From Gettysburg to the Rapidan. Charles Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Huntley, S. The Spoopendyke Papers. John W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Jevons, W. S. Methods of Social Reform, and Other Papers. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Johnson, R. T. The Foundation of Maryland, and the Origin of the Act concerning Religion of April 21, 1649. Baltimore: Maryland Historical Society.
Kemp, E. L. An Idyl of the War. The German Exiles, and Other Poems. Philadelphia: John E. Potter & Co.
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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1883.

The Week.

THE most important feature in business and finance during the past week—or for that matter for the past several weeks—has been the continued decline in prices of the principal great agricultural staples, in view of the prospect of good crops. In grain and provisions the decline has been very marked. Cotton was already down to prices below the average of past years, and there are no indications of a recovery from these low prices. It is becoming apparent to bankers that credits based upon collateral of these commodities must be upon a lower range of prices than heretofore. This fact is coming home with great force to the banks, both East and West, which have advanced from $18,000,000 to $20,000,000 on whiskey in bonded warehouses (35,000,000 gallons in Kentucky alone), and which if now forced to sale, as a lot was at the West a short time ago, will scarcely bring the 25 to 30 cents per gallon advanced by the banks, to say nothing of the 90 cents per gallon of Government tax. The commercial agencies, in their semi-annual reports of failures in the United States and Canada for the six months to July 1, show a large increase both in numbers and in the aggregate of liabilities as compared with the three preceding years—the aggregate of liabilities for the six months of 1883 being $66,000,000, against $50,000,000 last year, $40,000,000 two years ago, and $41,000,000 three years ago. It is, however, believed that this increase of failures, which has resulted mainly from the fall in prices of goods and commodities in the last two years, will not be continued, because most articles are now either down to the cost of production or below it; and that merchants who are able to go on after this have little to apprehend from any further great decline in values.

The last three weekly statements of the New York banks have shown an increase of nearly $7,000,000 of loans, probably in connection with the increased movement of imports of goods which had been awaiting the operation of the new tariff laws on July 1. The supply of loanable funds has, however, continued abundant at the lowest rates usually made at this season of the year. Notwithstanding the abundance of money in the loan market, there is less disposition on the part of capital to invest in the securities of new enterprises, and the market for the new railroad bonds, of which there have been so many new issues in the last few months, is very dull. The same may be said of the stock market generally.

The Fourth is no longer a day of rejoicing and exultation, but of reflection upon and criticism of the condition of the country. At Woodstock on Wednesday, for instance, where they attempted to have an "old-fashioned Fourth," the ceremonial was really the only old-fashioned thing about the event. They had a brass band, which played patriotic airs, and we believe the Declaration of Independence was read, and a great number of distinguished persons, including an ex-President, were present; but when it came to the speeches and poem, we find them pervaded throughout by the spirit of patriotic reform. Colonel Wait, in his "words of welcome," reminded the audience that a nation could not be happy without being virtuous; Mr. Hayes dwelt on the necessity of national aid to education; while Bishop Coxe delivered an address on "National Perpetuity," in which he showed that the country was not likely to go on permanently prospering unless extravagance and luxury were checked, the tone of politics improved, and the moral law as laid down in the Bible generally recognized. Senator Blair spoke for an hour and a half on "National Evils and the Remedies Required to Exterminate Them," John B. Gough made a temperance address, and Mr. Whittier sent a poem, in which he managed to allude to the Indian question, temperance, civil-service reform, and female suffrage. This is really the type of the Fourth of July as it exists. To say that such celebrations as these show a decline in patriotism seems to us preposterous. They show a decline in bombast, in turgid rhetoric, in noisy and offensive self-laudation; but nothing could show better than the modern Fourth of July what a very seriously patriotic people we are. Nothing but a strong love of country would induce several hundred thousand people, on one of the hottest days in the year, to listen to reformatory addresses and poems, and critical lectures on the state of the country. For fireworks and triumphal rhetoric and pæans over their glorious destiny crowds can be got together anywhere, but a sober reformatory holiday is a very different piece of business.

One of the most curious illustrations of the embarrassment of the protectionists in finding plausible pretexts for the keeping up of high-tariff duties is the scheme urged by Mr. Wharton Barker, of Philadelphia, to distribute the surplus revenues of the National Government among the several States. He thinks that in this way State and municipal debts might be paid off, public schools might be maintained, and public improvements might be made. The mere statement of the proposition that the Government is to raise by taxation more money than it needs for its ordinary purposes, and to keep on raising this surplus systematically for the purpose of distributing it again among those from whom it was taken by way of taxation, is sufficient to show its eccentricity, to say the least. If it could be so distributed as to go back to the identical persons from whom it had been taken, it would be simply absurd. But if it were taken by taxation from some merely to be distributed among others, it would be communism.

Those who are anxious that the Government shall further embarrass itself in regard to the silver question by receiving as legal-tender coins the trade dollars, which have not been a legal tender for seven years, should study the Treasury statements for the last few years. The Treasury balances were larger on the 1st of July than on the 1st of June. At the former date the gold coin and bullion, less outstanding certificates, amounted to $136,713,215, and the silver dollars and bullion, also less certificates, amounted to $43,829,062. This is an increase of $2,995,112 and $2,500,259 respectively. But though this month's showing is more favorable to gold, in actual amount, than was last month's, the relative advance in the accumulation of silver is maintained. The standard dollars and bullion for them accumulated at the rate of 5 per cent. Gold coin and bullion accumulated at the rate of only about 2 per cent. The United States are already sufficiently loaded with silver coin without adding the trade dollars to the burden. The public eye will be attracted by the announcement that the decrease in the public debt in June was $17,500,000, and in the fiscal year $137,225,050; but the payment of the debt is by no means the only problem, or the most important one, suggested by the Treasury statement.

Mr. Theodore Van Wyck has very neatly unmasked the Cobden Club in the *Tribune*, and shown how it has been polluting the minds of the Western farmers with its pernicious literature. He declares that in 1880 he was informed by a depraved free-trader, who, like so many of his class, was a Democrat also, that the Cobden Club never sent documents to this country. Determined to ascertain the truth, he wrote to the Cobden Club, asking for some documents for his own reading. In about three weeks he received a heavy batch of works, the titles of which we hardly like to give. The worst of them is called 'The Western Farmer of America'; the least mischievous probably is the 'Cobden Club Committee Reports and Lists of Members.' Mr. T. B. Potter, the Secretary of the Club, also wrote Mr. Van Wyck a letter, saying that he could get more by going to "Cassell & Co.'s, 596 Broadway," and declaring that the Club had sent about $1,000 worth of this vile stuff to the United States. He mentioned, as if to excuse this, that he circulated half-a-million pamphlets in England during our war to show to Englishmen that the North was in the right. But Mr. Van Wyck was too shrewd a man to be blinded by so transparent an artifice. We trust that the defenders of the Club will make no further attempt to palliate their abominable activity.

The Cobden Club has done another very base thing, in offering a prize for an economical essay. A number of alumni of Williams College have, however, promptly protested against the "acceptance" of the prize by that college. The alumni, in their letter on the subject, which is certainly a curious production for educated men to put their names to, admit that the College is committed to free trade, or, in other words, teaches—as almost every college in

the country does—that the protective system is a delusion. This, these alumni say, is all wrong, because the College ought to teach "truth," and there is no such thing as "absolute truth" in political economy, the whole dispute about free trade being only a "political question." They therefore request that the College refuse to accept from "any foreign government, or political or commercial organization," any prize "for proficiency in this department." But this is only a half-way measure. If they are right, the colleges ought to give up teaching political economy altogether, and confine themselves to those branches in which "absolute truth" can be got at. This would, we presume, confine the curriculum to metaphysics.

Recently large quantities of whiskey have been preparing for a pleasure trip to Bermuda—not, as wine sometimes takes an ocean voyage, for the improvement of its quality, but to help the dealers to carry a larger stock than is needed for the trade. The production of whiskey has for some time exceeded the consumption, vast as the latter has been. Under the Federal law, the article has been allowed to lie in bond for three years without payment of the tax. The last Congress was asked to extend the time to five years, on the ground that to pay the tax before there was a market for the spirits would ruin the dealers. Congress refusing to grant the extension, the holders of whiskey hit upon the plan of exporting it to Bermuda and reimporting it to this country, so as to get more time in bond and thus postpone the payment of the tax. The customs duty on this article is about $2 a gallon, but it is provided by law that when a domestic article which has been exported, is reimported, "there shall be levied, collected, and paid thereon a duty equal to the tax imposed by the internal revenue upon such articles," which in the case of whiskey is ninety cents a gallon. When articles in bonded warehouses are withdrawn for export the lien of the internal revenue is discharged. The dealers' plan would work in this way. Whiskey would be formally withdrawn and the tax cancelled. It would be sent to Bermuda and after a reasonable time be brought back, subject to a duty of ninety cents. But imported articles, according to law, may lie in bond for three years, so that by this neat contrivance the dealers would get an even longer extension than they ineffectually sought to secure from Congress. The Attorney-General, however, has given the Secretary of the Treasury an opinion to the effect that such withdrawal and exportation are not within the meaning of the law. The plan will therefore fail, because while the dealers could afford to pay freight both ways on condition of paying a duty of ninety cents three years after reimportation, they could scarcely afford to pay the freight and incur a duty of two dollars.

Mr. Worthington, the Collector in Boston, has made an examination of the "assisted" Irish emigrants arriving in that port, owing to a note of alarm sounded by the Board of Health in that city, and reports that they are "fully up to the average standard of immigrants," and finds nothing to complain of in them. The truth is that the whole clamor about these assisted emigrants reflects but little credit on the Americans who have taken part in it. It was got up by the Irish agitators in this city as an enterprise in which they would be likely to gain some of the American sympathy which they have forfeited or repelled by their brutal indulgence for the policy of assassination. They thought that Americans would be pretty sure to join them in an uproar about paupers which would help to embarrass the British Government, even at the cost of compelling hundreds of their unfortunate countrymen to recross the Atlantic when on the very threshold of a new life. But there never has been any good foundation for it. The agitators doubtless well know that probably three-fifths of the 2,000,000 of Irish now in the United States came out as "assisted emigrants"; that is, their passage was paid wholly or in part by landlords anxious to get rid of them, or by remittances from friends in this country. The proportion of them who have come with the help of relatives who had preceded them is probably very large indeed, although no statistics on the subject are attainable. If no Irish emigrants had come over except those who could pay their way out of their own pockets, there would probably not be half as many in the country as there are. Nor does the fact that his passage money comes wholly or in part from the Government instead of from his own friends in any degree lower an assisted emigrant's value to this country, or increase the probability of his becoming a burden to the taxpayers. It simply shows that the times have been worse in Ireland than usual—so bad as to compel the Government to come to the aid of the local authorities in relieving distress. That his passage has been paid by the British Treasury raises no presumption whatever against an Irish laborer's capacity to support himself. It simply indicates that he could not at home have found the means of earning his passage even had he desired it.

Some features in the "assisted emigrant" discussion have bordered on the amusing. To read certain articles upon the subject, one might suppose that the United States was a country strictly reserved for small capitalists, and that only people of means, holding a letter of credit on a responsible banker, were allowed to land at Castle Garden. The truth is, however, that the reason why the vast majority of emigrants come here, and have always come, is that they are very poor, and, in a majority of cases, have just been able to scrape enough money together to pay their passage. The emigrants who come here with capital looking for investments are very few in number. The mass have nothing to dispose of but their labor. What heightens the ludicrousness of the recent denunciations of the Irish emigrant's poverty is that we have for one hundred years been announcing to the world that this was the place for "the pauper labor of Europe" to come, and that the only conditions of welcome and success were good health and willingness to work. Of course, it is against a man that he has been relieved from the poor rates, or has lived in the poor-house. But it would be monstrous to convert this into absolute and ineffaceable disqualification for emigration to the United States. There are paupers and paupers in all countries. The pauper we do not want and ought to send back is the man who will not work, and who habitually quarters himself on the rates to avoid work. A pauper who has become a pauper owing to the wretched condition of his country—that is, owing to the absence of all demand for his labor—is not *ipso facto* an undesirable addition to the population of a country in which the demand for labor is unlimited. And this is really the condition of the great bulk of the able-bodied poor in Ireland. No employer of labor has ever, we believe, in any part of Ireland found any difficulty in getting laborers.

The long and active life of one of the most eminent Roman Catholic prelates in this country ended last week. Archbishop Purcell was eighty-three years old. He had been a priest fifty-seven years, a bishop fifty years, and an archbishop twenty years. His official administration covered important and exciting periods in the history of the country and of his Church. He managed his diocese not only with tact and in a moderate and patriotic spirit, but in such a way as to secure from his followers the absolute confidence which enabled him to accomplish one of the most extraordinary financial feats on record. It might be said that Archbishop Purcell knew nothing more about finances than a child, were not the mere suggestion of the comparison perhaps unjust to the child. This ignorance did not prevent his acquiring and keeping for forty years an unquestioned credit which the best-managed savings bank or trust company might envy. People who, after the collapse of 1837, refused to trust any moneyed institution did not hesitate to trust the Archbishop. The most astonishing methods of doing business did not impair their confidence. His "books" were kept chiefly in his head—or in the head of his brother, Edward Purcell. It is said, for example, that "he would cover a scrap of paper back and front with memoranda of deposits, interest at 6 per cent., and withdrawals," and "sometimes entered a deposit on such a scrap, and absent-mindedly handed back the money." The money received on deposit, at promised compound interest, instead of being invested even at simple interest was used in building a $300,000-cathedral and other churches, in the simple faith that "the diocese in the end would redeem its obligations." Of course the diocese has not done this, and there is slight probability that it ever will do it. When the long-deferred explosion came in 1878 it appeared, so far as could be made out, that the Archbishop had received deposits to the amount of $1,000,000, and owed in principal and interest $4,000,000, for which there was nothing to show. The fact that throughout this matter his integrity has not once been questioned furnishes a very remarkable illustration of the value of character; but the history of the affair ought to do a good deal more than this. It should be an effectual warning against carrying on banking or other business on a spiritual capi-

tal. If it shall serve this purpose thoroughly, the painful experience which clouded the later years of Archbishop Purcell may really be more valuable than all the rest of his useful life.

The agreement arrived at between the War and Interior Departments with regard to the disposition to be made of General Crook's Apache captives is a very sensible and proper solution of the question. General Crook advised that the captives, instead of being treated like criminals, be put upon the San Carlos reservation like peaceable Indians, expecting that this treatment would speedily induce those still at large and in a semi-hostile condition to surrender, and thus put an end to the whole difficulty. The reservation Indians were opposed to this scheme, because they feared that the presence of the marauders among them might disturb and compromise them, and the Secretary of the Interior, in accord with the officers of the Indian Bureau, would have preferred to locate the captives somewhere else, where their unruly spirit would not contaminate the peaceable Indians. At any rate, he was reluctant to take upon himself the responsibility for the execution of General Crook's policy. This is quite intelligible. It naturally suggested itself that the originator or authoritative advocate of the policy to be pursued should also bear the responsibility for the execution of it, and that in case of the adoption of General Crook's scheme, he should exercise the police power on the reservation and make himself responsible for the orderly conduct of his captives, while the officers of the Indian Bureau retained the civil administration of the establishment. There is no reason why this exceptional arrangement should not work well if the Indian agent is as sensible and discreet a man as the General is known to be.

The Ottman compromise, according to a Washington despatch, is being carried out by the Attorney-General, and the $12,700 which was attached at Alexandria will shortly be distributed among "counsel," one of these being still alleged to be Mr. Richard Crowley. The compromise was effected in June of last year, when Mr. Crowley was acting as counsel for the Government; and if he is to be paid by anybody it would naturally be by the Government which he so ably served. But then how can the Government pay him with Ottman's money, after giving it up to Ottman? Altogether, it is a mysterious affair, and calculated to arouse suspicion and distrust among Democrats and other evil-minded persons. They will, however, probably investigate it, and then the facts in Mr. Crowley's case will come to light.

We are pleased to see from an interview reported on Tuesday with Mr. John F. Smyth that he considers the prospects of the Republican party in this State better than they were a year ago, although he acknowledges that this is not saying very much. He ascribes this to the subsidence of "discord" in some regions once ravaged by that great plague of our politics. We are inclined to think, however, that in the last analysis it will be found that any improvement which has shown itself is due to an agency which Mr. Smyth mentions, but only lightly and evidently without suspecting its potency—the fact that he himself has during the past year been absorbed in business and has let politics alone. If this be true, it will go far to account for any increase in "harmony" which Mr. Smyth has perceived. In fact, there is probably nothing which would help the party so much as the burial in their private affairs of about a dozen of Mr. Smyth's associates and co-workers. This seems at first a startling assertion, but it is true. Ordinarily, it is a bad thing for a community when its leading statesmen drop public affairs and devote themselves to making money. The philosophers all consider it one of the worst signs of politics. But the public joy in this State when it is known that a prominent statesman is exclusively devoted to any honest private calling, shows how little the philosophers know.

When Mr. Polk, the State Treasurer of Tennessee, who had appropriated to himself a large sum of public money to prevent its being misspent as interest on the State debt, was captured and put in confinement previous to his trial, some Tennessee papers rather proudly compared this achievement with the failure of the Pennsylvania authorities to catch Major Phipps, the thieving Superintendent of the Philadelphia Almshouse. Major Phipps has in the meantime not only been caught, but he has been tried and sentenced to five years in the penitentiary. There he is now, while we are still from time to time informed by telegraph of the slow progress of the Polk case and an occasional effort to "settle" the matter. As the Tennessee press has invited the comparison, it will be reminded by it that catching your thief is not the only thing required.

The way the ministers at the South are taking to the revolver is startling. Some weeks ago two young clergymen, brothers, in Louisiana murdered an older clergyman, and disputed between themselves afterward as to who fired the fatal shot, each claiming the credit of it. A day or two ago, in Arkansas, the Rev. Mr. Singleton, a Baptist minister "possessing talents of a high order," had a dispute "over some trifling matter" with "a much respected, quiet, and inoffensive" Mr. Moore. So he opened fire on Mr. Moore, and kept it up till he had sent three bullets into him. The excuse made for the reverend gentleman is that he has "the temper of a demon," which is certainly a serious defect in a minister, especially when he carries a revolver. After this, we should think his congregation would rapidly thin out, no matter how good a preacher he may be.

Physicians and patients will read with interest the letter of Doctor Seymour on the medical-code dispute, published elsewhere. With regard to the Wisconsin case, to our comments on which he refers, he seems to be laboring under a misapprehension. The regular physician was said to have deserted the patient, not because the family physician was not a surgeon, but because he was a homœopath. Doctor Seymour takes precisely the view of the matter that we expressed—that human life is a trifle compared with devotion to principle; that loyalty to the Code is more important than health; while he adds to this the important doctrine, which we confess we forgot to dwell upon, that the only persons to whom a doctor has any obligations whatever are "loyal, confiding patients," whom he can rely upon to help him fight the battle with the homœopaths and other designing foes. This picture of the Strong Man, surrounded by his little band of patients, making a gallant stand against the "weaklings and knaves" who wish to save as much human life as possible, is as striking as anything the Code controversy has brought out.

The report of the debate in the House of Lords on the deceased wife's sister bill shows that the example of the United States was used by both sides in a variety of ways. Earl Dalhousie, in advocating the bill, mentioned that he had made inquiries as to the effect of what is evidently thought to be our national custom of marrying deceased wives' sisters, and that the replies received from Americans of all classes and conditions showed that it was not believed here to have any perceptibly baleful results. This was rather difficult sort of testimony to meet, but Lord Cairns was equal to the emergency; he declared that there was nothing surprising in it, for "all Americans thought that all their institutions were good." Lord Cairns probably derives this impression from his reading of the standard British works on the manners and customs of the Americans, and from the "tall talk" of Americans when in England. But if he will run across here, as the Lord Chief Justice is wisely going to do, and study us in "our homes," the noble Lord will find that among ourselves we criticise our "institutions" with great freedom. If we may judge by this debate, an excursion to the United States by the House of Lords in a body, personally conducted by some one who understands the country, would do it a world of good.

It will probably be revealed some day what it is which impels Sir Stafford Northcote and the majority of the House of Commons to keep up their warfare on Bradlaugh. The only effect of it that is plain and certain is, that it will insure his reëlection by his Northampton constituents to the next Parliament, and in that Parliament it will be impossible to prevent his taking his seat, for he is ready to take the oath. The only open excuse for preventing his taking his seat in this Parliament is, that he once refused to take it on grounds which would make his taking it now a blasphemous mockery. Of this refusal, however, the next Parliament will know nothing, and cannot constitutionally know anything. To each Parliament each member comes without blemish, unless he is disqualified by statute. So that the Tories at best only get rid of the infidel for a year or so, while their persecution of him makes him a martyr.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[TUESDAY, July 3, to TUESDAY, July 10, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Fourth of July was observed this year in a quiet manner throughout the country. One of the incidents of the day in this city was the return to the One Hundred and Sixty-fourth New York Regiment of a flag which was sent to them during the war by the city of New York, but which was captured on the way by the Confederates. It was returned by the cadets of the Virginia Military Institute. The ceremonies took place in the Governor's room at the City Hall. There were speeches by Mayor Edson and others. President Arthur received the cadets at the Fifth Avenue Hotel earlier in the day. The celebration at Mr. Henry C. Bowen's place at Woodstock, Conn., consisted of addresses by ex-President Hayes, Senator Aldrich of Rhode Island, Bishop Coxe, Senator Blair of New Hampshire, and John B. Gough, and the reading of a poem by John G. Whittier. Hanlan won first prize in a regatta at Lowell, Mass., on the Fourth. The Cornell crew won the inter-collegiate four-oared race at Lake George on the same day. The University of Pennsylvania was second, Princeton third, and Wesleyan fourth.

General Crook arrived in Washington last week for consultation with the President and members of his Cabinet as to what should be done with the captive Apaches. General Crook had a conference with the Secretaries of War and the Interior on Saturday morning, at which the question was discussed. An agreement was arrived at by the two Secretaries, of which the following is the substance: "The Apache Indians recently captured by General Crook, and all such as may be hereafter captured or may surrender themselves to him, shall be kept under the control of the War Department at such points on the San Carlos Reservation as may be determined by the War Department (but not at the agency without the consent of the Indian Agent), to be fed and cared for by the War Department until further orders. For the greater security of the people of Arizona and to insure peace, the War Department shall be intrusted with the entire police control of all the Indians on the San Carlos Reservation." This is the policy advocated by General Crook.

Secretary Chandler, of the Navy, has ordered that hereafter the officers of ships which are on a cruise, particularly the commanding officers, must leave their families at their "usual place of abode," and not select residences for them convenient to any foreign station where the ships may be. This is a revival of the severe discipline of former days.

Mr. John Roach has been awarded the contract for building the four new steel cruisers for the United States Government. His bids were the lowest offered.

Attorney-General Brewster has given an opinion to the Secretary of the Treasury that the exportation of bonded whiskey to Bermuda, with a view to its reimportation for the purpose of evading or delaying the payment of the tax, is not an exportation within the meaning of the law. The Attorney-General holds that the tax due upon the spirits at the time of exportation is collectible on their return to this country.

Postmaster-General Gresham decides that the order first issued by Postmaster-General Key excluding the Louisiana Lottery from the mails must be executed.

The Commissioner of Internal Revenue, Mr. Evans, says that Mr. Horton will not be allowed to assume the duties of the office to which he was recently appointed until all the charges against him have been cleared up. A report has been received from Boston which has not been made public, but which is said to be adverse to Mr. Horton.

The investigation of the affairs of Supervising Architect Hill's office has continued throughout the week in Washington. Testimony was introduced to show that he had exhibited favoritism in awarding contracts.

Crop reports from a wide area of the West and Northwest are very encouraging. Their tenor is that the grain crop, wheat excepted, will be equal to last year's yield.

One death from yellow fever was reported on Saturday from Galveston, Texas. It occurred on board a bark from Vera Cruz, in quarantine. There are other cases at Pensacola on shipboard.

A syndicate is said to have been formed which will ask Congress at the next session to refund to the States the $20,000,000 of direct tax which was assessed under the act of August 5, 1861.

There has been no material change in the Senatorial contest in the New Hampshire Legislature during the week, except that on Tuesday Mr. Rollins made a net gain of four votes.

The Mississippi Independents held a convention at Jackson on Wednesday. Gen. James R. Chalmers was one of the ruling spirits. A platform was adopted favoring a free ballot and a fair count, and a law to prevent fraudulent election certificates, and endorsing President Arthur's Southern policy.

About 250 delegates responded to the call for a national conference of Anti-Monopolists, which held a stormy session in Chicago on Wednesday. Dennis Kearney was excluded as a delegate. He declared in a speech that cheap freight did not benefit the laboring classes, and that the roads represented labor. A platform was reported on Thursday which advocates a postal telegraph system; abolition of the national banking system; establishment of a graduated income tax and of postal savings banks; amendment of the patent laws to secure more perfect protection of inventors; continuing the power of Congress to assess taxes for the necessary expenses of the Government only, and denouncing gambling in the necessaries of life.

At a meeting of the Niagara Falls Reservation Commissioners in this city on Friday a resolution was adopted to pay the expenses of the map of the proposed park out of the Commission's fund in case the Attorney-General decided it should be so paid. The State Engineer had been asked to prepare such a map, but said that he did not have the necessary funds for the work.

The trustees of the East River Bridge, at their meeting on Monday, ordered the erection of stand-pipes at each tower as a protection in case of fire. In case of an alarm the engines of the Brooklyn and New York Fire Departments will be run on to the bridge and will connect their hose with these stand-pipes. Chief-Engineer W. A. Roebling sent to the Board a letter, in the handwriting of his wife, tendering his resignation, to take effect at the end of the present month. The letter said that as the bridge was completed the trustees would no longer have need of his services. Colonel Roebling's resignation was accepted, and Superintendent Martin was appointed Chief Engineer in his stead.

Fourteen graduates of Williams College, Williamstown, Mass., have sent a protest to the trustees of the College against the way in which free trade is taught by Professor Perry. They especially object to having the Cobden Club prize awarded at the College. The trustees have appointed a committee of four to consider the advisability of having a course of protection lectures.

McGeoch, Everingham & Co., the Chicago produce firm which recently failed, have submitted a proposition to their creditors to pay 50 per cent. in cash, if all the creditors will sign the agreement. The terms have been accepted.

The Vermont Copper Mining Company, at Ely, Vt., of which Smith Ely, of New York, is President, has been in financial difficulties for many months, but has continued work since April without paying its miners, whose wages amount to $20,000. Finally, the miners were promised their pay on June 30, but the promise was not kept. The miners, stopping work, took possession of all the company's property and seized the corporation store. They were in great straits, some families being on the verge of starvation. On Thursday night ex-Governor Farnham, the attorney for the company, offered to pay the men 5 per cent. of their wages, but the offer was rejected. They took possession of Vershire and West Fairlee, threatening to burn the villages unless paid. They were well armed. On Friday Governor Barstow, of Vermont, ordered out 160 militia. They arrived at Ely early on Saturday morning, and quietly took possession of the town, capturing eleven of the ringleaders of the riot. This put an end to the danger, and most of the troops returned to their homes on Saturday evening. The mining company proposes to pay $2,500 of their indebtedness to the men at once, $2,000 in one week, and the balance, $15,500, as soon as the ore now in process of refinement can be put through and shipped. There being, in the opinion of the State's attorney, no case against the eleven prisoners, they were released on Monday.

The first through train on the New York, West Shore and Buffalo Railroad for Albany and Saratoga was run on Monday.

The stockholders of the Central Railroad of New Jersey met at the company's office in Jersey City on Friday afternoon, and ratified the lease of the road to the Philadelphia and Reading Company. Nearly 155,000 of the 185,000 shares were voted, of which 150,828 shares were in favor of the ratification, and 4,124 against.

Elam, the Virginia duellist, is considered out of danger.

Mlle. Marie Litta, the American prima donna, died at her home in Bloomington, Ill., on Saturday. Her illness was caused by overwork during her concert season last winter.

Archbishop Purcell, of the Roman Catholic Church, died at St. Martins, O., on Wednesday night, aged 83. He was made Archbishop in 1850. His latter years were made miserable by the memorable financial disaster that overtook him. He received deposits from Catholics without carefully recording them and judiciously investing them. The funds were drawn upon at will by the Archbishop for building the cathedral in Cincinnati, and for church edifices wherever they were asked for. In the fall of 1878 the crash came, and depositors tried to get their money. The Archbishop was quickly overwhelmed. He sent his resignation to Rome, but, as it was not accepted, he held his high office until his death. The deficiency amounted to fully $4,000,000.

FOREIGN.

The Sanitary Council of Egypt has ordered the population of Damietta to be removed from their dwellings and scattered in tents. The part of the town infected with cholera has been partly disinfected and partly burned. The death rate continues high in Damietta and Mansurah. It is asserted that the Egyptian medical service is in a state of chaos. The lazaretto at Beirut is crowded with fugitives from Egypt. Cholera is raging in Swatow, China. On Monday it was announced that provisions had given out at Damietta, and the people were starving.

In the House of Commons on Tuesday night, Henry Chaplin (Conservative) moved that, in view of the prevalence of the foot and mouth disease, the importation of live cattle should not in future be permitted from countries whose preventive laws, or the sanitary condition of whose cattle, did not afford reasonable security against the extension of the disease. Great Britain could not long rely upon America for meat, as the rapid increase

of the latter's population was causing the exportable surplus to become less daily. The motion was carried by a vote of 200 against 192, the members of the Government voting with the minority.

In the House of Commons on Thursday night Mr. Trevelyan, Chief Secretary for Ireland, in answer to a question as to whether, in view of the recent action of the Emigration Commissioners at New York, the deportation of paupers from Ireland to the United States would be stopped, said that orders would be given to suspend grants of money in cases where it was supposed that former inmates of workhouses were among those desiring to emigrate. Mr. Trevelyan also said that he believed very few of the state-aided emigrants were paupers, but that he was still inquiring into the subject. He thought it was not because of a few pounds more or less that immigrants were returned. In the course of a debate on the Relief of Distress in Ireland Bill, Mr. Trevelyan said that accounts of the state of the country were hopeful, and that there was no reason to expect exceptional distress. On Friday Mr. Trevelyan, in reply to further questions, said he had been informed that of a thousand emigrants who had gone to America, only two families had been inmates of the workhouse at Belmullet, from which section they came, and they had received money on landing and were doing well. At a meeting of the Catholic hierarchy in Dublin on Friday, motions were adopted condemning state-aided emigration, and pointing out that there are large tracts of land in Ireland which, if cultivated, would maintain the surplus population.

The House of Commons on Friday night, by a vote of 130 to 114, rejected a motion made by Mr. Hugh Mason (Advanced Liberal) in favor of female suffrage. Of the Government, Mr. Gladstone, the Marquis of Hartington, Sir Henry James, Mr. Shaw-Lefevre, Mr. Holms, and Mr. Duff voted against Mr. Mason's motion. Mr. Bright also voted against it. The privilege contemplated by the motion was to be limited to women who by virtue of the property qualification already possess the municipal franchise.

On the motion of Sir Stafford Northcote on Monday, in the British House of Commons, Mr. Bradlaugh was excluded from the precincts of the House until he engaged not to disturb its proceedings. The vote was 232 to 65. Mr. Gladstone and several other members of the Ministry withdrew before the voting took place.

The Joint Committee of the House of Lords and House of Commons, which has had the English Channel tunnel scheme under consideration, has rejected it by a vote of 6 nays to 4 yeas.

The report of the Committee of the House of Lords, which has had the Irish Land Act under consideration, was submitted to the House on Tuesday. The Committee say they find that the emigration clauses of the act have failed; that the modes of valuation of land are not to be relied on; that the relations between landlords and tenants have not improved, and that the tenants have become demoralized, and maintain the hope that a fresh agitation will bring about the passage of a new act.

At the Sligo (Ireland) Assizes on Saturday Rogerson, Tanzy, Kelly, and Haughton, implicated in the murder conspiracy, were found guilty. Two informers testified that the prisoners and a number of other persons, who were obeying the orders of a secret society, attempted in March, 1882, to blow up the Weston House at Galway with dynamite. On Monday Tanzy was sentenced to fourteen years' penal servitude, Rogerson to twelve years, Haughton to eight years, and Kelly to two years.

The report that James Carey, the informer, has left Dublin is confirmed. The Government refused to give him any reward or a written pardon. Having been given the alternative of being turned out unprotected in the streets, or a passage to London, and thence to some colony in the eastern hemisphere, he accepted the latter. His bankruptcy was announced on Tuesday.

Eight thousand iron workers in South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire, England, have struck work owing to a reduction of wages. Strikers marched to Dudleyport, Tipton, and Moxley on Thursday and entered the iron works at those places and quenched the fires in the furnaces, thus stopping work. The force of policemen on hand was powerless to prevent the action of the strikers.

A prisoner named Willsen, who is charged with committing arson in Copenhagen, has confessed that he set fire to the Victoria Docks, London, in 1881, with a view to obtaining plunder. The opinion heretofore entertained regarding the origin of the fire was that it was the work of Fenians.

During the launch of the steamer *Daphne* at Renfrew, near Glasgow, Scotland, on Tuesday, a terrible disaster occurred, which resulted in great loss of life. Two hundred workmen were on board at the time of the launch. The steamer left the ways at a very fast rate, and when she gained the water she rolled from side to side. The persons on board, fearing that she would capsize, ran to and fro. The vessel finally reeled over and nearly disappeared beneath the water. Boats hastily pulled to assist in the work of rescuing the unfortunate people, and succeeded in saving a large number of them. It is known, however, that there were fifty persons below in the *Daphne* when the vessel went over, and they were all drowned. Divers succeeded in recovering many of their bodies. The number of lives lost is estimated at 150. The vessel was of 500 tons burthen. She was built for the coasting trade.

It is reported from London that a number of holders of Confederate bonds have subscribed £10,000 for use in an endeavor to induce States wishing to reëstablish their credit to recognize a portion of their debt.

A dinner was given to Henry Irving, the English actor, in London, on Wednesday evening, at St. James's Hall. It was a farewell tribute, in view of his approaching visit to America. Many distinguished persons were present, and Lord Chief Justice Coleridge presided. There were 500 guests, and 400 ladies sat in the gallery. In toasting Henry Irving, Lord Coleridge paid a high tribute to the actor's profession. He said the best player ought to be a great man, to appreciate great qualities and to delineate them. The drama would die without the actor to breathe life into it. The greatest names were kept fresh by worthy interpreters. In conclusion, Lord Coleridge said: "America sent us Edwin Booth. We send her Henry Irving as a birthday present. Receive him with open arms, as we received Edwin Booth."

Prof. Thomas H. Huxley has been elected President of the Royal Society of Great Britain.

The Duke of Marlborough died suddenly in England on Thursday, at the age of sixty-one. He was found dead from heart disease on the floor of his room.

The American Rifle Team began practising at Wimbledon, England, on Monday. It is finally decided that they will not be allowed the use of wind-gauges except in the International match.

Notwithstanding the denial, it is asserted in Rome that the Curia differs from the Propaganda in regard to Ireland. Owing to the action of Mr. Errington, an inquiry has been sent to Cardinal McCabe whether he is well enough to come to Rome.

The relations between the Vatican and France have improved since the recent exchange of notes.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Monday, M. Barodet (Republican) moved that amnesty be granted to those persons who took part in the Paris and Montceau-les-Mines riots, including Louise Michel. The motion was rejected by a vote of 304 to 89.

M. Achard has introduced a bill in the French Chamber of Deputies, authorizing the taking of soundings for piers for a railway bridge from Cape Gris-Nez, on the French coast, across the Strait of Dover to Folkestone in England.

At Hué, the capital of Anam, the French Consul has been insulted and attacked on the public streets.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday M. Challemel-Lacour, Minister of Foreign Affairs, said that the French force in Tonquin was sufficient for any opposition it was likely to encounter. M. Challemel-Lacour continued: "It is now evident that the Tuduc is France's enemy. There is no longer any question of negotiating with him. France must now resort to fighting. M. Harmand, the French Civil Commissioner in Tonquin, will recommence treating as soon as possible after the opposition to France has been subdued. France will occupy only the Tonquin delta; she has no intention of conquering Anam. The reports of Chinese aggression are unfounded. I am able to state that pacific relations will be maintained with China. France's policy is to insure respect for her treaties. China at first objected to the occupation of Tonquin, but after the Ha-Noi affair she recognized France's right to chastise the Tuduc. If China, contrary to indications, shall follow disastrous advice, the Chamber will not hesitate energetically to defend the interests of the country." An order of the day expressing confidence in the firm and prudent policy of the Government was adopted by a vote of 371 to 82.

Li Hung Chang, the Chinese commander, has rejected the French proposals, and has referred M. Tricou, the French Ambassador, to the Foreign Board at Pekin.

It was reported on Friday that a French man-of-war had hoisted the French flag on the New Hebrides Islands. It was officially denied on Saturday.

The Comte de Chambord continued in a very precarious condition at Frohsdorff, Austria, throughout the week. On Saturday he had an affecting interview with the Comte de Paris and the Duc d'Alençon. On Tuesday, the Count, after a sleepless night, was very weak.

In the trial of the Jews at Nyiregyhaza, Hungary, on Friday, two of the prisoners, who are accused of having placed a corpse in the river with a view to passing it off as that of Esther Solymosi, the girl whom the prisoners are accused of murdering, declared that their confessions had been obtained by threats to murder them in prison. Other witnesses also testified to terrorism.

In the Spanish Chamber of Deputies on Friday Señor Moret introduced amendments to the Constitution providing for the better protection of personal rights and the sacredness of domicile, and extending religious tolerance. The Cabinet has resolved to consider the amendments.

It has been decided by the British India Government to grant the Amir of Afghanistan a large annual subsidy.

The Porte proposes to impose a tariff of 15 per cent. on articles imported for consumption, and a tariff of from 8 to 20 per cent. on other importations.

The decision of the home British Government to repudiate the proposed annexation of New Guinea to Queensland has caused discontent in that colony.

The Tea Adulteration Act of the United States has lowered the prices of that commodity in Japan. This, in conjunction with the expected shortage in the silk crop, has caused a depression in business.

"A NEW AND LIVING DEMOCRACY."

Mr. Hoadly, the Democratic candidate for the Governorship in Ohio, has made a speech opening the campaign. He is undoubtedly a man of uncommon ability and high character. He is also a man of an ardent temperament. When he was a Republican the abuses creeping into his party, especially during the Grant régime, alarmed him, and he felt it his duty to denounce them. In this respect he felt and acted as many others did. He took part in the Liberal Republican movement of 1872, but, discouraged by the nomination of Mr. Greeley, he supported General Grant for the Presidency. In this case also he acted as many others did. But he subsequently went over to the Democrats, while most of those Liberal Republicans who had supported Greeley had, by their very contact with the Democratic party, been brought to the conclusion that it might be a good club with which to punish the Republicans for their sins, but was not itself a fit instrument of reform. Mr. Hoadly, on the contrary, seems to have worked himself into the belief that the party to which he has recently attached himself is "a new and living Democracy," both able and eager to do all sorts of good things—a belief which he has loudly proclaimed in a recent letter. In this proclamation we take it for granted that he is perfectly sincere, and we wish with equal sincerity he were right; but we see good reasons to fear that he is not right, and that his sanguine expectations will be doomed to very severe and mortifying disappointment. We say this with great regret, in the face of the fact that the Democratic party will next year, in all probability, have a better chance to get possession of the national Government than it has had since 1860.

Mr. Hoadly seems to be already passing through some curious experiences. A Democratic paper in his own State publishes a letter written by him a year ago in which he denounces the spoils system, and declares himself qualifiedly for civil-service reform; but it does so with sneering comments, certainly not for the purpose of gaining votes for him, but of weakening him with his own party. He is bluntly told that what the Democratic party wants is to turn out the Republicans and distribute the spoils of office among the Democratic boys, and that no man who has any reform nonsense in his head is fit to be their leader. Mr. Hoadly may for a moment flatter himself with the delusion that this will blow over, or that he, with the support of the "better element" of the party, will be strong enough to impose his own reformatory spirit upon the organization. He will, however, not indulge in that delusion very long. Other Democratic leaders have indulged in similar delusions before him. There is ex-Senator Thurman, for instance, a very able and estimable man. When, after the crash of 1873, the struggle between paper inflation and specie resumption began, Mr. Thurman was a strong and determined hard-money man. He understood the question thoroughly. He hoped he should be able to stem the inflation craze which at that time possessed the Democratic masses, and he tried. What was the result? Instead of his being able to lift the Democratic masses up to his statesmanlike views they succeeded in dragging him down, until he yielded some vital principles to their crazy notions.

This is by no means an isolated instance. In looking round, Mr. Hoadly will find that there is one essential point of difference between the Democratic and Republican parties. There were a great many intelligent Democratic politicians who wanted to stand up for sound money, but, at least in the West, they had to deny their faith in order to remain in favor with their party. There are not a few Democratic politicians now who believe in civil-service reform, but they know already that the crowd will ruthlessly throw them aside if they stand up against the spoils system; and most of them will submit. On the other hand, there were many Republican politicians who favored paper inflation, but the sound and patriotic sense of the Republican masses soon forced them to accept the hard-money policy. There are many Republican politicians now who detest civil-service reform, but the pressure of the intelligent Republican masses has already forced them to accept the civil-service reform act, and they know that the same spirit will push on to the destruction of the spoils system.

On the Republican side the trouble comes from a number of active and influential politicians, but from the rank and file are constantly coming sound and vigorous impulses. On the Democratic side there are many able and well-meaning men among the leaders, but the trouble is with the instincts of the masses, who constantly drag down their leaders to their own level. Mr. Hoadly will soon discover that, in order to be strong with his Democratic followers, he must in some way satisfy them that he is not too good. He may permit himself to profess reformatory sentiments only if at the same time he can make the crowd understand that he is not in earnest. His talk about a "new and living Democracy" has already seriously alarmed the mass; and the speech with which he opened the campaign seems to show the effect of the alarm upon himself, for he confines himself to the liquor question, which he discusses cleverly; but there is no trace in it of that reform programme which his "new and living Democracy" is to carry out. This is to be regretted, for he must first reform the party from the bottom if he wants to carry out great reforms by means of it. At present it looks as if the first outcome of its success would be a grand spoils-debauch; and this, we presume, is not what Mr. Hoadly set out for.

IRELAND AND THE SEE OF ROME.

When the day comes, if ever it does come, on which the hidden treasures of the Vatican will be laid bare to the historian's curious eye, he will find nothing more interesting than the record of the dealings of the Holy See with Ireland. What the world already knows, what it has been able by observation and inference to conclude, as to the motives and schemes of successive pontiffs and their advisers, forms a remarkable chapter in Irish history. Whatever the causes may have been —and to a great extent they are still state secrets of the Vatican—the results are written in the varying attitudes of the Catholic priesthood, who have been always one of the most potent factors in Irish politics. The two events which have lately drawn public attention to this old matter—Mr. Errington's supposed mission, and the recent circular of the Sacred College of the Propaganda to the Irish bishops—require for their understanding a few observations on the general conditions and past history of the political situation.

Ever since Henry VIII.'s revolt against the authority of Rome, Ireland has been at once the delight and the difficulty of the Apostolic See. Her people, still three-fourths or four-fifths Catholics, as they were two centuries ago, have been exceptionally zealous Catholics, specially loyal to Rome as their spiritual head, because they had no willing allegiance to give to the temporal sovereignty of the British crown. They were valuable to the Pope in the seventeenth century, and are valuable to him even now, as a stronghold in the enemy's country, a solid Catholic mass in a Protestant kingdom. The extension of the suffrage and the popularization of the Government, throwing more power into the hands of the humbler classes, have even increased this value of late years. They can always be used with advantage against the British Government when the Pope has some cause of complaint or desires to obtain something from that Government. On the other hand, they must be used cautiously, for the Pope cannot afford to break with the British Government, which touches him in so many quarters. If he had committed himself to open hostility, or encouraged the Irish people to such a course, he would have provoked reprisals from England and brought further evils on Ireland herself. It has therefore been always the interest of the Roman Church, considered simply as a political power, to have Irish Catholicism menacing to the English Government, but not in actual conflict with it, and much skill has been needed to keep things on that footing.

Since the outbreak of the French Revolution further difficulties, and graver ones, have been added. The anti-English spirit in Ireland was formerly almost entirely religious and agrarian, the resentment of a down-trodden against a dominant creed, of a miserable peasantry against a landlord caste. But toward the close of last century a genuinely national feeling, a feeling of patriotism for Ireland as Ireland, grew up; and this feeling, seeking allies abroad, found them in revolutionary France, and repeatedly invited the landing of French troops. France was then not only anti-Catholic but anti-Christian, and the want of sympathy between Irish Catholics and the men of the Revolution was one of the reasons which prevented the French from giving any efficient aid to insurrection in Ireland. During the fifty years that followed, Irish nationalism, especially under O'Connell, largely resumed its religious character. But in the hands of the Young Ireland party it came again under non-Catholic influences. Several leaders of that party were Protestants, and the principles they preached savored of Continental revolutionism. They seemed to many pious Catholics to be the Irish counterparts of Maz-

zini and Garibaldi, of Kossuth and Louis Blanc, and were distrusted accordingly. Fenianism was a second essence of the revolutionary spirit; and when the Land League arose there was a flavor of socialism about it which repelled those who knew the Socialists of Continental Europe for the bitterest foes of the Catholic Church and of the (so-called) cause of order. The refusal to pay rent struck at Roman Catholic land-owners as much as at Protestants, and the prevalence of lawlessness appeared to threaten ecclesiastical as well as civil authority. The position of the Catholic hierarchy had thus become embarrassing. They could not associate themselves with the Nationalists, not only because it would not have been wise to assail the British Government, whose good offices they sometimes needed, but also because they were really alarmed at the progress of disorder and violence in Ireland, and at the increasing power of secret societies. Nor were these feelings merely political. As religious pastors, they saw with sorrow the spread of agrarian crime, and the corruption of the popular conscience which sympathized and protected criminals whose offences were perpetrated in the cause of the tenant or of nationalism.

These sentiments impelled them toward the side of the Government. But in many of them the hatred of England burned as strongly as it does in the Nationalist leaders. Some belonged by birth to the peasantry; most had the feelings, so natural to a Catholic priest, of resentment against the Protestant stranger who had displaced the old church as well as the old landholder. Moreover, it would have been more dangerous to oppose the national movement than to oppose the British Government. Although neither Protestantism nor infidelity spreads in Ireland, the people are no longer so obedient to the priesthood as they were in O'Connell's days. It would have been a very severe strain on their obedience to the Church to have been forbidden to support the Land League. In fact, such an order would in some districts and by many persons have been disregarded, nor would the priests themselves have been ready to communicate it to their flocks. The elder among them, the men of experience and moderation, whose ideas were formed forty or fifty years ago, when the bitterness toward England had not broken out so fiercely, and when habits of submission more generally prevailed, have not as a rule sided with the Land League, and in many cases have discouraged it. But the younger priests have mostly espoused its cause, not always openly, but so far as to let their sympathies be known. Now, even an absolute government, such as that of the Roman Catholic Church has become, cannot force the whole of its officials to a course they dislike. Their sentiments must be reckoned with, and there was further the danger of alienating the people.

In these circumstances neutrality was the easiest course for the Holy See, and neutral it has on the whole been. The Irish prelates have stood generally aloof, though a difference of sentiment has shown itself among them. The Cardinal Archbishop of Dublin has inclined to the side of order, and done his best to restrain the clergy from joining the agitators. The Archbishop of Cashel, on the other hand, has shown his sympathy with them, and gained great popularity thereby. Rome has listened to both, but, as the recently published letters show, has been influenced more by the former than the latter. In the collection of official documents just printed at Rome under the title of 'De Rebus Hiberniæ nuperrima Apostolicæ Sedis Acta,' there appear five letters. Three are from Pope Leo XIII. to the Cardinal Archbishop of Dublin, and are dated respectively January 3, 1881, August 1, 1882, and January 1, 1883. The purport of all is the same. Much sympathy is expressed for the sufferings of Ireland, and a cordial acknowledgment made of her loyalty to religion and the See of Peter. But the disorders and crimes of which the Pontiff has heard have grieved him, and he reminds the bishops of their duty to dissuade the people from joining secret societies, from a resort to violence, from pursuing lawful objects by criminal means, directing them to tranquillize the minds of their flocks, and to restrain the younger and more hot-headed ecclesiastics from taking part in public meetings. Two communications follow from the Sacred Congregation of the Propaganda to the Archbishop of Armagh, Primate of Ireland, and the other prelates of the island. The first, dated June 1, 1880, exhorts the bishops to resolve among themselves on the proper line of action in the troubles of the country, and to follow it out unanimously. The second, bearing date May 11, 1883, is the circular which has lately excited so much commotion. It begins by saying that, whatever is to be thought of Parnell (*qualecunque de Parnellio eiusque consiliis iudicium ferre libeat*), some of his followers have often disobeyed the previously-issued injunctions of the Pope by exciting men's minds and using unlawful means to attain their objects. It proceeds to distinguish between collections of money for the relief of distress and those which tend to inflame popular passions or palliate the guilt of crime, and winds up by condemning the Parnell subscription (*eam pecuniæ collectam quæ* Parnell Testimonial Fund *audit*) and forbidding ecclesiastics to advocate it. We already know how this utterance has been received in Ireland, and how little effect it seems likely to have in checking agitation or discouraging this particular subscription. But it bears witness to the sincerity of the Papal court, as the previous letters do to its consistency. They show that since the situation became grave in the year 1880 the attitude of Rome has been the same, although her deliverances are now somewhat more explicit. She abstained at first from condemning particular acts, as she still does from condemning particular persons by name. But she has all along disliked the violence of the agitation, and particularly the secret societies and the recourse to criminal methods.

This is so natural an attitude for the Pope, both as the potentate whom revolution has attacked and as the chief pastor of Christendom, that it is hardly necessary to suppose much persuasion to have been used by the British Government, either through Mr. Errington, or in any other way, in order to obtain his aid against revolution in Ireland. However, as one must expect in a constitutional country, a noise has been raised about Mr. Errington, and that not only by the Irish Nationalist members, but also by the Tory Opposition. The former, who are hostile to Mr. Errington personally as an Irish member who supports Mr. Gladstone's ministry, accuse him of having misrepresented the state of Ireland to the Pope, and acted as the tool of the Government for the sake of undermining their position. The latter endeavors to appeal to the Protestant sentiment of England and Scotland, which used to regard with the utmost suspicion any negotiations with the Pope. They argue that it is unworthy of an English Government to invoke the help of Rome, and ask by what concessions to Papal claims that help is being purchased. The obvious unwillingness of the Ministry to answer questions regarding Mr. Errington stimulated curiosity and suspicion, surrounding with an atmosphere of mystery what is now declared to have been all along a very simple matter. Mr. Errington was merely a Roman Catholic gentleman of high character and good social standing, who, when going to Rome two years ago, after the letters of 1880 cited above, asked the Foreign Office whether he could be of any use there. The Foreign Secretary said that if he would tell the Pope the truth about Irish affairs he would be doing a good thing, and sent him a letter recommending him as a trustworthy witness, but gave him no instructions, laid upon him no duties, offered him no recompense for any services he might of his own accord render. It is admitted that he has repeatedly given information to the Pope, but the Ministry insist that he is nowise an accredited agent. They now, however, undertake that a record shall be kept of what he does or says, and this is going some way to recognize him as having a mission. The incident is less important than it has been represented. It has not substantially injured the Government, though it has given their opponents good occasions for teasing them.

The more interesting questions remain: Have the Government made concessions to the demands of the Irish hierarchy, particularly in the matter of education (they are suspected of a design to throw the training of teachers more fully into the hands of the Roman Catholic Church); and what will be the effect of the exhortations which the Pope and the Propaganda have addressed to the Irish bishops? For the moment, it does not appear that these exhortations will weaken Mr. Parnell, or will even largely hold back those priests who sympathize with him. The Nationalist party seems strong enough to hold its own against Rome, so far as Rome has put forth her strength; and it is not likely that she will venture on any more decided condemnation.

A STRANGE STORY.

From time to time the Atlantic cable brings us scraps of news about a criminal trial going on in Hungary, at the little town of Nyiregyhaza. The defendants are several Jews, charged with having murdered a Christian girl for the purpose of obtaining her blood for

their Passover rites. The trial has caused immense excitement in that region; and the remarkable character of the charge, which is like a reminiscence of the darkest periods of the Middle Ages, the strange contradictions in the testimony, enveloping the whole case in mystery and suggesting some strange psychological puzzles, and, finally, the interest taken in it by the European press, make it a genuine *cause célèbre*.

The facts, as they appear from the "act of accusation," are as follows: At Tisza-Eszlar, a village not far from Tokay, on April 1, 1882, about the middle of the day, a Christian servant girl fourteen years old, named Esther Solymosi, was sent by her mistress to a shop in a neighboring village to get some whitewash and painters' colors. On her way back she met her sister Sophie and exchanged some words with her, but she never reached home. Her absence was remarked an hour or two afterward, and search was made for her, but she had disappeared, and has not been seen alive to this day. Some time afterward, in May, 1882, a rumor sprang up that the Jews had murdered her. It was said that Moritz Scharf, fourteen years old, the son of the keeper of the synagogue, Joseph Scharf, had made to somebody a confession to the effect that Esther had been killed by Jews in the synagogue. This caused great excitement, and the mother of Esther called upon the district magistrate, who opened an investigation about a month after the girl had disappeared. The suspected parties, as well as the boy Moritz Scharf, were put in close confinement, and the latter made the following statement: On that 1st of April the girl Esther Solymosi passed by his father's house; his father ordered him to call her into the house to arrange some candlesticks on the wardrobe, it being the Jewish Sabbath, on which the Jews do no work, and the "Sabbath woman" of the Scharf family having failed to appear. After Esther had done this she was asked by another Jew who had come in to go into the synagogue for a similar purpose. About a quarter of an hour after Esther had entered the temple he (Moritz) heard terrible cries coming from the building; he went to the door, which was locked, looked through the keyhole, and saw Esther stretched on the floor, partly undressed, two men holding her down, while another man cut her throat with a knife such as is used by Jewish butchers. Two earthen vessels were held under her throat to catch the blood; then the body was dressed again and put into the vestibule, where he saw four Jews so surrounding the body as to conceal it from his view. Thereupon he hurried into the house, telling his parents about it, but was silenced by his mother, and finally one of the Jews he had observed in the temple came in and told him to shut up the synagogue, which he did, seeing nothing of the body nor any traces of blood.

A younger brother of Moritz Scharf, Samuel, five years old, also told his story, which, however, differed in some important points from that of the older boy. According to him, their father, Joseph Scharf, had participated in the murder, and he (Samuel) and his brother Moritz had held the vessels to receive the blood. Aside from this, he said only in a general way that Esther had been murdered by his father and other Jews during a morning rehearsal of the hymns and prayers which were to be used during the Passover.

But a stranger thing was still to come. On June 18, 1882, the body of a girl was found in the river near Tisza-Eszlar, dressed in Esther's clothes, or clothes exactly like hers. This body bore no marks of violence at all. If this was really the body of Esther, the story of the murder in the synagogue was conclusively disproved. Several persons in the village recognized it as the body of Esther, but her mother and a few others did not. Of a commission of physicians examining the body, several declared that it was the body of a woman at least nineteen or twenty years old, while a commission of university professors, subsequently consulted, held that it might well be the body of a girl of fourteen. But then another most startling piece of testimony came in. Some raftsmen "confessed" that on June 7, 1882, they had been induced by a Jewish raftsman named Smilovicz, who offered them good pay, to carry a dead body which would on a certain day at a certain place be delivered to them, and that on June 11 they received that body from Smilovicz, and from a dark woman about thirty years old, apparently a Jewess, a bundle of clothes in which the body was to be dressed, while a handkerchief with some red and blue color was to be tied to its left hand. The body, so fitted out, was put in the water, where it remained several days attached to the raft. It was then produced by the raftsmen, who said that they had found it in the river. The impression made by this confession was of course that all this had been arranged by the Jews for the purpose of accounting in some other way for the disappearance of Esther, and thus disproving the murder.

Thus the case appeared in the act of accusation. The trial at once put it in a different light. The examination of the witnesses began some time ago, and was watched by the Jew-hating populace with the intensest excitement. Esther's mother testified that she knew the Jews had murdered Esther, for "God had enlightened her" on that point. The principal witness, the boy Moritz Scharf, presented a singular spectacle. He refused to testify in German, his native tongue, and spoke only Hungarian, which pleased the crowd. His testimony was given in a low voice, a singing tone, and always in exactly the same forms of expression, as if he were reading or reciting something by rote. In the cross-examination he stuck well to his story, but many questions which seemed to be unexpected to him, he did not answer at all, although they bore upon points which he should have known. He made several statements which created a great sensation. He had been told that "if he did not tell the truth, as he was telling it, he would be imprisoned for life." If he did tell the truth, as he did, "the Ministry of the Interior would take care of him." It was "part of the religious law of the Jews to kill Christian children"; he knew it, for "Catholic priests had told him so." He "hated the Jews and wanted to be a Jew no longer." He hated his father and his stepmother; he had once "thrown a knife at the latter, and was not sorry for it." He "wanted to be a Christian." His testimony has remained unsupported by any other evidence. Some women said they had heard something like a cry of distress in the neighborhood of the synagogue on the day of Esther's disappearance, but they differed about the hour, and it seemed not to have occurred to any of them to raise an alarm or even to speak about it at the time.

But it does appear that the local magistrate conducting the first examination in which Moritz Scharf's story took shape had pursued the case with the ardor of a fanatic. The public prosecutor himself, who afterward took charge of it, soon came to the conclusion that Moritz Scharf's elaborate account of the murder was an invention, pumped into the boy by constant drill, with the aid of threats and cajolery. And a recent cable despatch which speaks of the tortures inflicted upon the raftsmen to wring from them their "confession," indicates that the employment of such means was not confined to Moritz Scharf. It will not be at all surprising if the trial of the accused Jews should lead to another judicial inquiry into the attempt to fasten upon the Jews an old superstitious charge, which has pursued them for centuries, and been believed in and reiterated by the credulous and the evil-minded without a shadow of respectable evidence to substantiate it.

TWO NEW TYPES.

THE sudden development and discovery of new social types will no doubt one day be regarded as one of the marked features of our civilization. The æsthete, the dude, the masher all go to show that the nineteenth century compares very well with its predecessors in the production of types, and queer types, too, and that we may perhaps have been unduly lamenting the supposed prevalent tendency to uniformity and flatness of social tone. The latest additions made to the list are as interesting specimens of social fauna as any hitherto classified, and their development and increasing importance illustrate, if we are not mistaken, some striking tendencies of the time.

Of these the older in general recognition, if not in actual development, is the "bouncer." The bouncer's habitat is the hotel, the restaurant, and all places of public amusement managed by private owners. He cannot be recognized by any distinctive marks of dress, or conversation, or bearing, for he is in all these, perhaps, a shade quieter than those among whom he pursues his occupation; but habitués of the place are generally able to point him out. He is usually a large, or at any rate a powerful man, and he continually moves about, not listlessly or idly, but as one having a duty of some sort on his mind—not preying upon him, but giving him just that thoughtful air of authority which sits so well upon the police. The bouncer is, in fact, a policeman in all but the name, who ejects from hotels, restaurants, and places of amusement, or, in other words, "bounces," all noisy, disorderly, drunken, or otherwise objectionable persons. He is said to be, in many cases, a retired prize-fighter; in many cases, perhaps, he has no existence,

the mere name of his high office and his suspected ubiquity being enough to preserve order throughout his beat.

That the bouncer should play so important a part in American life is perhaps due to the fact that he supplies the deficiencies of the police. The police are an able, energetic, and vigilant body, but we know that, at least according to popular belief, they are apt to direct these valuable qualities into wrong channels. They are apt to club, kill, or bounce the wrong people. Feeling behind them the full power of the State, and being generally pecuniarily irresponsible, they are not afraid of exerting their authority to the utmost; and this fact, though it undoubtedly qualifies them in many respects for the performance of their duty, makes them less valuable for private purposes. A bouncer who bounced in a hotel as indiscriminately and impartially as a policeman does in case of a public disturbance, would make the house as unpopular with "guests" as the police is with the press, and this is, of course, just what it is necessary to avoid.

The quiet "bouncer" (the name is full of suggestions of noise and disturbance, strangely at variance with the usual modest demeanor of the strong, silent man who bears it) therefore supplies to the owners of all places of entertainment and amusement what the public never seem to be able to provide for themselves—an efficient and at the same time self-restrained police. The bouncer, who is the agent or servant of the proprietor, is, of course, careful in his bouncing, because erroneous or careless bouncing would lead to trouble and expense. This was shown by the bouncing case at the Fifth Avenue Hotel the other day, when a suit for assault was brought against the hotel for ejecting a guest for making a disturbance in his rooms. All the evidence introduced on the side of the hotel showed that great care and consideration had marked its whole treatment of the unfortunate guest, whom it alleged to have been drunk and uproarious; that the bouncer employed on the occasion, instead of proceeding at once to club him and his friends, and take them to the station-house, dealt with them with extreme tenderness, and even while bouncing them did it more in sorrow than in anger, much as a parent might bounce a loved but distrusted son. In fact, a true bouncer never shows anger, though he may no doubt often feel honest indignation.

A curious side-light has been thrown on the bouncer by the discovery of a different, though to a certain extent a correlated type, which is found in the large concert-rooms of a second-rate order, and is there known as the "whooper-up." The whooper-up is a female, who is employed by the proprietor in these places, not to repress disturbances, but to stimulate gayety by any and all means. As these places are not generally supplied with bouncers, and there is consequently little or no restraint in them at all, it shows how small the fund of general gayety must be that employment has to be found for persons who stimulate it by artificial means. The performances in a concert hall are generally of a character to depress the spirits of all to whom it is not a frequent place of resort; but that the spirits of the regular audience are so low as the existence of the "whooper-up" seems to imply, is a singular illustration of the decadence of animal spirits in the modern world.

The refined bouncer inhabits a different world from the reckless whooper-up. It is hardly possible to conceive of one invading the habitat of the other; for where bouncing begins whooping-up must end, and vice versa. Both types of course inhabit a social stratum below that of good society; the whooper-up at the greater remove of the two. And yet who can say, as extremes sometimes meet, that a place may not be found in course of time for the whooper-up at balls and dinners? Confessedly the tone of spirits in society is low, and the appearance of the dude tends if anything to make it lower than ever. There might be such a thing as refined whooping-up introduced as a corrective of this acknowledged defect, and something of the sort was actually suggested, either as a hoax or seriously, in the (old) *World* a few years ago—employment being offered to accomplished persons of either sex, who would let themselves out for the purpose of enlivening parties and dinners at $10 a head. Of bouncers, of course, society has no need. Bouncing is a thing that every host does best for himself, and is, indeed, the most sacred and jealously-guarded right derived from and dependent upon the obligations of hospitality.

THE VALLEY OF THE JAMES.

NATURAL BRIDGE, June 28, 1883.

FOR a generation or two after the close of the Revolutionary war the Natural Bridge in Virginia was coupled with Niagara as forming together twin wonders of the continent. Since that time its fame has been both positively and relatively declining, but the low-water mark seems to have been reached at last. Until the discovery of the Yosemite and the Yellowstone, its relative importance was unchanged, and its decline in reputation must be accounted for by accidental reasons—chiefly, its inaccessibility. Railways made Niagara a way-station between many large cities; the Natural Bridge was at a considerable distance from a petty line of railway, which itself was far away from the currents of travel, while the people of the country, themselves indifferent to the Wonder, were neither greedy of the money of strangers nor fond of their society.

But the social change, sometimes called the "revival of Virginia," which began with the close of the war, seems likely to make the Natural Bridge once more a general object of curiosity and interest. The new railway across the Alleghanies, besides fulfilling its purpose as a freight line, brings yearly to the spring and mountain region a large number of visitors from Ohio and other Western States; and other railways, also managed by non-Virginians, are developing "resorts" in an admirable manner. Nowhere, outside of 'The Sketch-book,' is a more picturesque or comfortable inn than that at Luray, built by the Philadelphia company which owns the railway and the well-advertised cave. The vale of Luray was famous for quiet beauty long before the discovery of the new "wonder," and the whole "Valley of Virginia" possesses that natural beauty common to fertile regions with a mountain background. But the road which approaches the other side of the Blue Ridge, through the valley of the James, is much more interesting, and the Natural Bridge, to my mind, more curious than even the "Caverns of Luray."

The old way of reaching the Bridge, superseded only two years ago, was by stage from Staunton (a distance of twenty miles), or by canal-boat from Lynchburg. The nearest route from the North is the latter, substituting for the canal the new railway, which bought the latter's franchise. It is the old James and Kanawha Canal, in the building of which Washington and Jefferson took such interest, and the opening of which, they expected, would give Virginia that commercial revival of which she even then stood sadly in need, and would make the State as prosperous in trade as it was in agriculture. But the canal, as they conceived it, never was opened, for it stopped at the foot of the mountains, and so missed altogether the chance of becoming a national highway. The railway goes no further, and though (while equally unprofitable) it doubtless serves the country better, I could not help a feeling of unreasoning regret as I gazed in succession at the dozen or more splendidly-built stone dams—a regret caused by any abandoned proof of man's engineering skill, whether it be a mediæval castle or a Virginian canal.

Half an hour from Lynchburg the James begins its course through the mountains, the precipitous sides of the gorge forming an admirable frame for the lovely mountain views, changing in outline at every turn of the much-winding stream. There had been heavy showers, and the peculiar red tinge of the muddy water afforded a novel element in the combination of colors—the red river, the green forest of the foreground, and the lovely bluish haze which clothes the green mountains beyond. The great dams and locks engaged my attention now in connection with the absolute bridgelessness of the river—the ease of bridge-building where such dams could be placed being obvious. A Southern acquaintance explained to us that this was because bridges were costly and the country thinly settled. But this explanation is plainly inadequate. Many parts of New England are as thinly settled and much poorer otherwise, without being destitute of bridges. I think the circumstance can be more readily understood by reference to the remark, attributed to an old-time Virginian, that every one who rode well a fine horse was essentially a gentleman, and that a man who could ride and would not, whatever other qualities he might have, was not a gentleman. The Natural Bridge stations of the Shenandoah and Alleghany railways are at the point where these roads cross, and the distance thence to the Bridge is three miles, uphill and through forest, over such a road as one dreams of in a nightmare, but meets only in Virginia—or, perhaps, in the Turkish dominions. But when the traveller reaches the cluster of clean, roomy, and hospitable inn-buildings, he remembers the jolting only as rendering food and sleep more welcome. I will say nothing about the Bridge, since we are all familiar with its outline from that early period of youth when lasting impressions were made upon our minds by what we spelled and saw in the pages of the Second or Third Reader. I may remark, however, that, whatever ideas of size or picturesqueness one may have brought with him, they probably will be more than justified.

Striking and interesting as is the Bridge, another spot, to my mind, affords far greater pleasure. This is the hill, distant about half a mile, whence one sees the lovely range of the Blue Ridge completely encircling him. I have never beheld a more beautiful mountain view. The White Mountains, relatively to the observer, are hardly higher, and their bald and ragged granite

peaks, while they inspire awe, hardly satisfy the eye that thirsts for beauty. The Alps, indeed, unite beauty with majesty, but the beauty of their snow-clad summits is altogether different. Here the eye follows, with a feeling of rest and content, softly-flowing lines of an apparently limitless range, in successive tiers, all covered from top to foot with dense forests, and suffused with the lovely haze which gives the Blue Ridge its name.

The phrase, "revival of Virginia," was constantly ringing in my ears, and made them more alive to the talk about me than they would otherwise have been. I heard no politics except uncomplimentary allusions to Mahone, and praise of the matchless oratory of Major Daniel, the defeated candidate for Governor, who was to deliver the address at Lexington. On almost every siding I saw cars loaded with elaborate farming machinery, and everywhere growing fields. There would seem to be no need of a further revival as regards agriculture; but Virginia trade, according to what I heard, is well-nigh totally destroyed through the influence of the railways, most of which have passed under the control of "foreign" corporations. The Shenandoah Valley, which is said to be the most enterprising of these, controls the Norfolk and Western, and diverts the legitimate trade of the leading Virginia seaport to Philadelphia, while the shipping facilities of Baltimore are so great as to prevent any revival of life in Alexandria. The same diminution of prosperity is said to have befallen the Virginia schools. For some years after the war the prestige of Virginia as a State and of its schools as nurseries of Southern patriotism, as well as of manliness and more or less mental culture, secured for them a throng of students from all the Southern States; but with each succeeding year this prestige, as opposed to literary and social particularism, has diminished, so that, while their literary and other excellence has not lessened, they are no longer frequented by many beyond the State. The Miller Industrial School, near Charlottesville, recently established by the will of a Lynchburg tobacco trader, is said to be a great success; and the girls' schools at Staunton, which send out agents to conduct pupils to and from their homes, after the fashion of Cook's tourists, are as prosperous as ever. W. M. G.

A SIGN OF THE TIMES IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, June 21, 1883.

ON Thursday, the 14th of June, John Bright spoke these words:

"The House of Commons, in a portion of its members, seems to me to be abandoning the character and the conduct of gentlemen as heretofore seen in that assembly. [Loud cheers.] The party of which I have spoken, in not a few of its members, appears willing to repudiate the authority of a majority of the constituencies. They know that the majority believes as the constituencies believe, and wishes to do for the constituencies what the constituencies demand; but they are determined, if it be possible, that the majority of the constituencies should fail in their efforts. [Hear, hear.] And what is worse at this moment, as you see—you do not so much see it here as it is seen in the House—they are found in alliance with an Irish rebel party [loud and long-continued cheers], the main portion of whose funds, for the purposes of agitation, come directly from the avowed enemies of England [renewed cheers], and whose oath of allegiance is broken by association with its enemies. [Cries of "Shame!"] Now, these are the men of whom I spoke, who are disregarding the wishes of the majority of the constituencies, and who, as far as possible, make it impossible to do any work for the country by debates and divisions in the House of Commons. [Cheers.] I hope that the constituencies will mark some of the men of this party [cheers], and that they will not permit Parliament to be dishonored and government enfeebled by members who claim to be, but are not, conservative and constitutional. [Cheers.] Our freedom is no longer subverted or threatened by the Crown or by a privileged aristocracy. Is the time come—I quote the words from history—is the time come to which the ancestor of Lord Salisbury referred, three hundred years ago, when he said that 'England could only be ruined by Parliament'? The great constituencies must look to this. [Hear, hear.] The ballot has given all electors freedom. On them the country must rely for the preservation of the honor and the free working of the House of Commons. [Cheers.] The reform must come, and cannot long be delayed. It must suppress the power and close the era of the men who now afflict the House, who from night to night insult the majesty of the British people. [Loud cheers.]"

No words more worthy of note have ever been addressed to the English nation by an English orator. My aim in this letter is not to criticise the language I have cited, by way either of praise or of blame, but simply to point out what seems to me the significance of utterances which, whether for good or for bad, may well mark an era in English history. Two reflections will almost force themselves on the mind of any one who studies with care the terms of mixed invective and warning in which John Bright winds up a speech that reads like a solemn appeal to the deliberate judgment of the British people.

First, the expression "rebel party" is something much more than a piece of inconsiderate invective: it is a blow struck at his foes by a man who knows how to hit hard, and knows perfectly well when the stroke goes home. It is the sign—one may almost say it is the commencement—of an "irrepressible conflict." It sounds like a defiance hurled by the leader of the English democracy against politicians who, in his judgment, are disloyal to the country. Nothing, it must be added, in the speaker's so-called explanations in the House of Commons, takes off from the effect of his words. To the "rebel party" he makes no apology whatever. He explains, indeed, that he was quite aware that the term applies, as it was meant to apply, only to a small body among the Irish members; he avows his readiness to apologize to any among the Home-Rulers who are ready formally to disavow the charge made against them; but when this challenge meets with no answer better than merely irrelevant taunts directed against the man by whom it was made, Bright utters not a word of explanation or retractation. The weightiest speaker among living Englishmen, the most trusted among English democratic statesmen, has deliberately denounced the manœuvres of the "Irish rebel party"; and, what is fully as noteworthy as the language itself, the denunciation has been received in an assembly of democrats, in the most democratic town of England, with "loud and long-continued cheers."

This is a fact which, whether we like it or dislike it, every wise man must lay to heart. To treat such a fact as a trivial incident of slight import is simple folly. The importance of Mr. Bright's denunciations, and of the manner in which they have been received, lies in this, that the world thereby obtains, almost for the first time, a glimpse at the sentiment among the masses as to the relation between England and Ireland. Bright, it is true, is old; he may have ceased to understand his supporters; his words, therefore, may express sentiments peculiar to himself. It is, however, the height of rashness to assume that the hero whom all the democracy of Birmingham have honored for a week with honors such as have never been bestowed on any other private citizen, is out of sympathy with the followers who have met together in thousands to testify their confidence and admiration. The far more probable supposition is that the voice of Bright is the voice of Birmingham, and that the voice of Birmingham is the voice of the British people. But if this be so, the inference inevitably follows that the English democracy are not prepared (for the moment at least) to look with calmness or indifference on the manœuvres of a party who are supplied with funds by the avowed enemies of England. Let this once be clearly ascertained, and every sensible man's whole forecast as to the future of English politics will be influenced by his knowledge of the feeling entertained by the British electorate; and this for two reasons, which, like most of the considerations that lie at the bottom of human actions, are more often felt than expressed in words.

The first is that, in the present state of the world, no fundamental change can be effected in the political relations between England and Ireland, such, for example, as the concession of Home Rule, or the establishment of Irish independence, except by the will, or at any rate with the consent, of the majority of the British people. Successful rebellion, or the armed intervention of any foreign Power, is at the present moment out of the question. The policy of the Home-Rulers and of the Land League is almost an admission that this is so. The English democracy may conceivably be induced to assent to the demands of Mr. Parnell by appeals to justice, to self-interest, to sentiment, or even to the weariness generated by a long contest. But without the consent of the British people the policy of the Home-Rulers can never be carried out. The reception of Mr. Bright's denunciations inevitably suggests that this consent cannot be obtained. The second reason which makes the knowledge of popular sentiment all-important is, that there undoubtedly prevails among many Liberals, as also among many Conservatives, an idea that the democracy, which is, in the last resort, the sovereign power in England, is more or less indifferent to considerations of imperial, or even of national, power and greatness. No one who has observed recent events, or who has kept his ears open to the conversation of his friends and acquaintances, can doubt the prevalence of this notion. The conviction that the notion is unfounded, if unfounded it be, would, I am convinced, modify the whole tone of political life. Are the sentiments of democratic electors imbued with what may be called political Quakerism? This is an inquiry of supreme importance. Nothing has happened more suggestive of a negative answer than the applause with which Birmingham has greeted the denunciation of the rebel party by the Quaker orator.

Secondly, John Bright calls upon the large constituencies to take up a new attitude toward the House of Commons. Is England, he in effect asks, to be ruined by her Parliament? And the answer more than suggested is, that Parliamentary factions will ruin the country unless the people of England are prepared to control the action of Parliament. No one can fancy that this warning will go unheeded. Observers of every shade of politics have noted for years a decline in the prestige and influence of the House of Commons. Liberals and Conservatives alike have, by their actions even more than by their words, testified to the conviction that the electors—especially the electors of the great constituencies—are now, far more truly than fifty or thirty or even twenty years ago, the rulers of England. Add to this, that the existence of a third party, with objects which are, to speak in the mildest terms, different from the aims pursued by English Conservatives and Liberals, greatly adds to the danger that the House of Commons may become a prey to faction. We may therefore safely conclude that the course of policy suggested by the most influential democrat of the day will commend itself to large

numbers of the English people. The House of Commons has, from the force of circumstances, concentrated in itself all the powers of the state. It has become almost a part of the executive. It is, therefore, both natural and right that the people should look to the action of the House with something of the care and jealousy which have hitherto been devoted to watching the action of the sovereign or of the executive. The truth, indeed, is, that at the present moment the Cabinet (as one of its members has intimated) represents the feeling of the people more truly than does the House of Commons. This phenomenon, which might easily be accounted for by examining into the mechanism and working of the English Constitution, is likely enough to recur. In any case the mass of the electors are almost certain to keep their eyes fixed on the conduct of the House, and the result of the debate on Monday night is an indirect acknowledgment that the House of Commons recognizes a change in the relation between itself and the electors. Every one must have felt, though nobody openly said, that the idea of Parliamentary privilege, in the sense in which the term was used by Sir Stafford Northcote, was out of date. The electors who appoint have clearly a right to criticise their representatives; but criticism of an agent implies the right to receive an account, even an unfavorable account, of his conduct. From the old theory that the House of Commons was placed above criticism, the natural result followed that to report a debate was a breach of privilege. When the press can both report debates and criticise debaters, it is little less than ridiculous to maintain that a member may not state freely to his constituents his opinion about the assembly in which they are represented. The majority who acquitted Mr. Bright on the charge of breach of privilege acted with that sound sense which in general characterizes English politicians; but they probably did not quite realize the whole bearing of their action. They tacitly admitted the sovereignty of the people.

A speech which contains the denunciation of a "rebel party," and which calls on the democracy of England to suppress the power of the men who from night to night insult the majesty of the British people, may be just or unjust, wise or unwise; but when delivered by a man such as John Bright, to a constituency such as that of Birmingham, is assuredly, whether for good or bad, a noteworthy sign of the times.

A. V. Dicey.

LAST YEARS OF MME. D'ÉPINAY.—I.

Paris, June 24, 1883.

The authors of 'La Jeunesse de Madame d'Épinay,' MM. Lucien Perey and Gaston Maugras, have been encouraged by the success of their work, and they now give us the 'Dernières Années de Madame d'Épinay.' The 'Memoirs' of Mme. d'Épinay, which are well known, end in the year 1763; they had not been completely printed. The Library of the Arsenal has the end of them. The manuscript, divided into small *cahiers*, tied with blue silk strings, was stolen in the year 1793 from Grimm's house, and this explains how one part is now at the Archives, the other at the Arsenal. After the year 1763, which marks the end of the 'Memoirs,' the only documents are the letters preserved by the family, the correspondence of Grimm and Mme. d'Épinay, her letters to her son, the correspondence of Diderot and Mlle. Voland, etc. MM. Perey and Maugras have thus been able to follow Mme. d'Épinay, so to speak, day by day up to the time of her death.

After six months of marriage, Mme. d'Épinay had been publicly abandoned by her husband, sacrificed to vulgar mistresses. She heard all her society profess the doctrine of free love and free choice; the philosophers, who were her friends, had invented a new code of morality; she succumbed, and became the "friend" of Francueil. Three years after, Francueil betrayed her, and Grimm became his successor. She was no longer rich; her husband had ruined her. She had for herself and her children only 16,000 livres a year. She was ill, and she resolved to go to Geneva and place herself under the care of the famous Tronchin. She left Paris on the 30th of October, 1757, and nearly died on the road at Châtillon, between Nantua and Bellegarde, in a miserable inn. The crisis at Châtillon was fortunately of short duration, and she was able to get to Geneva. Voltaire was waiting for her, and asked her to dine with him, but she declined his offer. "I was too tired," she says in a letter, "and besides, having two days before, at Châtillon, made my confession and received the communion, I did not think it proper to dine so soon with Voltaire." Mme. d'Épinay had preserved religious sentiments in the midst of her philosophical society.

M. d'Épinay, who had conducted his wife to Geneva, left her immediately; not before having dined with his wife at Voltaire's. The religious scruples of Mme. d'Épinay had not lasted any longer than the fatigue of her journey. In fact, she soon became intimate with Voltaire, and this is the style of their *billets*. Voltaire writes to her: "I ask to-day the privilege of my *robe de chambre*. Let each one be dressed according to his deserts. Mme. d'Épinay must have her hair done up by the Graces, and I need a night-cap." Mme. d'Épinay had quite enough *esprit* to meet Voltaire in his own style. She describes, in her letters to Grimm, the Genevese society. Speaking of the clubs, she says: "The gentlemen exhaust themselves in conjectures and discoveries on the views and projects of the potentates, and when the event does not confirm their conjectures, they are no less satisfied for having found out in their wisdom not what such and such a Power has done, but what it ought to have done." She praises the virtue, the honesty, the simplicity which are the basis of their policy—"all that," she says, "is spread over with a little varnish of pedantry, which is necessary with them to preserve their simplicity." Here is the description of the niece of Voltaire: "His niece is a roly-poly little fat woman, fifty years old, very feminine, ugly and good; lying unconsciously and without any bad motive; without wit, yet seeming witty; screaming; deciding, versifying, reasoning, unreasoning. . . . Voltaire likes her, laughs at her, and respects her."

Mme. d'Épinay fell ill again after a while, and Grimm went to see her at Geneva. He wrote to Diderot, March, 1759: "The excess of weakness in which I found her is inconceivable; it is evident to me that if she had not come here she would not now be alive." Meanwhile M. d'Épinay was ruining himself entirely. It is very characteristic of the time that he allowed Grimm to give him advice, to scold him, to reproach him for his absurd prodigalities—the diamonds, the hôtels which he gave to the "*petites Verrière*." M. d'Épinay was deprived of half his revenue as farmer-general, after some modification made in the farming of the taxes. He informs his wife of it; he tells her that he loses 60,000 livres of income. "I have made considerable retrenchment already; I have given up my box at the opera, and sold half my horses. . . . A thousand compliments to M. Grimm." Mme. d'Épinay answers him that the retrenchment of the box at the opera is not enough: what he must reform is his own conduct. He accepts her reproaches, and defends himself in this extraordinary and almost incredible way: "You will understand that, in my present situation, I have been obliged to curtail expenses which, by contributing to the pleasure and the comfort of Mlle. Verrière, to whom I owe much friendship, procured for me amusements which I found more delightful than anywhere else, as I felt them with more liberty and was their first author. I thought it best to disclose to her my situation. She was much touched by it; and I must say in justice that her first movement was to offer me her diamonds and her jewels. My first movement was to refuse." Then he confesses that on reflection, being in need of money, he accepted the offer of Mlle. Verrière, to the amount of 40,000 livres, on which he engaged to pay her, during her lifetime, 10 per cent. He adds that he had, two years before, given her already an annuity of 6,000 livres. He then enters into all sorts of details about the demoiselles Verrière, and promises not to go to any further expense for them; he will only pay the two charges he mentions. It is easy to imagine that love is in such a case not much after a *liaison* of eight or nine years; but friendship, he says, subsists—he almost says gratitude; he has found in the demoiselles Verrière amiable and estimable qualities. In short, he will live as he did before, and change nothing in his plan of life; he only pledges himself to behave in such a way that his children will have no reproaches to make him.

This letter of d'Épinay's is a sort of masterpiece. It is quite clear that it was idle to hope anything from such unconscious depravity, such reasoning madness. Mme. d'Épinay merely answered "that she did not wish to diminish the merit of the *sacrifices* of Mlle. Verrière, but she thought M. d'Épinay would never find it difficult to exchange diamonds for annuities, especially at 10 per cent., and on a head twenty years old." She only becomes angry when M. d'Épinay tells her to send her son back to Paris, where, he says, his education will cost less. "You ask me to send my son back to Paris. I would rather sell my shirt than let him go before I do." M. d'Épinay was borrowing money from his own servants, but gave at the same moment great fêtes at Épinay. Here is a delightful *trait* of his: "I cannot help noticing the passage in which you say that I pay 10,000 livres to Mlle. Verrière by way of annuity. It is quite true that I owe them to her, but not that I pay them."

Grimm remained eight months in Geneva; he liked its society, the de Saussures, the de Lucs, Mallet, Tronchin; he was on good terms with Voltaire, who was a great power in the eighteenth century. Grimm was eminently practical. While he was in Geneva he was named minister to Paris of the free city of Frankfort; he resolved at once to return to Paris. "My tender friend," he said to Mme. d'Épinay, "we must fulfil our vocation. Yours is not to live retired and solitary with me. We ought to give each other only the moments which our duties leave us. The happiness which we have enjoyed for six months was unforeseen; it is a gift of heaven for which we ought to be grateful—a happy epoch in our lives; but we should be guilty to complain of its short duration, as our duties call us elsewhere." Poor Mme. d'Épinay, who was all flame and passion, had to content herself with this dutiful and calculating lover. Grimm was a type, and very different from the people in the midst of whom he lived. He had to make a career, a fortune. He had talent, good sense, ability, and not much heart. He was a safe friend, and it is not to be wondered at if Mme. d'Épinay, a weak and often irrational woman, took refuge in his cold and ponderous friendship.

Mme. d'Épinay left Geneva in company with

Grimm. In Paris she felt free to compose her salon at her leisure and as she pleased, and she succeeded in conquering Diderot, who was a great friend of Grimm's, but who had hitherto shown no desire to make her acquaintance. Diderot soon became one of her *intimes*. In reality, the new salon of Mme. d'Épinay was composed by Grimm, who showed in this circumstance his usual tyrannical rigor: he admitted Saurin (who is now forgotten, the author of a bad "Spartacus"), Suard, Sedaine, Raynal, Damilaville. The Abbé Galiani became a member of the circle, and soon one of the most active and important.

The affairs of M. d'Épinay were in such disorder that, at the beginning of 1762, he lost his place as farmer-general. He had debts to nearly a million of livres. Mme. d'Épinay resolved at once to let the château of the Chevrette, which was too expensive for her, and to take a modest country house at La Briche. She retired to a small house in a faubourg of Paris with her old mother and her daughter Pauline. Her son Louis went to the house of his uncle, M. de la Briche. To do her justice, she was very indifferent to pecuniary considerations, and was quite satisfied to live with her mother and her children on a small income of 8,000 livres, which was left her. M. d'Épinay, who was the cause of all her misfortunes, quite disapproved such radical reforms, and complained of them; he said that it would not be possible to go and see Mme. d'Épinay in her new house. Poor man! he said that such conduct would completely ruin *his* credit. "I shall never forgive her in my life."

Mme. d'Épinay received proofs of the universal interest which her reverses inspired; all the people she had known or even once seen called upon her, except Duclos, the brutal Duclos, and Rousseau. All Geneva wrote her letters, with the kindest offers of hospitality. Grimm took lodgings at once in the neigbborhood of Mme. d'Épinay's new abode. Mme. d'Epinay felt almost happy in her new establishment: "If you knew how pretty it is: a small house between court and garden, a good air, a fine view. Our table is frugal, but cleanly served, and we can receive one or two friends a day."

Correspondence.

PROSPECTS FOR REVENUE REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in your issue of June 28 on "The Ohio Democrats" is, in the main, a just arraignment of their evasive, double faced platform. In implying, however, that it will be exactly equal, as regards revenue reform, whether Judge Hoadly or Judge Foraker becomes the next Governor, you do not, it seems to me, render exact justice to the good cause of reform. National and State politics are now very closely related; events in the latter field are quickly interpreted in terms of the former, and, since the next Presidential election is certain to be affected by the State elections of this year, it is fairer, in determining the status of the two parties in regard to revenue reform, to examine each from a national or Congressional rather than from a State point of view.

The Democratic platform just adopted in this State is truly an unsatisfactory document to all who wish for real instead of sham issues. In that respect it resembles party platforms in general, which, stripped of their verbiage and vaporing, are as weak and vague in affirmation as they are strong in negation. Principles, even when clearly stated, are often used in the most Pickwickian sense, carrying no obligation, and forgotten the moment victory is attained, or even abandoned under the fire of the Opposition before the day of election. The tariff-for-revenue-only plank in the platform of the last Democratic National Convention, and the repeated declarations of Republican platforms in favor of civil-service reform, are instances in point familiar to every one. Party government can only attain real efficiency and dignity when parties feel compelled to carry out *after* election the promises made *beforehand*. The state of opinion among the Democrats of this State in regard to the tariff is as yet unsettled. There is a general tendency toward reform, with a strong undercurrent in favor of protection. Frank Hurd, however, made a notable success of his free-trade canvass in the Toledo District last year, and, in fact, the Democratic success in all thirteen districts was achieved in the face of more or less direct assault by protective-tariff men.

The Forty-eighth Congress will certainly contain more revenue reformers than any Congress since the war, and the bulk are Democrats. The preliminary contest for the Speakership continues to rage, and the result (which cannot safely be predicted) will, of course, very largely determine subsequent action or inaction. Yet, whatever the result, it is certain that the non-reformer, Mr. Randall, will meet with formidable competitors in the pronounced reformers, Messrs. Carlisle and Cox. That the Republican party is irrevocably committed to the protective-tariff policy, is shown by the unanimity of their resolutions and platforms and the uncompromising attitude of their leaders. Senator Sherman has recently repeated his declaration of last autumn, that the party must stand or fall with this doctrine—that issues are joined upon it. The Republican party contains a small and very able, but considerably disregarded, minority, who insist upon revenue reform. The Democratic party contains a strong and growing minority—possibly a majority—who insist upon the same policy. The coming session of Congress will to a large extent determine whether the Democrats can be expected to effect any reform of the tariff. If they fail, then the out-and-out tariff-for-revenue-only party, of which the Detroit Conference was somewhat prophetic, may become an imperative need. Such a party ought to unite the reform wings of both existing parties. Pending that possibility, those who consider the tariff question the only vital issue now before the country may at least find less discouragement in Democratic than in Republican triumphs. F. C. E.

Columbus, O., July 2, 1883.

EDUCATION IN THE COLONY OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Touching Mr. McMaster's statement, that "in the Southern States education was almost wholly neglected, but nowhere to such an extent as in South Carolina. . . . In that colony prior to 1730 no such thing as a grammar-school existed," I beg leave to call your attention to the "Act for Founding and Erecting of a Free School in Charlestown, for the Use of the Inhabitants of the Province of South Carolina." This act was passed on the 12th day of December, 1712, and is to be found in the 'Laws of the British Plantations in America, relating to the Church and Clergy, Religion and Learning. Collected in one volume, by Nicholas Trott, LL.D., Chief-Justice of the Province of South Carolina. London, 1721.' This act covers nine folio pages, and in the 24th and last section repeals an "Act for the Founding and Erecting of a Free-School for the Use of the Inhabitants of South Carolina, ratified in open Assembly the 8th day of April, Anno Domini 1710." A copy of the laws here cited, once the property of Mr. George Brinley, is now in the Pennsylvania State Library.—Yours respectfully,

Charles J. Little.

State Library, Harrisburg, Pa., July 6, 1883.

PHONETIC ASSIMILATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having found that illustrations of linguistic laws are usually impressive in indirect ratio to their chronological distance, it seems worth while to call attention to a very recent instance of assimilation. I have noticed that children and uneducated persons almost invariably pronounce telephone telephome, assimilating the dental (cerebral) *n* to the preceding labial sound.—Yours very truly,

T. B. Lindsay.

Boston University, Boston, July 2, 1883.

JARVES'S ITALIAN RAMBLES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Mr. Jarves's 'Italian Rambles,' the reviewer, *me judice*, puts far too much value on Mr. Jarves's opinions on art matters. His imagination is far greater than his acumen, and it is no service to art or art-archæology to allow his conclusions to pass into matters of faith. His "two busts in terracotta" are not supposed by any authority in Florence to be what Mr. Jarves believes them to be. Were they so, their value in art-history would be very great; as it is, they have acquired no importance here.

Mr. Jarves's power of distinguishing the old from modern imitation is curiously small. As an instance, I may say that he brought me one day what he regarded as a most important discovery—"a bronze repoussé bust of Michael Angelo, without doubt contemporary, and hitherto unknown." On looking at it, I found it to be a simple electrotype, without the slightest effort to disguise the fact. Mr. Jarves's great discoveries are proverbial in Florence, and his amiability and willingness to be advised by those who do know make connoisseurs willing to correct his mistakes; but it would be too much to allow his unconfirmed attributions to become settled in America as facts, or allow his opinions in art, unsupported, to acquire an authority to which they have never been entitled, and which must mislead a public opinion which the *Nation* has as a function to correct. The phrase, "Mr. Jarves's well-known artistic insight," used by your reviewer, conveys an impression quite the reverse of that which is held by the artistic world here, without, so far as I know, a valid exception, whether among dealers, amateurs, or connoisseurs.

It is not pleasant to have to say such things, but if art and art education in our country are of any consequence, it is important that people who have no knowledge should not acquire authority; and Mr. Jarves has been a long time in the field, doing, may be, not much harm, but certainly no good, by his writings, whatever he may have done by his assiduity in collecting.

Yours truly, W. J. S.

Florence, June 20, 1883.

GERMAN PROFESSORS AND THEIR PAY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have had repeated discussions with a German professor who had read your leader upon "The Real Weakness of American Universities," and I have had a rather hard time of it,

I assure you. Being a professor in a small college myself, with a small salary, I was inclined to agree with you; but having some doubts then in my deepest inmost, as the Germans say, as to the unselfishness of my opinion, I am thoroughly convinced now that you underrate the great advantages of the position of a German professor, and that the influence of your remarks is very bad upon young Americans.

As to the first point, a German professor is not so poor as is generally made out. My friend was very much disgusted. Professor A., at "So and So," has an income of 36,000 marks ($9,000), made up of his salary and doctor and lecture fees. When one receives a call to another university, it is accompanied by a raising of his salary. If his own university wants to keep him, they give him a "Zulage," and he will very likely stay. A professor's position is for life. No president, no trustees, no king, no minister, even, can remove him if he leaves politics alone. Thus, Professor B. at C. has not "read" in three semesters. He is threatened with softening of the brain; but he is not made to resign, and if he were he has his pension, and it would be no great hardship. I know of a professor who has been in ill health for twelve years. He has lectured now and then; his department is at the lowest ebb, but the Prussian Government does not remove him. If a professor dies, his family receives a pension, small, to be sure; but, as you say, plain living is the thing, and a professor or his widow suffers no more from that than any other Government officer.

But the greatest boon of his position is the glorious "Lehrfreiheit": the liberty to teach and to publish what he pleases—politics again excepted. This "Lehrfreiheit" is the cornerstone of the German University, the pride of princes and people. I do not wonder at all that two German professors refused calls to America at four or five times the salaries they now have. I asked a *Privat-docent* once, "Would you accept such a call?" Then he began to calculate: "Professor A. must soon resign, he has been ill so long. Professor D. has just died. The position at E. is not yet filled. *Das müsste man doch erst mal abwarten.*" This man gets 1,200 marks a year for conducting a seminary and gets about 500 marks in lecture fees. But think of what he is striving for—a Government office for life, an income as good as any official's, with a pension; a position of high social rank, liberty of teaching, long vacations, now and then a stipendium for travel, and better bargains with his publishers. There is no doubt a *Privat-docent's* career is a hard one; it ought to be; but this self-denial, poverty, and asceticism of the German professor "ist nicht weit her." What is remarkable in his career is this—and it should be held up as a shining light to our professors and students—that when the *Privat-docent* has become professor he does not lose what your correspondent "N. N." has forcibly called "the grit of spontaneous scholarship."

Depend upon it, a German professor is human. There are even professors in Germany who, instead of being martyrs to the cause of science, are selfish, lazy men, who do not do their duty. But they are the exception, to the great credit of German character. Here is one who "reads" as little as possible, or reads what costs him the least trouble. There is one who treats his work as if it were a year's vacation interrupted by lectures. One gets a travelling stipend, but instead of going during vacation, he goes when his lectures should begin, and stays away till the next vacation, etc. No; the German professor is neither a monk, nor a soldier, nor a saint, and it is perfectly safe to hold him up as an example to Americans in every respect, even in salary, and most of all in his devotion to science and in the difficulty of attaining his position. There lies the rub with us. For you to say that the real weakness of American universities lies in the low salary of the professor, in the unattractiveness of his position, amounts to this: Increase the salary of Government officials and never mind civil-service reform. Ask a president of an institution how many applications he receives for positions. There are too many candidates and too many of the wrong sort, who have no idea what a professorship means, who are no specialists. A certain president received an application from a candidate who was prepared for any department, but preferred the professorship of chemistry. If he could not have that, he would be satisfied with a janitorship.

But this is not to be wondered at. Our college system, "the good old college course," disregards that "one prudence in life," as Emerson calls it, viz., concentration, and leads to "the one evil, dissipation; and it makes no difference whether our dissipations are coarse or fine." The course is too long. University work is begun too late. Again, the question is one of supply and demand. A year ago I was asked by a college president if I could recommend a young man for the department of Latin, but he must belong to a certain branch of the church. I have heard of one call from the West for a professor who must have a good voice to lead the singing in prayer-meeting. The College of —— refused a certain candidate who had studied three or four years abroad, and was a trained specialist, because he would not promise to take his turn in conducting morning prayers. They wanted a "Christian," as they call it, and took a clergyman. The changing of departments is very frequent. You hear of a gentleman as a professor of Greek at one institution, as a professor of Latin at another, and, as a compromise (?), as a professor of English at another. Young men come abroad, travel in Germany, in France, in Italy, in Spain, and suddenly turn up elsewhere as professors of the languages of these countries. It is said that Yale College nominates several of the best scholars of a graduating class to be tutors. They may accept the position or not, and they may teach in whatever department needs help if they do accept. I showed a German professor the announcements of a professor of German at a certain college, which were as follows: Comparative grammar of the Romance languages and instruction in each language of the group; further, comparative grammar of the Teutonic languages, instruction in German, Dutch (?), Danish, and Icelandic. At last, lectures upon foreign literatures. My friend raised up his hands in horror and exclaimed: "Welche Vielseitigkeit! Welche Vielseitigkeit! Ist so etwas möglich?" Well, it is true, where such appointments are possible and where a professor is allowed to make such announcements in an official catalogue, there is something radically wrong in the educational system of the country. Harvard and Johns Hopkins Universities have within the last few years exercised a very healthy influence by making careful and deliberate appointments and more in accordance with German ideas, but everywhere else the presidents and trustees consider a university training—*i. e.*, a specialist's training—as a secondary matter. The question is generally: Is he Jew or Gentile? is he a graduate of our college? is he a clergyman? and what not. I believe it is not the low salaries paid that keep talent from devoting itself to the professor's calling, but such a state of things as I have described, and in that lies the real weakness of our universities. Why should a man who has the means, go to the expense of a specialist's preparation such as he could get in Baltimore, or Cambridge, or Germany, when the prospects of an appointment are so poor? The chairs are not at all numerous, but candidates are plenty.

LEHRFREIHEIT.

FREIBURG, June 17, 1883.

A NEW VIEW OF THE MEDICAL CODE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am greatly surprised that a journal usually so quick to grasp the vital factors of every question can be so blinded by partisanship as to take the position the *Nation* does in its last issue, regarding the liability of physicians and surgeons for declining to render services when called on, even in cases of life and death. The opinion used to prevail among the ignorant classes here that, as to the general public, the medical man was obliged to respond to every demand on his services or stand a lawsuit; some made the attempt, but ignominiously failed. The physician owes the general public no more than any other citizen, be he merchant, manufacturer, or priest, and not so much as a lawyer, who is an officer of the court, and may be assigned to defend a case. If, in the case of the Wisconsin surgeon, he was the only one capable of doing what was needed in the case, he, and he only, was the proper one to operate, to conduct the after-treatment, judge of the propriety of counsel and the fitness of counsel. By your very premises you state that the family practitioner was not a surgeon, and not competent to do what was necessary, and yet you apparently regard the surgeon as inhuman because he would not be trammelled by a man who could not do what he himself could for the case, and whose medical practice, if sincere, is founded on dogmas positively preventing any agreement. If the surgeon is worthy of the slightest responsibility in such a case, he should have absolute control of its treatment and the right to name his associates.

You have only blame for the man equal to the case mentioned, but none at all for the man who, self-confessedly incompetent, would not throw up his connection with the case. The inhumanity lies with the practitioner who knew he could not render the needed services, but who tenaciously held to a connection with the case he had not the skill to treat; and with the parents, who, by their partisanship, wished to trammel the only capable man by forcing upon him this self-confessed incompetent as an adviser. As to the liability to an indictment for manslaughter in the event of a fatal termination to a case such as you mention, I beg leave to differ from the *Herald* and the *Nation;* and I hold that every practitioner has a moral and legal right to decline to render his professional services. The only persons to whom a practitioner owes any professional obligations are his loyal, confiding patients; those who rest on his skill, integrity, and sympathy; those who, by their friendship, love, and loyalty have helped him to fight the battle against competition, chicanery, and ignorance. To these, rich or poor, every true physician will gladly render his best skill. To others he owes absolutely nothing, so far as his professional capacity is concerned. The fact is, the public prefers to have all the obligations and self-sacrifices on the side of the physician; it wants the privilege of decrying his professional skill and his moral character, and of building up his rivals; but when the latter are unequal to any situation, they also want him to answer without any hesitation the summons of those whose whole previous course has been to injure him, and be grateful for the opportunity, or to run the risk of an indictment for manslaughter. If a few cases in each community in which the

irregular or incompetent are unequal to the situation are allowed to die for want of the care and counsel of competent physicians, society will put itself in the hands of competent men. And as to the case you have chosen as a text, it is quite sure that in that vicinity future cases of fractured skull will be put in the hands of some one else than of the homœopath "who could not give the needed surgical care." If the strong men in the profession should thus treat the weaklings and knaves of every school, the weaklings and knaves would go to the wall, and a few funerals be the saving of many to society.

Very truly,

WM. WOTKYNS SEYMOUR, M.D. (Harv).

TROY, June 28, 1883.

Notes.

THE extraordinary features of the year 1882 make the 'Annual Register' just issued for that period (London: Rivingtons) certain to be consulted frequently hereafter. The Irish troubles, with Mr. Forster's resignation, the "Kilmainham Treaty," and the Dublin murders; the war in Egypt; the downfall and death of Gambetta; the electoral-reform and oaths' bills in Italy; the anti-Mormon and anti-Chinese legislation in the United States—such are some of the permanent landmarks of history. The obituary record is no less shining. What is noticeable here is, that the Americans seem to have been commemorated by their own countrymen—a liberal and on some accounts a wise policy for the editors. We remark that the space allotted to Emerson considerably exceeds that for Darwin; Garibaldi and after him Gambetta being the most favored in this respect. There are the usual running review of literature, science, and art; daily chronicle of events; and English statistics.

Columbia College has issued a "Circular of Information" in regard to the collegiate education of women and its own plan of fostering it. The first examination will be held on January 28, 1884.

The first civil-service manual which has fallen under our eye is an anonymous pamphlet called, 'Government Clerkships: How to Get One; How to Prepare for Examination' (Washington: R. Beresford). The introduction gives a summary view of the several steps leading up to the present institution of the competitive system; the rules established by the Civil-Service Commission are given at the end. In the middle are various questions based on actual examination papers, but more comprehensive than any single set, and "idiots and dunces" are warned that they "will derive no benefit from these pages" since they are the persons intended to be kept out of the service. Some useful hints to candidates complete the manual, which is commendable in spirit and in execution.

We noticed last week Mr. Wisner's Guide to the Yellowstone National Park. In the meantime we have received Dr. A. C. Peale's 'Report on the Thermal Springs' of that region, reprinted as an author's edition from Dr. Hayden's twelfth annual report (for the year 1878). This bulky volume is not well adapted for the tourist's satchel, but no party visiting the Park should be out of reach of a copy. It is in three parts, the first describing the several basins in detail, with the aid of charts and a wealth of woodcuts and lithographs, some of the latter being impressively colored to the life. Part second discusses the warm springs of the globe, and part third the science of thermo-hydrology, as Dr. Peale terms it. A bibliographical appendix covers a field as wide as the text. The bibliography of the Park itself is already very extensive.

With the growth of population the question of water supply becomes every year more serious, and there can be no question of the utility of Mr. J. J. R. Croes's 'Statistical Tables from the History and Statistics of American Water Works' (New York: *Engineering News*). An alphabetic list of towns having a public water supply satisfies curiosity as to the number of inhabitants served, the age and cost of the works, the source of supply, etc.; while another list, arranged according to population, adds further particulars as to expense, daily consumption, miles and size of pipe, meters, hydrants, etc. These tables will be revised and reissued from time to time, and will save a great deal of misdirected research.

Those who are interested in the definition of the terminal moraine of the great Northern ice-sheet, will find the glaciated area of Ohio described and delineated by Prof. G. F. Wright in the July number of the *American Journal of Science*. Roughly, the line extends from New Lisbon to Higginsport on the Ohio, in a general southwesterly direction.

The proceedings of the Court of Inquiry on the loss of the *Jeannette* have been issued from the Government Printing Office as H. of R. Exec. Doc. No. 108. They make a volume of 363 pages, illustrated with numerous diagrams and charts, including one in color of the fatal Lena delta, and a circumpolar chart based on the latest authorities, and drawn on a large scale. This last is nominally in two sheets, but only sheet No. 1 is found in our copy, and indeed is all that is needed for the story of the expedition.

In No. 104 of the Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society Dr. F. Boas has a concise and closely-reasoned paper on the former distribution of the Eskimos in the Arctic-American archipelago. He takes the ground that it is unsafe to argue from the northern remains of Eskimo settlements great climatic changes or a migration eastward. The shifting habits of this people and their dependence for food supplies on the contingencies of the seasons make it impossible to fix a boundary between ancient and modern occupation, while great uncertainty attends the determination of the age of Arctic remains. Each portion of the archipelago is discussed in detail from the works of voyagers; and on a map accompanying the article are shown the places at which Eskimo remains have been found, and the successive limits of settlement in our day from 1850.

We have received Mr. Appleton P. C. Griffin's bibliographical monograph on 'The Discovery of the Mississippi,' reprinted from the *Magazine of American History* (A. S. Barnes & Co.). This quarto pamphlet is accompanied by a reduced (but still large) colored facsimile of Joliet's map of the continent, dated 1674, and inscribed to Count Frontenac. Dr. De Costa has added a note on the subject of this map, comparing it with several earlier ones, and giving a section of Joutel's map of 1713, showing the great lakes and the Mississippi basin. Mr. Griffin deserves the thanks of all students of American history.

Two important articles distinguish the July number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*. One is Dr. Edward Shippen's "Account of the Origin of the Naval Asylum at Philadelphia," the obscure Greenwich of America. The other is Judge J. W. F. White's historic-biographical review of the "Judiciary of Allegheny County"; a paper full of interesting sketches, ending with a tabular view.

Although Mrs. Lamb, concluding in the current number of the *Magazine of American History* her series of articles on "Wall Street in History," brings the tale down to the present year, she appears to have overlooked one function of the street, as a centre for popular demonstrations. Was it not on the steps of the Sub-Treasury that Mr. N. P. Banks confessed to the bankers and merchants that he was willing under certain circumstances to "let the Union slide"? And who can forget, too, the great meeting held there on the day following the assassination of Lincoln—not to mention other similar impressive gatherings which have made Wall Street in some sort our forum?

We have received the 'Constitution, By-laws, and List of Members' of the flourishing Georgia Historical Society for the current year. It contains also the act of incorporation, which dates from 1839. The resident members number more than 400.

The third edition of the 'Alumni Record of Wesleyan University' is a marvel of completeness. There are 1,314 graduates (to the class of 1882) and 935 non-graduate alumni (to 1881). Eight hundred and thirty pages are devoted to a record of their lives, in which there are no superfluous facts and few unnecessary words. If every university and college prepared such a volume (and all colleges are probably equally interesting to their alumni, so that if the making of this record is justified, all the others ought to be made), what a collection of biographico-statistico-educational literature we should have.

The Comité d'histoire et d'archéologie du diocèse de Paris has published the first number of a bulletin in which it intends to recount the history of the diocese and the biography of the ecclesiastics, high and low, and to describe its monuments and give their history. On such a diocese a work of this kind, if well done, will be interesting.

Among interesting reprints may be counted that of the *Journal de la Belgique* for 1815. It was the organ of the Allies, and related the important occurrences of that eventful year from day to day as they appeared to observers on the spot.

M. Georges d'Heylli, who had already published nearly a dozen monographs relating more or less closely to the Comédie-Française, was led by the announcement of M. Delaunay's withdrawal from the stage to prepare a brief biography of that best and most poetic of light comedians, and this sketch fitly appeared just as M. Delaunay received the decoration of the Legion of Honor and therefore withdrew his resignation. M. Delaunay is the first actor decorated simply as an actor: M. Régnier was not so honored until he had left the stage, and M. Got's decoration, two years ago, was given rather to the professor in the Conservatory than to the actor. Doubtless it will not be long before the third great comedian of the Comédie-Française and perhaps the greatest of all—M. Coquelin—will receive also his bit of red ribbon. M. d'Heylli's sketch of M. Delaunay's career is excellent, especially in its inclusion of a complete list of parts; there is an etched portrait by Lalauze.

—Exceptional interest attaches to the July number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. We might cite Mr. F. B. Sanborn's brief showing of the brotherly relationship between Peter and John Brown of Duxbury, the former being ancestor of John Brown of Ossawattomie; or Mr. Phillimore's full account of the Garfield family of England, which ends with a tentative pedigree for our late President; or still other valuable papers. The expert, however, will turn most eagerly and with greatest satisfaction to Mr. Henry F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England." Last December we had the pleasure of commending the mission which Mr. Waters is now fulfilling by means of a fund raised by the New England Historic-Genealogical Society. He took his departure

only in May last, but already has established himself in London and sent over the first fruits of his systematic search among the English record offices for families having American connections. In this he is guided by an unsurpassed familiarity with New England records and family names, which makes his selection almost instinctive, and of course also by the evidence of American connections which the documents themselves afford. Thus it happens that in the "gleanings" first reported occur a promising number of names pertaining to Virginia and Maryland. Mr. Waters has begun work among the records of the Prerogative Court of Canterbury, Somerset House, London, and the wills he abstracts are those of Coffin, Cockerell, Kaine, Atherton, Burges, Wilcocks, Green, Williams, Beavay, Sherman, Sumpner, Mason, Baker, Hill, Pargiter, Anthony, Reade, Rand, Geere, and Parker. Each will involves other names than that of the testator, sometimes in an association which can be matched in early New England settlements. Several of the individuals just enumerated were already well known to the local historian, and the editor of the *Register* and his colleagues have annotated these abstracts in a way to make them available at once for our genealogists. Indeed, we can fancy the readers of the *Register* (who ought now to increase rapidly) scanning with all the excitement of prize-drawing in a lottery the successive batches forwarded by Mr. Waters. The enterprise is in the best sense of the term public-spirited on his part and on that of the Society, who bespeak still further support for it, as the work will occupy years. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. John Ward Dean, 18 Somerset Street, Boston. Mr. Waters's address is at the American Exchange, 449 Strand, London, and it will be remembered that his engagement permits him to undertake private searches for clients desiring his services.

—Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., has reprinted, with additions, from the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, his monograph on Sir Christopher Gardiner, Knight, one of those mysterious figures, discernible in the very dawn of New England history, who pique curiosity, but have not often lured the steady-going historian from the track of more important personages. The author of "A Chapter in Erie" has notoriously a keen eye for the picturesque in human character, and an admirable patience in following tangled clews. His success in elucidating and chronologically rectifying the obscurer settlements of Massachusetts Bay, and in enlarging our knowledge of individual actors in the early New England drama, has been so signal that an historical paper from his pen is now sure to command attention. More than that, it is sure to interest. In the case of Sir Christopher Gardiner not much, perhaps, is revealed here beyond what was known before; but the facts have been collected and arranged and discussed in an original way, and the hero is presented more vividly and consistently than ever before. His career allows full play to Mr. Adams's humor and historical imagination, especially in connection with Sir Christopher's frail partner, Mary Grove. The attraction which this couple have had for New England poets and writers of fiction—Miss Sedgwick in 'Hope Leslie,' Motley in 'Merrymount,' Whittier in 'Margaret Smith's Journal,' J. T. Adams in the 'Knight of the Golden Melice,' and Longfellow in 'Tales of a Wayside Inn'—serves Mr. Adams as an excuse (for all he thinks these performances rather droll as history) for coming under the same spell.

—Every lawyer can enjoy reading Judge Thomas Durfee's 'Gleanings from the Judicial History of Rhode Island,' which forms No. 18 of the R. I. Historical Tracts published by S. S. Rider, in Providence. The development of the judicial system in this colony was peculiar, and the judicial prerogative exercised by the Legislature almost to the present date has perhaps no parallel elsewhere. This feature of the State Constitution, if it can be so called, is much dwelt upon by Judge Durfee and is very instructive. Another singular custom, which has, with a few modern exceptions, prevailed from the beginning, is that the town councils are courts of probate. The fact that they "have satisfactorily discharged these important duties for more than two centuries testifies strongly in their favor. Doubtless a critical inspection of records would discover numerous flaws and defects, but the jurisdiction has always been exercised not only with substantial justice, but also in a kindly, helpful, neighborly spirit which has disarmed criticism." In 1729 an act was passed forbidding the election of any practising lawyer as deputy to the Legislature, but it was repealed at the next session. In 1786 the Assembly passed an act enforcing the tender of paper money, and was shocked when the Superior Court dismissed the first case on the ground of the unconstitutionality of the statute. The judges were brought to book, but stood firm, even at the cost of their places, for they were not reëlected. This annual election of judges, by the way, down to 1827, had the usual result of elevating men unlearned in the law; but great evils were probably prevented by the smallness of the population. Judge Durfee notes the change which has taken place (in consequence of the increase in population and the complexity of modern society, industries, and commercial enterprises) in the favor with which criminal practice was once regarded. He thinks it not a matter of regret that the ambitious young lawyer, seeking money rather than fame, now prefers a civil business, since thereby "guilt is surer of its desert, and innocence, now that it has acquired the privilege of testifying in its own behalf, seldom stands in any serious jeopardy." When the Circuit Court in Rhode Island was held by Judge Story (1812–1845), "Rhode Islanders even expatriated themselves [by establishing a temporary residence outside the State limits] for the privilege of suing" in his court. Judge Durfee characterizes Story, Levi Woodbury, and Benjamin R. Curtis in traits which will be recognized as faithful and discriminating. Some early *causes célèbres* are narrated, and the little pamphlet closes with a tabular list of judges of the highest court (1747–1883).

—The death week before last of Professor Stephen Alexander, of Princeton, removes almost the last representative of that circle of scientists, among whom were Henry, the elder Silliman, Bache, the elder Draper, and Strong, who began their important labors early in the present century, and to whom the science of this country is incalculably indebted. Professor Alexander was educated at Union College, and had been connected with the College of New Jersey for fifty years. He is chiefly known as a practical astronomer, and in 1860 conducted an expedition, under the auspices of the United States Coast Survey, to Labrador, to observe the total eclipse of the sun in July of that year. His published papers relate to the observation of eclipses, to comets and the small planets, to the origin of the forms and present state of some of the clusters of stars and resolvable nebulæ, published in 1851, and to certain harmonies of the solar system, published in later years by the Smithsonian Institution. This was his last paper of importance. He lived to the age of nearly seventy-seven years.

—"Mr. Henry Irving," writes a correspondent in London, "is preparing industriously for his visit to America this coming fall. To this end he is now reviving for short runs the most of the plays in which the Lyceum Company is to appear in America. At the beginning of June were given the final performances of 'Much Ado About Nothing,' a most extraordinary production, as rich, as elaborate, as artistic, and as highly sensuous a spectacle as any to be seen at the Théâtre-Français. In nothing yet done at this theatre has the histrionic ability of the very fine company with which Mr. Irving has surrounded himself been seen to better advantage than in this difficult play. It was mounted magnificently, and was acted throughout with an ease, a grace, and a spirit of true comedy not often seen on the English stage or elsewhere. After the Shaksperian comedy came a French melodrama, the 'Lyons Mail,' roughly rendered into English by Mr. Charles Reade. As a manager, Mr. Irving is seen at his best in 'Much Ado About Nothing,' but as an actor he reaches his highest point in strong, melodramatic plays like the 'Lyons Mail' and the 'Bells,' in which latter he is to make his first appearance in New York. His unfortunate mannerisms of speech and carriage interfere with our full enjoyment of his remarkable gifts in comedy, and in the higher reaches of tragedy there is felt a deficiency; but in vigorous melodrama Mr. Irving is always admirable. The wily burgomaster in the 'Bells,' and *Dubosc*, the sodden ruffian in the 'Lyons Mail,' are set before us and explained by a dozen little bits of illustrative business, all appropriate, all well thought out by the actor, and all well wrought into the whole, until the result is a wonderfully elaborate character, of an undoubted and independent vitality. The burgomaster, as his eye glances on the cord he has just taken from the sack containing his daughter's dowry, just as that cord, slipping idly through his fingers, chances to fall into a hangman's noose; and *Dubosc*, as he lies on the floor of his upper room looking down with fiendish delight on the preparations in the square below for the execution of the man whose resemblance to him is so striking that the innocent is to be killed in place of the guilty—these are two unforgetable figures: and the actor capable of putting such figures before us is plainly one of the first histrionic intelligences of our time. After the 'Lyons Mail' and the 'Bells' will be given a few performances of 'Hamlet' and the 'Merchant of Venice,' of 'Eugene Aram,' 'Charles I.,' 'Louis XI.,' and of the 'Belle's Stratagem,' in which last and rather thin comedy Miss Ellen Terry appears to the greatest advantage."

STEPHEN'S HISTORY OF THE CRIMINAL LAW OF ENGLAND.—I.

A History of the Criminal Law of England. By Sir James Fitzjames Stephen, a Judge of the High Court of Justice, Queen's Bench Division. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883. 3 vols.

Law may be considered in a twofold aspect, as a branch of history, or as a department of applied logic. The historical importance of legal studies is a discovery of modern times, revealed to Americans and Englishmen mainly through the works of Sir Henry Maine. His 'Ancient Law,' his 'Village Communities,' his 'Primitive Institutions,' and his 'Law and Custom' have done little less than open to all readers of English literature a new province of investigation. Holmes's 'Common Law,' Bigelow's 'History of Legal Procedure,' Bagehot's 'Physics and Politics,' Lyall's 'Asiatic Studies,' Leslie Stephen's 'Science of Ethics,' each show how widespread has been the influence exerted by the manner of

looking at laws and institutions which is suggested and stimulated by every line Sir Henry Maine has written. The only persons who (with the one impressive exception of Professor Stubbs) have not yet roused themselves to the conviction that the legislation of a country is as important a factor in the sum of national progress as its religion, and that English law, being the most original production of English genius, presents a side of English character which ought never to escape the notice of intelligent historians, are the writers of English history. Macaulay was a lawyer, and, when judged of by his Code, will in future ages be classed among the greatest of English jurists; but Macaulay depicted the great events which make up the annals of England without ever appreciating the fact that legal ideas and legal institutions both moulded and express the character of the race which has produced the one great legal system not grounded upon the law of Rome. Mr. Freeman, again, is intensely conscious of the fact that Englishmen are Englishmen, and have been the independent makers of their own fortune; he spares no pains to investigate the most minute problems of antiquarianism, and he has a good eye in general for the broad results of national progress. But for all this, he displays no interest in legal knowledge or study. He appears to hold that because Blackstone (following, by the way, the historians of his day) fell into gross errors as to history, English historians are morally dispensed from the duty of knowing anything about English law. Even the most versatile, the most brilliant, and the most many-sided intellect which has of recent times explored and illuminated the history of the English people, was never turned toward the connection between the legal and the social, not to speak of the religious, history of the nation. Yet one cannot doubt that if fate had spared Mr. Green to his country, a man endowed with his vivid interest in all sides of human life, gifted with his rapid and piercing insight into the striking phases of English development, and, above all, blessed with his readiness to receive truth and light from whatever quarter it might arise, would, long before his great task could have been accomplished, have fully perceived that you cannot tell completely the records of a nation of lawgivers without reference to the law of the nation.

The best excuse (such as it is) for the blindness of historians is, that the only school of lawyers which in the last generation gave signs of energy and life, approached law from the logical or analytical side, and, being immersed in schemes of reform and improvement, looked with indifference and ignorance on the study of the past. For if the historical study of law is the discovery, in England and America at least, of the present generation, the application of logic and analysis to legal rules and legal conceptions is due to Bentham, Austin, and (though the juxtaposition of names is an odd one) to Macaulay. The analytical jurists, and the utilitarianism of which they were the exponents, have bestowed inestimable benefits on the world. But their line of thought tended indirectly to discourage investigations into the past growth of existing institutions. Bentham knew little of the history of law. Austin, it is true, who knew more of Roman law than most Englishmen of his day, entered fields of knowledge unexplored by his master. But Austin's mind was unhistorical; his strength lay in that analysis of legal ideas which had so great a charm for his powerful though somewhat monotonous intellect, and we may well suspect that Austin's militant utilitarianism, which now wearies and perplexes his readers, seemed more important to himself and to his hearers than even the elaborate definition of a few leading legal terms to which is due the permanent and weighty influence among the present generation of his 'Lectures on Jurisprudence.' However this may be, it is certain that on both sides of the water the historical and the logical aspect of legal studies has, in the main, been developed by different teachers, pursuing different, and to a certain extent antagonistic, modes of thought, and that it would be hard to overrate the debt due either to the historical or to the analytical school of jurisprudence. But of recent years, more than one writer has attempted to combine in one and the same work the two methods of legal speculation. Mr. Digby's 'History of the Law of Real Property,' in which an excellent account of the antiquities of law is curiously interleaved with tables containing schemes of legal division based on the ideas of Austin; and Mr. Holmes's 'Common Law,' in which philosophical speculation becomes a sort of reverential commentary on the texts and precedents of the common law, each exhibit the tendency to combine logical analysis with historical narration. The same effort at combination of two different methods is distinctly traceable in Sir James Stephen's 'History of the Criminal Law of England.' It is at once an account of the growth of English law with regard to crime, and an elaborate disquisition on the most interesting and knotty problems of criminal jurisprudence. Of the great value which the work possesses as a contribution to the proper understanding of English history, we hope to write on a future occasion; and of the whole book, we may say at once that it is as noteworthy a product of intellectual energy as any literary work of modern times. Had it been produced by a professor sitting at ease in his library, it would have been a performance which scarcely any other lawyer or historian of the day would have had the boldness to plan or the vigor to bring to an issue. Being, as it is, the work of a judge, the greater part of whose time is consumed by public and arduous duties, it is a splendid monument of worthy and well-directed labor. The aim, however, of the present article is to call attention to the way in which the attempt to combine two different modes of treating law almost inevitably produces certain defects, which, if their cause is not perceived, may hide from careless readers the very substantial merits of several important treatises.

It is, indeed, with some hesitation that any one can censure a method pursued in common by writers so competent, and at the same time so different from each other, as Mr. Digby, Mr. Holmes, and Sir James Stephen. But it is just because there may be perceived in each and all of these writers some common faults that one may assert with confidence that these defects, such as they are, are due to a common source. In each case may be seen, though under different forms, the ill effect of attempting to combine the analytical and the historical treatment of law. In Mr. Digby's work, indeed, the analytical element is easily separable from the historical investigations. Holmes's 'Common Law,' on the other hand, has, with all its infinite merits, the defect, inherent, as it seems to us, in the method adopted, of confusing together logical, one may almost say metaphysical, questions—as to the nature, for example, of "negligence," of "possession," of a "contract"—with the quite different inquiry, What is the teaching on these various subjects to be deduced from the sacred dicta propounded by the sages of the common law? In Sir James Stephen's book, different results flow from the same cause when influencing a writer who may be described as primarily a logician and a legal controversialist, and only secondarily an historian of the laws of his country. The 'History of the Criminal Law of England' is the work of a disciple of Austin who has studied in the school of Maine. We should, we confess, prefer to have had the jurisprudential discussions, which make up a great part of the second volume, published as a separate work from the historical narrative which constitutes the substance of the book. The discussions, all of them interesting, and many of them most admirable in their way, would have lost nothing from the separation. The historical narrative, which is in many ways a most important contribution to the history of England, would, we are convinced, have gained much by separation from what, to use a legal term, we may call "contentious matter." The gain would have been twofold. The history itself would have been fuller and more complete. Sir James Stephen has done so much for historical knowledge that we confess to a perhaps ungrateful wish that he had done more. His investigations, as we hope to show in our next article, have absolutely proved, what intelligent students of law have long surmised, the intimacy of the connection between the legal, the constitutional, and the religious history of England. When we observe how much light our author has thrown upon features in the history of the seventeenth century which are often overlooked or ignored; when we find that the facts which he has collected about trial by jury go very far to explain the true development of a very peculiar institution; or when we notice how many clews to that most interesting branch of all knowledge—the knowledge of public opinion in past times—are supplied or suggested by Sir James Stephen's account of the law of treason, or of the law of libel, it is impossible not to feel something like vexation at our author's attention being diverted from investigations which might have produced the richest fruit, to violent assaults on such fallacies as that embodied, or supposed by the assailant to be embodied, in the well-known epigram:

"Treason can never prosper—what's the reason?
If it does prosper, none dare call it treason."

Nor does the evil of combining, or rather uniting, historical narrative with logical speculations end with its diverting the writer from the paths of investigation which an historian ought to pursue as far as they can possibly lead him. A worse result is, that logical theory and historical statement become blended and confused together. This is specially apt to be the case when the writer has to deal with that most curious topic, the gradual and only half-conscious development of law which is in reality nothing less than judicial legislation. An historian engaged on the attempt to discover what *is* the law deducible from the decisions of the courts, must in any case, from the nature of things, find it extremely difficult to keep apart his notions as to what the law ought to be from his view of what it actually is; and the only means by which to reduce the danger of this error to a minimum is to keep speculation or discussion as far as possible apart from narration. If this is not done, some sort of confusion or mistake is certain to ensue. Oddly enough, Mr. Holmes and Sir James Stephen appear on this matter to be liable to errors which, though dissimilar, are really due to one and the same cause. The American judge looks at the tendency of a line of judgments; he sees the results which they have actually led to—or, at any rate, to which they probably will ultimately lead—and, perceiving a principle on which the law (for example, in reference to negligence, as it is now administered by the courts) may be justified, he is certainly disposed to attribute to the judges of former days notions which are really the growth of modern enlightenment. The English judge, on the other hand, though in some cases

(as, for instance, in his admirable chapter on the connection between madness and responsibility) he exhibits a leaning toward what we conceive to be the error of Judge Holmes, more often looks upon past decisions as having far greater fixity than they in reality possess. We find it at least difficult to believe that his views as to the law of libel, or as to the law of blasphemy, do not rest upon the idea that a rule once judicially laid down has a kind of fixedness which, whatever ought to be the case, no man looking at the matter from a merely historical point of view would attribute to the fluctuating or flexible doctrines of judge-made law. In these and some other instances Sir James Stephen's logical and controversial habits, combined with the mode in which he has treated his subject, tend at least to perplex and unconsciously to falsify his historical narrative. We have pointed out clearly what appear to us its peculiarities or shortcomings; we hope in another number to prove that in Mr. Justice Stephen's hands the 'History of the Criminal Law of England' opens up new views on the whole history of the English people.

ACROSS CHRYSÊ.

Across Chrysê. By A. R. Colquhoun. New York: Scribner & Welford. 2 vols. 8vo.

Of the five famous "land-islands" to which the Greeks gave the name of Chersonesus, and the Latins Peninsula, it was said "the fifth, surnamed *Aurea* (ἡ χρυσῆ, the golden) lies in India beyond the Ganges." In the titles of recent books, which show how the coils of exploration are tightening around the Indo-Chinese peninsula, we see a revival in various forms of its ancient name. Captain Gill's 'River of Golden Sand,' Miss Bird's 'The Golden Chersonese,' and Archibald R. Colquhoun's 'Across the Golden' (as we may translate it) are cases in point. Ptolemy's Chryse Chora is but a literal version of the Sanskrit Suvarna-Bhumi, or Golden Land, applied in ancient India to the Indo-Chinese regions. The makers of the books we have named, instead of coining new titles, have adhered to classic precedents. "Indo-China" is but of recent application, and Cochin (Chinese Kiu-chin, nine divisions) China, though perhaps dating back to the Han dynasty (206–23 B. C.), is but one province of Annam. The elasticity of Ptolemy's geography is availed of by our author, whose trip was in reality across the three southern provinces of China.

Physically speaking, this division of peninsular Asia is a gridiron-shaped country consisting of ranges of mountains stretching southwardly from Thibet to the tropical oceans. The rivers flowing between these mountains are fed by the snow of the mid-Asian plateau, and by the natural supply of a very rainy country that yields the steam and malaria to which so many Europeans succumb. Ethnologically, we have in this section of earth a congeries of races produced by mutual contact of the Aryan and Mongolian races, and sharing the traits in lesser degree of both Hindoos and Chinese. In this century, this "last continental region toward the East," as the author of the 'Periplus' calls it, finds itself the unwilling object of emulation between two rival European nations. The English in Burma and the Straits Settlements knock at the western door; the French in Saigon and Tonquin are striving to prise open the eastern door; and trade, rather than politics, is the real motive power at the ends of the levers. To tap the interior commerce both of Indo-China and of the border provinces of the Middle Kingdom, *via* the sea-coast and rivers, has been the real object of English and French diplomacy, war, and exploration thus far. The Gallic pioneers have started from the sea, and up from the south, while the British, from China or Burma, have sought by overland routes east or west to be true forerunners, making straight paths for the gospel of trade. "Free transit through China" is the watchword of the British traders in China—a policy incarnated in Sir Harry S. Parkes, the newly-appointed minister to Peking. The impelling cause of the French war in Tonquin is the failure of the Annamese, after seven years' delay, to open the Red River to French commerce into Yunnan. Already the list of victims of exploration is large: Lagree, Garnier, Carné, and Mouhot among the French, and Margary and Wahab (the author's companion) among the Englishmen, "have been sacrificed in the work of Indo-Chinese exploration." Mr. Colquhoun's dedication, saving flattery, reads exactly like the inscription on a gravestone.

Like Columbus and other good discoverers, Mr. Colquhoun was incited to plunge into venturesome exploration by reading the tomes of Marco Polo. "Our mediæval Herodotus," as Colonel Yule calls him, had, nearly six centuries ago, accepted a commission from Khublai Khan, which took him through western China, and thence to Burma. Of the 1,500 miles of Colquhoun's proposed route in 1882, two-thirds of the distance would be over ground which, except a small portion of Polo's route, had been undescribed by a European. His object was to explore the rich vein of geographical, ethnological, and allied subjects, but the object nearest to his true British heart was trade extension. Since the French were moving in Tonquin, and at the mouth of a practically navigable river too, he hastened with all speed in order to head off French enterprise and open the way for British manufactures. As executive engineer of the British Public Works in India, as a traveller in Siam and the Shan country—about which he is now writing a book to be called 'Among the Shans'—he had gained experience with Asiatics, and a thorough practical knowledge of his craft. With such scientific training, with the true explorer's and surveyor's eye, with a superbly-knit physical frame, with abundant good nature, patience, and power of endurance, Mr. Colquhoun possessed the equipment of a successful traveller. We should gather this knowledge from a study of his likeness which faces the title-page of volume i., even if his bluff, unpolished narrative did not reveal it.

Obeying the old Dutch proverb "Raad voor daad" (counsel before action), he sought the advice of Colonel Yule, Captain Gill, Colborne Baber, and two missionaries of the China Inland Mission. After a few months' rest in England, following a thirteen years' absence in the East, he sailed in the French steamer *Pei-ho* for Canton, landing there December 19, 1881, with his companion Charles Wahab, a civil engineer. Donning Chinese costume, and obtaining an interpreter, since they knew no Chinese, and servants, who signed their contract-papers with thumb-impressions in ink, the party was ready to start after a delay of sixteen days. Their passports covered the six southern provinces of China; and a stack of vermilion-covered visiting cards, each having the superficies of a brick, was duly prepared for calls on official magnates. Their new designations were Messrs. Spear-man and Sucking-baby, though Mr. Wahab, who bore the infantile name, was "a dragon-bearded worthy," and Mr. Colquhoun a man of peace, who soon gave away his rifle, advising all travellers to eschew firearms. Packing their stores, medicines, and instruments in cases enclosing each a ten-days' supply, and weighing sixty pounds each—a half-mule or one-man load—the party of seven embarked on the evening of February 4, 1882. A seven-year-old daughter of an American missionary in Canton seems, among the large crowd of friends assembled to bid good-by, to have waved the last adieu. Leaving the Canton creek, they entered the Si-kiang, or Western River. This, the largest of the rivers of southern China, drains the valley between the Nan-lin range (in which the original Rip Van Winkle story is located) and the mountains bordering on Tonquin. The water journey was to extend through "the two Kwangs," Kwang Tung and Kwang Si, to the town of Pésé on the Yunnan border, and the head of boat navigation. Fulfilment of the Chinese captain's time contract of eighteen days was secured by a stipulation of rewards or forfeits based on the "flowery borders," vulgarly called dollars. Through gorges and under overhanging rocks of wonderful grandeur, past rocks of fantastic shapes covered alike with lore and lichen, fields of Indian corn varied by an occasional expanse of poppies, floating boat-villages, pagodas, and walled cities, junks, and cormorant fishers, old Tai-ping rebels' forts (now nests of robbers), occasional floating corpses of girl-babies or haggard opium victims, the explorers moved on, enjoying sights such as Polo saw centuries ago. In taking notes and photographs, studying Garnier's map, making calls on land at the yamens of the mandarins, the time soon passed away.

This part of the book, notwithstanding its freshness, in that the daily entries in the journal were reduced in semi-weekly tasks to text, does not greatly differ from the descriptions of ordinary travellers in China, except that everything is seen from the engineer's and trade-exploiter's point of view. The usual features of Chinese city life—the pagodas, official yamens, guildhalls, civil-service-examination stalls, pawnbrokers' shops, cremarium for reducing manuscript to ashes—are noted; and the reader is impressed with the homogeneousness of the mighty empire. The country folks were found to be civil, simple-mannered, and kind; but the city people were more hostile, and more easily influenced by the literati, or, to speak properly, the disappointed office-seekers. The idle scholars rejected at the Government examinations are the real mischief-makers who incite the people to hoot and throw stones or call out *Fan-qui* (foreign devil). On pages 279 and 280 of vol. i. the author sums up his impressions of the region traversed by the Si-kiang or West River, and the former theatre of the Tai-ping rebellion. The horrible destruction of the population, the frequent ruins of once populous cities, and the transfer of the carrying trade between Yunnan and Canton to the Yang-tse River account for the comparatively deserted appearance of the country and the small portion of land cultivated. Great prosperity once reigned along this river, and under good government may again return. In these provinces the character of the population has been greatly affected by the aboriginal tribes, which, after two or three thousand years of attempted rule, the Chinese seem not to know how to govern. On account of the lawlessness in these border lands, trade routes into Tonquin are as yet few and precarious, nor likely to be improved under the present Chinese policy of letting things alone. Protection to life, and light-draught steamers, would work wonders in commerce.

The second stage of the journey began from Pésé, through southeastern Yunnan, in light marching order, with little but instruments, canned soup, and flannel. This province is inhabited largely by the Lolos, or aboriginal tribes only partially under Chinese rule. They have a written language, and Mr. Colborne Baber has recently obtained several of their interesting manuscripts. For years, the Mohammedan re-

bels and the imperial troops devastated Yunnan, and everywhere were seen ruins of towns and cities, deserted mines and industries, while the population had been *reduced to one-tenth* of its former number. The wondrous variety of costume—a strange sight in China—brightened the scene. In this part of vol. i., and throughout vol. ii., the author drops the larger but commonplace illustrations, and sprinkles on nearly every page thumb-nail sketches of implements, ornaments, costumes, and faces, with larger cuts from photographs, and reductions from native drawings, which are of superlative interest. He meets personally some of the Chinese generals whose military prowess or cold-blooded treachery reëstablished the imperial rule after awful carnage. These mandarins, whose ignorance of topography is constantly criticised, seem unable to accommodate the ways of the aboriginal hill tribes to their own. Their only idea of government is that of coercion. They are especially unable to deal with a mining population, and hence discourage all attempts to develop mineral riches. A modern Kung-su is needed to induce the Lolo aborigines to "wear oxen at the waist and heifers at the belt"—which is the celestial method of beating swords into ploughshares. Under Western methods of government, Mr. Colquhoun thinks, all would be different, and wealth and population increase tenfold in a few generations. Both silver and gold are found in great richness in Yunnan. The rivers were crossed by suspension bridges, many of them of iron, and others of massive masonry on a series of arches. With much that was imposing in architecture, notably some quadrangular Mohammedan pagodas, much was out of repair. Mr. Colquhoun comes to the conclusion that the natural bed of the future railroad over which the traffic of Yunnan and southern China shall yet pass, lies in an extension from British Burma, and not through Tonquin or the Cambodia River valley. In other words, he believes that the English, and not the French, have already the "inside track." No wonder that three Paris publishers have broken off negotiations for publishing 'Across Chrysê.'

The closing part of the second volume becomes exciting as the reader travels in spirit with the brave explorers forcing their way through the wildest part of China across the frontier, amid the discomforts of malaria, plague, poverty, rain, and danger from brigands. Courage, quinine, and the aid of French missionaries, however, secure their safe arrival at Bhamo, north of Mandalay, where, in British Burma, they meet American missionaries, soap, bathtubs, linen table-cloths, "a fairy breakfast," Anglo-Saxon speech, and all the comforts of home. Mr. Wahab, who fell a victim to unboiled water, reaches England to die, while the author, despite the strain upon nerves and frame, may yet live to ride into Yunnan behind a locomotive.

The two superbly printed volumes which form the memorial of the latest, as it is one of the most brilliant, successes in modern exploration, are replete with fresh information of sterling value. Two folding maps give the land and water route at a glance, and the illustrations, especially of the second volume, are worth the study of costumers and artists as well as of the casual reader. The author's style is unstudied and easy, without repetitions or redundancies, and the narrative is enlivened with amusing as well as thrilling incidents. One learns to admire Mr. Colquhoun as well for his kindness of heart as for his tenacity of purpose. We close this review by appending his remarks about beards, which will serve as a specimen both of his style and of his powers of observation:

"The Chinese are never tired of ridiculing the beards of foreigners, but in reality they have the greatest reverence for hirsute appendages, as may be seen from the pictures and statues of celebrated men, nearly every one of whom is endowed with a beard which he probably never possessed. In the historical plays their famous characters are always bearded, and the stroking and management of the beard forms an important item of the actor's by-play. Again, the attention given by old men to combing the few straggling hairs which may give them any pretension to a beard, are proofs of the regard in which they hold them. Finally the Chinese phrase has it, 'San pu-chiu'; there are three things, not to be sought for or obtained, which are said to be—whiskers, a son, and wealth. The Chinese proverb says that one cannot have all these three *tzu*."

The English Novel and the Principle of its Development. By Sidney Lanier. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

THIS volume is an apotheosis of George Eliot. The English novel, so far as it is the work of other writers, is treated of solely in relation to her, and very briefly. Only Richardson, Fielding, Smollett, Sterne, Thackeray, and Dickens can properly be said to receive any attention at all; of these the first four are abruptly dismissed by the author, with the remark, "If I had my way with these classic books, I would blot them from the face of the earth." Thackeray is described as the "somewhat slack, somewhat low-pitched satirist," who "worked so often in a mood of hate," while to Dickens alone is granted the laurel, mainly, it appears, because his sketches of the debtors' prisons had some influence in effecting practical reform. But the success with which, to our author's eyes, the rod of George Eliot has swallowed up the rods of all the false magicians, is most manifest in his fixing on that element of civilization which most plainly underlies her work as the principle of the development of the novel in general. As he states it, this principle, the distinctive mark of the modern age, is the heightened sense of personality which, about two hundred years ago, being felt in relation to Nature, resulted in the rise of science (Newton), and, somewhat later, being felt in relation to the Unknown and to humanity, resulted, in the respective cases, in the rise of music (Bach), and of the novel (Richardson). In regard to the immediate subject in hand the position is, apparently, that a warmer sympathy with mankind, induced by keener self consciousness, wakes the imagination of the novelist and engages the attention of the reader; or, more simply, in the novel we have philanthropy determined to artistic creation and enjoyment instead of to charitable works.

The working out of this theory is unsatisfactory because the survey of the facts involved is very incomplete, and the glorification of George Eliot is evidently a predetermined result. Every social principle affecting the development of the novel is ignored except the single one of the moral individuation of society, with the intention of degrading all novelists but the one most obviously and consciously humanitarian; and even in treating of this principle the author indulges in an exaggeration which gives his work the character of a special plea rather than of scientific investigation. There was hardly any necessity for him to prove the growth of the sense of personality as a factor of progress, for it has long been an accepted fact, as appears in the commonplace of criticism that the Greek drama is a play of fate, and the Elizabethan one of character; but he has entered on an elaborate contrast of Æschylus's 'Prometheus Bound' with Shelley's 'Prometheus Unbound' and Taylor's 'Deucalion,' in the course of which he states that the Greeks failed to conceive of personality, and discoursed of it as blind men of colors. The 'Prometheus Bound' itself is sufficient evidence against such an assertion. In that play, it is true, the fixity of moral character, the necessity the gods are under of using means to an end, and the prominence given to physical torture, indicate spiritual conceptions lower than our own; but the rebellion of the Titan, and his self-sacrifice for the benefit of an unrelated and inferior race, illustrate forcibly the power of being a law unto one's self, and the duty of obeying that law at any cost, which are fundamental in the modern idea of personality. The modern conscience is far more keen, the modern will is more free and more persistent, but the Greeks were by no means destitute of the sense of personality or ignorant of its value as a social power; to state that what is called moral individuation began later than the Periclean age, and that the rise of science, music, and the novel, about the year 1700, was due to the sudden energizing of this principle, is, to say the least, misleading.

In fact, the whole treatment of the sociology of the subject is so vague, slight, and discursive, and is, besides, so involved in doubtful literary criticism, that discussion of it is futile. When we read, for example, that the substitution of the conception of Love for that of Justice as the organic idea of the moral order of the universe "received clear expression for the first time in English literature in the works of Mrs. Browning and George Eliot," there is nothing left for us but to wonder and be silent. In the same mood, which is certainly not one of consent, we hear that Bayard Taylor contained explicitly "what was implicit in Shelley, and a great deal more," that "the Platonic Plato" was "a Zola," "the dialectic Plato" "a dreaming Buddha," and "the ideal Plato" "a brawny Whitman," and many similarly original *dicta*. In consequence of these preliminary utterances, however, we are not totally unprepared for the author's climax, in which he explains the substitution of the novel for the drama by pronouncing the latter an artistic form too simple and inflexible to express the modern spirit, which lifts the novelist to the rank of a god, omniscient in regard to the secret motives of character, whereas the dramatist—mere man that he was—was limited to its actual manifestation in word and act; a change, we are told, which is "simply another phase of the growth of man from Shakspere to George Eliot." Eulogy, and some will think infatuation, could no further go.

Here and there in the volume is much original and suggestive matter but slightly related to the main theme; but, in general, after the first pleasant shock of surprise is over, the ideas are rejected. Among these is the author's theory of the rhythmic speech of primeval man at the rate of ten syllables to a respiration, wherein he finds the basis of the pentameter; and also his definition of prose as poetry of very complex rhythm. These we have no space to discuss. In justice to the author it should be said in conclusion that he had never prepared these lectures for the press; doubtless they were interesting to the audience that first listened to them, but they have neither the thoroughness, impartiality, nor finish which evidently entered into Mr. Lanier's own ideal of a scholarly book.

Germany Seen without Spectacles. By Henry Ruggles. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1883.

MR. RUGGLES, late United States Consul at Malta and Barcelona, has collected under the above title a series of articles originally written for the newspapers. They are all of a rather gauzy texture, and will not require of the laziest of summer readers any heating intellectual exertion. The title is probably more appropriate than the author is aware. By spectacles he evidently means colored spectacles—his aim being

to give an unbiassed and frank account of what he saw in Germany. But the lack of spectacles not infrequently obliges him to take a "short-sighted" or superficial view of things, as is commonly the case with tourists who "do" a country in a few weeks. This is specially true of the first chapters, on Heidelberg, which appear to be largely based on gossip, and to have been unfavorably influenced by Mark Twain's 'Tramp Abroad.' But in Mark Twain's book it is easy to distinguish the facts from the burlesque, whereas it is quite otherwise in Mr. Ruggles's chapters. He gravely informs the reader, for instance, that no strangers are tolerated in the beer-halls favored by the Heidelberg students; and if one does appear, he is hustled out. This is not true, nor is there any indication that it is intended as a joke. The same criticism applies to the statements that beer takes the place of coffee in the morning (whereas no German ever misses his morning cup of coffee); that in Heidelberg there is scarcely a night without street rows between students, citizens, and the public (whereas the reviewer did not hear of a single row during a residence of five months); that the professors interrupt their lectures and slip out of the room to get a glass of beer (!); that it does not require long years of preparation to enter a German university (which is true only in the case of Americans); that Stuttgart is one of the great musical cities of Germany; that there are no hand-organ grinders in Germany (whereas they are a perfect pest, and in Berlin are regularly licensed); that Germans are so prolific that a mother seldom has less than eight or ten children, etc. In the subsequent chapters these overstatements are not so frequent, and are more in the nature of exaggerations, such as a writer may legitimately indulge in for the sake of contrast, and in order to bring a scene more vividly before the reader's eyes.

A large variety of topics are discussed in the twenty-six chapters of the book, among them being "Fires in German Cities"; "Beer-Drinking in Germany"; "Baden-Baden, the European Saratoga"; Würtemberg and Stuttgart, including an account of how Mr. Jackson came to be the King's favorite; the Bavarian capital, its art-treasures and beer-drinking customs; Dresden, Berlin, and Potsdam; Americans abroad; cost of living; eating and drinking; the sugar-beet in Germany, etc. Of all the reprehensible features of German life, none seems to have annoyed Mr. Ruggles so much as the degradation of the women of the lower classes. "What the camel is to the Arab, woman is to the German," he exclaims; and one of his first pen-pictures is a small garden in which a woman incessantly toils while her husband sits near by and drinks his beer. The sight of "these poor creatures, many of them feeble and tottering with old age, working and toiling in the fields like bond-slaves from sunrise to sunset, shovelling, hoeing, and digging, supplying the places of work-horses or mules in dragging heavy loads through the streets and over country roads, toiling and bending beneath enormous burdens on their heads and shoulders," affords probably the greatest of all contrasts between America and Germany. It is considered improper for a robust man to carry home a small bundle or a satchel, but it is quite in order that a servant-girl of fourteen years should carry his heavy travelling-bag while he walks along swinging his cane. Mr. Ruggles spares his readers a long account of the evils of the military system, but it is evident that the state of affairs here alluded to, in so far as it is not a simple survival of the hunting stage of German civilization, is a direct result of the system which compels the young men to waste the best years of their life in the army, and leaves the work to be done by the women. In this connection Mr. Ruggles might have alluded to another odious custom of a similar kind—viz., that of using dogs to draw vehicles. The dog is not by nature fitted for such drudgery any more than woman, and he becomes completely demoralized and degraded by it. It is not an unusual thing to see a poor dog, with protruding tongue, exerting his utmost strength to pull a loaded cart up a hill, while the boy who ought to help him along is heartless enough to add his own weight to the load; and there is no Mr. Bergh to punish this cruelty unless it assumes the form of absolute torture, in which case the police may interfere.

Although it cannot be denied that the Germans take life more easily and enjoy their amusements more than we do, it is clear to the most superficial observer that in some respects their sense of personal comfort is not so highly developed as ours. They not only overtask their women and their dogs, but they deny themselves the absolute repose and comfort afforded by a well-proportioned and well-made bed. On this topic Mr. Ruggles is even eloquent. Like most tourists, he found that the bedsteads and sheets were usually several inches too short for a full-grown man, and, as double beds are unknown, little is gained by an attempt to "double up." This procrustean habit is perhaps the least excusable of all German nuisances, and it is difficult to account for it except on the ground of economy. A housewife who is capable of putting a cent's worth of matches on the bill as an extra, is not above figuring out the saving that may be effected by getting the planks and sheets of the bed a few inches too short. The mistress of the house has various ways of saving money, and one of the neatest is mentioned on page 122. The wages of servants are always very low, seldom exceeding two or three dollars a month; but when the family travels even this amount is withheld—"the pleasure of travelling and the privilege of seeing the sights of the outside world being considered a sufficient recompense for her services." It is only fair to state, however, that many well-to-do Americans, when they get to Germany, develop a taste for penuriousness which they never display at home. A case is mentioned of a rich American lady who had in Paris laid in a good stock of jewelry, and who subsequently beat down the wages of her German sewing-woman from thirty-six to twenty-four cents a day, while her husband offered a poor market-woman seventeen pfennigs for some vegetables priced at twenty, thus saving three-quarters of a cent. Mr. Ruggles has some interesting remarks on Americans who reside permanently abroad; their different types he analyzes with considerable acumen. His tirade against the American students who attend German universities displays a lack of personal experience. There are, of course, some among them who are too ignorant of the language to profit by the lectures of the professors, but the majority are sufficiently well informed to derive an amount of benefit from their foreign studies which they could never have secured at home. This remark applies particularly to the medical students who attend the hospitals at Vienna and Berlin, where they enjoy opportunities for observation which none of our colleges, with their dearth of eminent specialists, offer.

It is to be regretted that Mr. Ruggles did not go to Vienna and add a chapter on that city, which would have afforded him a much fresher field of observation than Dresden or Heidelberg, with the regulation chapter on that most dreary and stupid of all subjects—the students' duels. Considering how fond Americans are of Paris, and that Vienna is the German Paris, it seems strange that Vienna should be so neglected by American tourists. Few but medical students are to be met there, though it is safe to assert that the combined attractions of Dresden, Stuttgart, and Berlin (the three favorite American resorts) do not equal those of the Austrian capital, where the Orient meets the West, where the theatres and the opera are better than in Germany, and the people more sociable and more bent on having a good time, allowing the visitor to have his share. The main reason of this neglect is probably the out-of-the-way location of the city. Not long ago it was proposed to appoint a commission to investigate the causes of the scarcity of visitors and the best ways of attracting them. A novel of Viennese life by Mr. James or Mr. Howells would probably have as much influence as anything. If the authorities would confer the freedom of their city on one of these writers, and induce him to spend a year among them, their desires would probably be gratified.

Dr. Appleton: His Life and Literary Relics. By John H. Appleton, M.A., late Vicar of St. Mark's, Staplefield, Sussex; and A. H. Sayce, M.A., Fellow of Queen's College, and Deputy Professor of Comparative Philology, Oxford. London: Trübner & Co.

WE here have a record of the short but restlessly energetic career of a devoted scholar, together with a characteristic, if not the greater, part of what he achieved in literature. What with natural endowments of a high order, and superior scholastic advantages sedulously utilized, Charles Edward Appleton, though cut off before the completion of his thirty-eighth year, has distinctly made his mark among English thinkers. His was not, however, the life of a recluse and self-absorbed speculator. Though an ardent metaphysician, he was also thoroughly altruistic, as evidence is afforded in his founding the *Academy*, in his strenuous exertions on behalf of the endowment of research, and in the interest which he evinced in the question of international copyright.

Especially noticeable among the essays of Doctor Appleton now collected are the three chapters of an unfinished work on 'The Ego.' The first of them, "Strauss as a Theologian," while open to criticism for its brevity, and while espying importance in matters of materially small account, is equitable in statement and searching in comment. Both of the remaining chapters, entitled "A Plea for Metaphysic," are mainly concerned with the vagaries of Mr. Matthew Arnold. According to Mr. Arnold, as the world has been told with wearisome iteration, God is the "eternal not-ourselves which makes for righteousness"; on which Doctor Appleton well remarks that this "is not what we mean by God; it is simply the disembodied ghost of the *Zeit-Geist*." Again, availing himself of recent definitions which Mr. Arnold has given of "God" and "eternal," Doctor Appleton points out that, on his exegesis, a well-known passage of the Old Testament calls to be altered into: "Hear, O Israel: the habitual our seriousness is one habitual." Doctor Appleton, in words represented as substantially his own, "saw for himself, and hoped to aid others to see, the compatibility of a fearless philosophy with genuine Christianity." To him there was no avowed discrepancy in being, as he was, simultaneously a follower of Hegel, a devout member of the Church of England, and, possibly, a third indefinable something or other. From some one of his standing-points he was, therefore, able to enunciate that "religion originates out of curiosity," and that "all religions are at the outset profoundly immoral." Again: "To think of the Supreme as an individual man, as in Christianity, is only possible after the first tightness of the social bond is becoming relaxed; it is only

possible in a period of social decomposition. To us God is Nature; he is Humanity, or, as I should prefer to say, Sociality; and he is Conscience." That Doctor Appleton, if he had lived to reflect some years longer, would have found himself in an intellectual attitude different from that in which he was overtaken by death, is not to be questioned. None except one to whom but little has as yet become satisfactorily clear and certain could acknowledge, as he acknowledges, "We are all, in these days, detached from our old moorings, and are reaching forward, both in thought and emotion, into the unknown, and putting to sea without a compass. Our thoughts, instead of being thought out to the end of them, are crossed by other thoughts, and these by others; so that they are all broken and incomplete."

Art and the Formation of Taste. Six Lectures by Lucy Crane, with Illustrations drawn by Thomas and Walter Crane. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

E F Bickford 1882 24584

THIS book possesses little freshness of thought, and it gives expression to some erroneous ideas, but it nevertheless presents some true principles in a clear and sensible way, and it may, therefore, be useful to a class of readers who have little time or inclination for extended study of the principles of design. It will help such readers to understand how superficial and meretricious is the greater part of what now passes for decorative art. It will help them, also, to see that the love of novelty and display—which so largely influences popular decoration—is distinctly opposed to what is good in any art. Miss Crane clearly shows that we are now suffering from what is being done in the name of art more than from any indifference to it—that popular art is largely capricious and fanciful, rather than an outgrowth of constant principles and true sentiment. If our undisciplined tastes are appealed to, we are satisfied, whereas she says truly that "it is not enough for us to like this or that, but we should know what is worth liking, and why it is so."

Among the erroneous passages is one on page 10, where Miss Crane treats of the "art of man in three conditions or stages," which are stated to be respectively: useful art, decorative art, and fine art. Miss Crane conceives that decorative art grows out of useful art, and that between decorative art and fine art there is such a distinction as to constitute them separate classes. To this we cannot subscribe. We apprehend that decorative art grows out of man's inherent sense of and craving for beauty, and not at all out of the useful arts. Architecture, for instance, does not grow out of any material use. Only building grows out of this. So far as material needs are concerned, building simply as such is entirely sufficient. But when our æsthetic needs are considered, then we require not building merely, but *beautiful* building, and the fine art of architecture is called into being.

The illustrations to the book are very poor. It does violence to one's sensibilities to see a portion of the Parthenon frieze, the façade of St. Mark's, and Michael Angelo's "Creation of Man" rendered in the manner of Walter Crane's toy-book illustrations.

Selections from the Poems of Ovid. With Notes by J. L. Lincoln, LL D., Professor of Latin in Brown University. D. Appleton & Co. 1882. 12mo, 238 pp.

IT has long been the custom, in some American schools, for boys to read Ovid in their preparation for college. The best forms in which this author has been accessible have been the Ovid in "Schmitz and Zumpt's Series," published in Edinburgh and reprinted in this country by Blanchard & Lea, of Philadelphia, and the selections in the Tibullus and Ovid of Doctor Ramsay, the learned Professor of Humanity in the University of Glasgow, the part of which containing Ovid has been lately reprinted at Oxford in the "Clarendon Series." To these is now added this excellent edition by Professor Lincoln, in which no place has been allowed to anything whatsoever that is unsuitable for the student to read. Ovid has certain characteristics that make him, when judiciously edited, a very fit poet for boys to read first; as, his power of description, which he must have gained by minute and patient observation, and his easy and lively style, which seems like a natural gift. The dignified Virgil and the learned Horace may well follow Ovid. Professor Lincoln would go so far as to substitute Ovid for Virgil in the reading of our schools, and at Brown University Ovid is accepted instead of Virgil in the requisites for admission; at Amherst College an equal number of lines of the 'Metamorphoses' are accepted instead of the 'Eclogues' and the first two books of the 'Georgics,' while Yale College, in addition to a certain amount of Virgil, actually requires 2,500 lines of the 'Metamorphoses.' We are sincerely glad to see any encouragement of the study of Ovid.

The chief objection to the view of Professor Lincoln is the fact that in America Virgil is regarded, and always has been regarded, as a schoolbook, as it was with the Roman boys—"Cum . . . hæreret . . . fuligo Maroni." So far as we know, Virgil is hardly read at all in our best colleges, and thus the only opportunity we have to know this author is at school. But there is no reason why both Ovid and Virgil should not be read in our schools; and with such admirable editions of these poets as we now have, American as well as English teachers are certainly at fault if they do not in a good degree master these great writers and teach them, with delight to themselves and their pupils, instead of making dull grinds of them as they too frequently do of their elementary books. Doctor Lincoln, from his previous labors in this field, on his excellent edition of Horace and of Livy, was well prepared to give us a good Ovid. These 'Selections' are mostly from the 'Metamorphoses.' A life of Ovid is prefixed to the work, and remarks on Ovid's versification. A commentary, filling ninety-nine pages, follows the text. The editor has drawn his materials from the best sources, from Siebel's and Haupt's and Ramsay's editions, and from Siebel's dictionary to the 'Metamorphoses.' It is a great convenience to the beginner to have a special dictionary to his author, as Professor Frieze's and Professor Greenough's to the works of Virgil, and Professor Lincoln promises one for the present volume. The indefatigable Germans have paved the way for us here by many dictionaries of this class, some of great fulness and of special value, as of Phædrus and Nepos and Cæsar, and of Horace and Virgil and Ovid. We add that the publishers have done their best with this book. The type is clear and handsome, the form handy; and the paper is of a yellow tone and unglazed—just what seems best for the precious eyes of the young student.

L'Électricité comme Force Motrice. Par le Comte Th. du Moncel et M. Frank Geraldy. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern. 1883.

MANY believe that the great future of electricity is in the direction of the transmission of power rather than in that of illumination. Companies are already formed in this country and in Europe to propel street-cars by electricity, and to utilize this form of energy in driving small motors. One engaged in the study of electricity could have predicted with great certainty that Count du Moncel would publish a treatise on this subject. His pen is very prolific, and he is the modern type in science of the ancient flying messenger anxious to be the first to announce wonderful results to the world. On the whole, we are pleased with this treatise. It is true that the method followed is that of Knickerbocker's 'History of New York.' Du Moncel begins very nearly with the creation of the world of dynamo machines, and proceeds by easy gradients to the wonderful present.

"Alors qu'on ne développait à grand'peine, par les moyens électriques, que quelques kilogrammètres de force, aujourd'hui on fait travailler des charrues, des pompes à jets énormes, des grues, des scieries mécaniques, des machines à raboter, à percer, à forer, des tramways même!!!!"

The exclamation-points are Du Moncel's, and who will complain of superabundance when the richness of the subject and the enthusiasm of the author are considered?

Du Moncel gives, on the whole, enlightened criticisms of the various dynamo machines which have met his eye in the late expositions in Europe. He describes the small motors of Trouvé and of Despretz, and the various experiments with them, better than any previous writer has done. We find no reference to the application of storage-batteries to the transmission of power, and the electrical tricycle must apparently have a place in a new treatise.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 10, 1883.

The Week.

THE Civil-Service Reform Act went into operation this week, and it is worthy of note that there has for some time past been great activity in filling the vacancies on the old plan, so as to anticipate the examinations. There will probably now for a similar reason be for a good while great slowness in making vacancies. We shall probably hear of much fewer removals from places covered by the Act than ever before, and if so, it will furnish very strong corroboration of the theory on which the civil-service reformers have acted—that if you properly secure the entrance to the civil service, the exit will take care of itself; that is to say, if politicians cannot put their own "men" into the service, they will not trouble their heads about turning anybody out of it. They care nothing about making vacancies unless they are allowed to fill them. The examinations thus far held, too, have refuted that much-used story that the new régime would fill the service with boys fresh from college and quick in answering questions about the population of Timbuctoo and the weight of the moon. As a matter of fact, the candidates appear to be largely persons over thirty, with some experience of life. The examinations, again, are reported to be very simple and easy; so that the dislike of the politicians to have their "men" submit to them indicates a rather remarkably low order of intelligence among their followers. There is no longer any doubt, in short, that the system will work and work well, and not only have a purifying effect on the service, but on public life in general. It will relieve real politicians from an odious burden, and will disgust sham politicians with politics, and revive and fortify the idea, which was rapidly disappearing from the popular mind, that public office is a trust, and not a piece of private property, and that making away with public money under the name of salaries is as bad as making away with it under the name of plunder.

There are, however, now that it is fairly established, two things that the voters must bear in mind. One is, that the generation of politicians who grew up under, and have pushed their political fortunes through, the spoils system, will probably never be reconciled to the new régime, and will do whatever can be safely done to weaken or discredit it. Its fullest efficiency and value we shall probably have to look for at the hands of a new generation. The second is, that the reform will never be wholly safe until both parties have accepted it. At present the Democrats are avowedly hostile to it, and, if they got into power in their present temper, would endeavor to destroy it either by repealing the law or refusing appropriations to carry it out, or compelling their President by "pressure" to disregard it. Consequently, it is, as regards this, a prime necessity of the situation that they should never get into power until they have as frankly accepted the application of business principles to the Government service as the abolition of slavery and the other results of the war. They kicked against these as long as they could, and only accepted them when repeated defeats had made it plain that kicking was useless. The civil-service reform idea will have to be got into their heads by the same process, but it will take more time, because the lesson that there can be politics without spoils is probably the hardest they have ever had to learn.

Poor Mr. Rollins has put himself out of his agony in New Hampshire by withdrawing from the Senatorial contest. He did so, however, in a characteristic letter, which seems to have excited some amusement in the Legislature, inasmuch as it invited all his competitors to retire with him—on what ground did not clearly appear, except that it would make him more comfortable. The letter dwelt mainly on the regularity of his nomination and on the exceeding regularity of his own political career as a supporter of regular nominations and "accredited modes of action." He made some scathing allusions, also, to those who "repudiate their party obligations, and stand as candidates in defiance of the will of the organization." There is probably nothing which so bewilders men of Mr. Rollins's kind as the numbers and brass of this class in our time, and the way they laugh when they are called "kickers" and accused of "discord." Secretary Chandler has since been trying to get into his shoes, and show the world how a practical man runs for a Senatorship; but there appears to be too much discord even for him.

The demand of the Pennsylvania Republicans that Congress "adopt such legislation as will insure the full redemption" of the trade dollar, and "provide means for its conversion into other coin for circulation," is based upon the reason that "the depreciated trade dollar is largely in the hands of the laboring people." That it has been "largely in the hands of the laboring people," put there by employers who cheated their laborers by passing upon them a depreciated coin as one of full value, is unquestionably true. But it is not true that the trade dollar is largely in the hands of these laborers now, and it will not be henceforth, unless they permit themselves to be cheated with their eyes open. It is, on the contrary, "largely" in the hands of speculators, who have gathered it up at something like its bullion value, 90 cents or less, and who are hoarding it with the expectation of seeing Congress do the very thing the Pennsylvania Republicans recommend, so that they can dispose of it with a profit of 10 per cent. or more. The Congressional action urged will not benefit the laborers at all. They have been fleeced beyond recovery, for most of them had to spend their money almost as fast as they got it. They are therefore not the people to hoard large quantities of trade dollars, waiting for Congress to enhance their value. It is the speculating money hoarder who is now to be benefited, and we hope Congress will do no such thing, although the pressure will be strong.

The members of the colored press of the United States have been holding a convention. Its object seems to have been not so much the improvement of the newspapers represented at the meeting—an object which, indeed, can be best accomplished in the several offices of those journals—as the adoption of a comprehensive political platform for the colored people. It consists of a good many planks, such as co-education of the races; mixed schools and teachers; pursuit of industrial arts by negroes; opening of shops, factories, and industrial schools to them; the preëmption of public lands by them; the improvement of the Mississippi River; urging the negroes not to be the tool of any party; the promotion of "the best interests of the country and the race"; a demand for recognition of colored voters by parties. There is a mixture of good and bad in the resolutions, but they will perhaps compare favorably in practicability and sincerity with the average party platform. The convention further declared itself to be "in sympathy with the Republican party on the tariff question"—without saying which wing of the party and what view of the tariff. The only resolution directly pertinent to newspapers was a typographical one recommending that "the word 'negro' be written and printed with a capital 'N'"—a further advance from the abolition of the superfluous "g." But if the editors exhaustively discuss all the subjects suggested by the platform, they will be well stocked with topics.

The "private arrangement" by which Mr. Jay Gould has just paid a $1,400,000 dividend to the Western Union stockholders out of his own pocket is a fiscal and legal curiosity, and shows in a most interesting way the moral progress continually made by Gould. The company is enjoined from paying dividends, the courts being engaged in passing on the legality of a large part of the stock. Mr. Gould, in the benevolence of his heart, has determined that no one shall suffer for this accident of business, and out of the hard-earned accumulations of a lifetime will spare enough to put every stockholder in exactly the position he would be in if no "vexatious lawsuits"—as Mr. Gould, with honest indignation, calls them—had been brought. This, of course, does not affect the injunction, or the legal rights of anybody in any way. If the stock is hereafter declared illegal by the Court of Appeals, he stands a chance of losing a very large sum of money; but, then, nobody believes that he will really lose anything at all, for he never allowed his benevolence, great as it is, to mislead him into a foolish sacrifice of his own interests to those of others. Kind the act is, and we have no doubt that it is wise, too; and we feel sure that no stockholder will hesitate to accept the money out of dread of the consequences to Gould.

There is a good deal of excitement in Troy over the Bank of Lansingburg receivership. There seems to be no dispute about the facts. The bank failed in 1877, and Albert E. Powers, a wealthy oil-cloth manufacturer, was appointed receiver. He found that the assets, at the time, were only worth about $150,000, one of them, Jersey Central stock, being quoted at 8½. He therefore "held on," sold when he could advantageously, paid the depositors in full and the stockholders 75 per cent., and has now a surplus of $90,000 in hand. The receivership was so different from any the stockholders had ever heard of that they probably thought something must be wrong; at any rate, they opposed the receiver at every step. When he said that he wanted to hold on till Jersey Central improved, they fought him tooth and nail, and now, curiously enough, although he has saved their property, they want to pay him as little as possible for his services. Judge Ingalls, however, has decided that he must be paid in full under the Haggerty bill, and says that he "regards the receivership as the most successful on record." Still, it is so wholly unlike receiverships elsewhere that we hardly see how it can be compared with them at all.

The general commercial and financial situation in the past week has improved, in so far as the reports of damage to the wheat crop in the Northwestern States and Territories are acknowledged to have been exaggerated. The greatest damage done by drought has been in the newly-settled Canadian province of Manitoba, which, being outside of the United States, should not be taken into the account in comparisons with last year's crop in the United States any more than the other parts of Canada. But, aside from this, the crop prospects in all parts of the United States are good for more than the average of everything, unless the yield of wheat should fall as low as the average of the past four years, which is scarcely probable. The export movement of our principal staples, breadstuffs, provisions, and cotton, has fallen off considerably, partly because foreign consumers are awaiting lower prices before they buy largely. The expectation of large exports during the last five months of the year is also having the effect to depress the rates for sterling exchange, which have been reduced twice during the week, the decline being 1 cent on the pound sterling. The rates are, however, still 3½ cents on the pound above the gold-importing rates.

Money is very abundant in American markets, and especially in New York, and loans at unusually low rates (2 per cent.) for call loans. But capital seems more reluctant than a few weeks ago to make long investments. Many persons are apprehensive that, with large crops to move in the autumn, money will be tight, and this, with other less prominent influences, has caused a very decided movement in the last ten days to sell new railroad bonds and other similar investments made a few months ago. The result has been an important decline in prices of all railroad bonds, but more especially in the speculative bonds of new roads in new Territories. A similar realizing movement has been in progress in the stock market, where prices have steadily declined since about the middle of June until on Monday, the 16th, the average range was below that of the depression in the latter part of February, making the lowest prices recorded for most stocks for more than two years. During the past day or two, however, there has been an apparent revival of confidence, and an impression is gaining ground that there is not likely to be much further depression.

Marion County, Texas, is said to be in a state of terror, and the *Times* contains a long letter on the subject from Washington. According to its correspondent, the respectable citizens of Marion County have organized themselves as a league to prevent the trial of offences against United States election laws by means of wholesale murder. The only person who has been actually killed as yet is ex-Judge Haughn, whose wife, however, assigns an entirely non-political cause for his death. One reason for doubting the story is that it is usually perfectly easy to prevent a conviction in such cases, when the whole population is opposed to the Government, by a disagreement of the jury; and "slaying" all the Government witnesses, district attorneys, and so on, would seem to most people a clumsy and barbarous way of accomplishing what requires no bloodshed at all. That such stories are still believed in the North on very inadequate evidence, is due in part to the love of murder for its own sake which seems to possess so many respectable Southerners. We shall probably never hear the end of political murders and Kuklux until the South learns to punish private slaying.

Mr. John Devoy, who was sent to jail for publishing a libel on Mr. August Belmont, is turning his newspaper instinct to account in the Blackwell's Island Penitentiary. He has made close observations of the prison and its management, and has published them in the form of an interview. Curiously enough, he has a good word to say for England. He compares the jails he has inhabited there very favorably with the one he is now dwelling in. The cells of the latter are little more than eight feet long and three feet wide, and less than seven feet high. The English give a guest twice as much room. The ventilation is better also. The food is good and wholesome, though there is not a great deal of it, while on Blackwell's Island it is plentiful but very poor in quality. Perhaps when he comes out of jail Mr. Devoy—who says he shall not repeat his libels—will devote himself to the good work of proving that the professional Irish patriot is really better off in Great Britain than in the United States.

Judge Freedman, it seems, has been so much annoyed by the pretty general misunderstanding of his decision with regard to the souls of Mr. and Mrs. Gilman, that he has filed a supplementary opinion in the case, in which he says that he did not intend to decide that testamentary trusts for masses are void, but only that the particular arrangement made in the McArdle case, before the death of Mr. and Mrs. Gilman, was invalid, as not amounting to a trust. In other words, Catholics may have masses said for their souls if they leave money for it in their wills, but otherwise they stand a very fair chance of having the trust set aside as good for nothing. Judge Freedman, we regret to say, is not very luminous in his explanation, as he expressly stated in his original opinion that he held the trust invalid solely for the reason that the soul of a dead person "is incapable of taking an interest in property left behind"—a ground which seems to apply to testamentary trusts as much as to any others.

The difficulties the American heir has had in getting his ancestral English estates out of the hands of the Lord Chancellor and the Bank of England have led him to turn his attention to France, apparently with better prospects of success. He received news some time ago that he had come into a little property of two millions, accumulated at St. Remi by his uncle, the late Mr. James Dunlap, a wealthy "wine-grower." The history of the property since Mr. Dunlap's death is somewhat peculiar, and shows how different the procedure of the civil law is from that of the English system. Instead of the property being at once seized, as it would have been on the other side of the Channel, by the Lord Chancellor's minions, and deposited in the Bank vaults, possession of it was taken on the death of the owner by "the proprietor of the hotel in which Mr. Dunlap had boarded"—and where he probably lived on the American plan at $4 a day, with no extras except the usual fee of a quarter to the servant who dusted him off morning and evening. The hotel proprietor, true Frenchman that he was, took it, "claiming" that Mr. Dunlap "had told him he had no heirs," but now is "perfectly willing to give up the estate," having made a snug fortune out of it meantime. The right of the hotel proprietor, under the civil law, to administer upon the effects of all guests dying in his house without heirs, is something quite as singular as anything in the English law; but we are glad to say that the heir in this case is in communication with a distinguished French lawyer, who assures him that under the Code the rights of the hotel proprietor terminate on the appearance of heirs, and that he will get the property (less the usual 10 per cent. commission) very soon.

The *Tribune* had on Tuesday a curious article on an old subject—the want of enterprise shown by the London press. It insists that one great difference between a London and a New York newspaper is that the former is "wholly engrossed with what happens in the world outside London," local topics being "systematically neglected." The London newspapers, it says, "have not acquired the art of collecting local information"; while everybody knows that with our own press this art has reached a very advanced stage, and produced the journalistic type known as the "city editor"—not a London type at all. The theory of the *Tribune* evidently is that in its rudimentary stage the press occupies itself with the affairs of the world at large, and slowly works up to the point at which it

deals primarily with local news, subordinating the great events of the world's daily history to the various murders, prize-fights, "society" incidents, and sunstrokes which make up the real life of a great capital. If the *Tribune* is right, the most advanced type of journalism of all is that of the village press, which notoriously has a perspective with a purely local foreground. The rural newspaper all over the world satisfies the *Tribune's* requirements completely. We had always supposed that progress in journalism involved the subordination of the local to the generally important, and that this was what all great newspapers more or less tried to do. As a local sheet the Eatanswill *Gazette* beats the London *Times* all to pieces.

There is a curious delay in the receipt of confirmatory details of the outrages on the British Consul at Tamatave. The news came to the British Government through the English Consul at Zanzibar, but the French Consul at the same place says he has heard nothing of it. Moreover, a British steamer which left Tamatave after the British Consul's death has called at Natal without bringing any account of what must have been a very stirring occurrence. As the captain of the British man-of-war, the *Dryad*, is acting as Consul, and is not on good terms with Admiral Pierre, we are inclined to think that there is a good deal of personal susceptibility at the bottom of the whole matter, or, in other words, that it is rather a squabble between two touchy naval officers than an international complication. The one acknowledged fact of the case is that the French have taken Tamatave, and the British Consul and naval officer have apparently been unwilling to recognize the *de facto* government of the place.

The steadiness of consols in London showed that Mr. Gladstone's statement in the House of Commons, grave as were the terms in which he made it, did not excite in England serious apprehension of any difficulty with France. The misconduct of Admiral Pierre, if correctly reported, has luckily been so gross that it will be easy for the French Government to disavow or even recall him without wounding the national susceptibilities. The expulsion of a dying consul, and the prohibition of communication between the man-of-war of a friendly Power and the shore are offences so flagrant that a civilized government cannot have much trouble in atoning for them, and treating the Admiral as too indiscreet for his place. But the root of the Admiral's indiscretion is undoubtedly to be found in the condition of French feeling, which has been very sore ever since the occupation of Egypt. The dread of Bismarck has made all attempts at expansion near home under his awful eye impossible; hence the new colonial enterprises, for which the French people do not possess a single element of fitness, but about which Bismarck cares nothing. These have not prospered thus far, however, and there is a strong feeling in Paris that Rivière was sacrificed in the Hanoi affair, owing to the dilatoriness and irresolution of the home Government. His published letters show that he feared this. The reactionary energy which has since been aroused has probably inflamed the Admiral's imagination. Mr. Gladstone's language shows that he considers the affair one which can only be settled by ample explanation; but this he will doubtless receive. A war with England would be the end of the Republic, as the Republicans doubtless well know, and would probably before it was over give the Italians a chance to try their new ironclads, and make the French a little more respectful in the Mediterranean to the new kingdom.

There appears to be no doubt that when the late Khedive gave M. de Lesseps the concession of the Suez Canal, he supposed he was granting him a monopoly. There is just as little doubt that M. de Lesseps supposed that he was receiving a monopoly. The Judicial Committee of the Khedive's Council, which is composed in large part, if not wholly, of European lawyers, to whom the question was referred a month ago, held that although the concession does not expressly guarantee M. de Lesseps against competition, its conditions contain an implied guarantee of the strongest kind that no similar concession would be made. Mr. Gladstone in providing for a second canal, the need of which is undeniable, has acted on this view—that is, he agrees to allow the old company to make the new canal, to lend it $40,000,000 at 3½ per cent. for fifty years, and to obtain an extension of the original concession for ninety-nine years. This arrangement has given great satisfaction in France, where the bulk of the stock is held, and has been strongly commended by the Paris press as a proof of English fairness. It is difficult, indeed, to see how otherwise the Ministry could have got a new canal except by exercising its right of conquest in a somewhat brutal way. But the arrangement seems to be exciting the utmost indignation among commercial men in England. Meetings are being held all over the country for the purpose of denouncing it, on the ground that a new canal could have been made with British capital, and that, having conquered Egypt, the Government need not mind what the Frenchmen say—which shows that "the good old rule, the simple plan," has still a strong hold on the English commercial mind. Indeed, the popularity of Lord Beaconsfield's administration in the business world proved this abundantly.

In the trial of the Jews at Nyiregyhaza, Hungary, further testimony proved that the three Jews whom the principal witness on the side of the prosecution, the boy Moritz Scharf, had pointed out as the murderers of the girl Esther Solymosi, had not been in the synagogue at Tisza-Eszlar, at the time when, according to the same witness, the murder took place there. It was also shown that the girl said to have been murdered was seen alive after the hour indicated by Moritz Scharf as the time of the murder. According to later cable despatches, an expert testified that some details of the story told by Moritz Scharf could not possibly be true, and this testimony caused great sensation in court. The Vienna papers report that the court-room is constantly filled with an excited crowd of Jew-haters, consisting in part of people belonging to the educated classes, who by noisy demonstrations encourage the witnesses testifying against the Jews and try to overawe those saying anything in favor of the accused. There is a rumor that the public prosecutor in the case intends to withdraw the indictments against the defendants, and that the Hungarian Government will prosecute those who concocted the case. The disclosure of the means by which a boy fourteen years of age was prevailed upon to accuse his father of murder, and by which he was enabled to go through a searching cross-examination with a remarkable degree of firmness and consistency, thus constructing and sustaining an elaborate story, calculated to bring his father to the gallows, without any foundation of truth, will be a rare subject of psychological study.

The text of the protocol signed by Iglesias on behalf of Peru, as given in the *Herald*, evidently contains a mistake. The first condition mentioned is "the perpetual and unconditional cession to Chili of the department of Tacna." This should be Tarapaca; the second clause refers to Tacna and Arica, which are to be held and governed by Chili for two years, after which a plébiscite is to determine the ownership, the country getting them to pay the other $10,000,000. This amounts, of course, to a purchase by Chili, but on what are apparently very easy terms, for in the next ten years Chili is to have full legislative powers in the mortgaged district, and will no doubt use these to improve the property in a variety of ways, so that ten years hence it will be a bargain at $10,000,000. As the result of the war, therefore, if the Iglesias treaty is ratified, Chili will gain among other things an addition to her territory of the best part of Peru, extending some two hundred and fifty miles along her coast. The news of the treaty is said to have caused much trouble at Arequipa, where the "Congress" was at the time engaged in ceding Tacna and Arica out and out to Bolivia. The two plans are evidently inconsistent, but it is hard to see why, as Tarapaca is absolutely gone, any Peruvians should care much whether Tacna and Arica go to Bolivia or to Chili.

The cholera has broken loose in Egypt, and is spreading all over the country in spite of the cordons. It has shown itself in Cairo, and is showing itself everywhere. A rigid quarantine has been established in all the European ports of the Mediterranean, but it is doubtful whether quarantine can arrest cholera. At all events, it has never done so, and there is a fair chance of its passing the sea and showing itself in Italy and France. But it sometimes travels slowly. It has taken two or three months to get from India to Paris, and has also taken as many years. Egypt is, however, far on the road which it usually travels. If it gets to France and England it will probably continue on its westward way; but it has to contend everywhere now, after it leaves the Mussulman countries, with sanitary precautions, and sanitary machinery, and sanitary knowledge such as never before opposed it.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 11, to TUESDAY, July 17, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Pendleton Civil-Service Act went into full operation on Monday, and hereafter all appointments to fifty-clerk offices must be made in accordance with its provisions.

Commissioner Evans, of Internal Revenue, has asked Agent Horton, of Boston, to resign, but says that the report on his case did not convict him of accepting a bribe. It is given out that "the Commissioner felt that it was better for all concerned, and that it was due to the Administration that the embarrassment should be relieved by the resignation of Mr. Horton."

A circular has been issued by Commissioner Evans requiring all dealers who sell "rock and rye" to take out a license as retail liquor dealers.

First Comptroller Lawrence, of the Treasury, has decided that a consul is not entitled to draw pay until after he has reached his destination and has entered upon his duties, notwithstanding he may have taken the oath and have given a bond. This decision will probably add to the difficulty of filling the minor and far-distant consulates with suitable men. He has also adopted the principle that no claim can be paid to a State or person so long as there remains on the books of the Government an unsettled balance against that State or person.

There is much dissatisfaction among naval officers with an order which requires them to obtain new and expensive uniforms. They maintain that the new styles are too close an imitation of the English to be adopted in the American navy. On Monday a general order was issued by the acting Secretary of the Navy that the regulation would not go into effect until the Department so ordered.

The Secretary of the Interior has approved the plans of Director Powell of the Government Survey for his summer campaign. Three hundred thousand dollars are to be expended in the North Atlantic district under the new law. A part of the State of Massachusetts, beginning near the western boundary and extending eastward as far as the season will permit the work, is to be surveyed.

The clause of the treaty with Mexico giving the soldiers of either country the right to pursue savage Indians across the boundary line has been extended for one year. It is reported that about seventy-five Chiricahuas are at San Bernardino, Arizona, waiting to surrender. On Saturday reports from Sonora, Mexico, were published to the effect that Apaches were raiding the districts of Montezuma and San Pareipa, committing murders and stealing cattle. A band of twenty savages attacked Hacienda Pareipa, six miles south of Opozura, killing three men. Colonel Bandola started in pursuit of the Indians, with thirty Mexican troops.

An harmonious convention of Pennsylvania Republicans was held at Harrisburg on Wednesday. There was no slate and no attempt at bossism by the Cameron ring. The Stalwarts had practical control of the Convention, but made concessions to the Independents. William A. Livsey, of Pittsburgh, was nominated for State Treasurer. He is a trained financier, and, though a Stalwart candidate, is comparatively unknown in political circles. Jerome B. Niles, of Tioga County, was nominated for Auditor-General. He was the leader of the Independent revolt in the Senatorial contest of 1881, and has opposed Machine methods. The platform adopted advocates protection in strong terms, and proposes that surplus revenue be distributed, from time to time, to the States upon the basis of population; favors the redemption of the trade dollar at par; protests against pauper immigration; endorses President Arthur's Administration; commends every effort "to inaugurate thorough and correct civil-service reform," and requires "that all offices bestowed within the party shall be upon the sole basis of fitness"; and provides for efforts toward an improvement of the method of holding primary elections. State Senator Thomas V. Cooper was on Monday elected Chairman of the State Committee.

The Minnesota State Prohibition Convention was held at Minneapolis on July 10. A resolution favoring tariff for revenue only was tabled by a vote of 44 to 26. The course of both parties on the liquor question is condemned in the platform, which favors the enfranchisement of women and the election of all officers by the people when possible. A full State ticket was nominated, Charles Evans Holt being the candidate for Governor.

The Iowa Greenback party on Wednesday nominated Gen. J. B. Weaver for Governor, with a full State ticket. The platform demands the abolition of all banks of issue and the substitution of legal-tender Treasury notes in lieu of bank currency, the volume to be regulated by Congress; favors an unrestricted coinage of gold and silver; opposes refunding the interest-bearing Government debt, and demands that it be paid as rapidly as possible; and advocates a graduated income tax.

In the balloting for United States Senator in New Hampshire on Wednesday the vote of Senator Rollins fell off to 79. On Thursday a letter was read in the Legislature from Senator Rollins, withdrawing from the contest. Secretary Chandler became a candidate, but his vote on the ballot then taken did not exceed 52. On Tuesday Mr. Chandler's vote was 65; Mr. Bingham's was 112.

A convention of the Negro Press Association was held at St. Louis last week. Among the resolutions adopted were the following—declaring it detrimental to the best interests of the negro race and repugnant to ideal political manhood to be made the tool of any existing political party or to be tied to any political kite; asserting that the Convention was in sympathy with the Republican party on the tariff question, and urging that the word "Negro" be written and printed with a capital "N."

In Texas a Colored Men's Convention was also held. It adopted an address to the people asserting that the negroes did not ask for social equality in railway travel, but would freely accept social separation with equal accommodations for equal pay. The Republican party was approved.

The *Times* of this city on Monday printed replies from 344 places in the different States to show the preferences of Republicans and Democrats as regards Presidential candidates for their respective parties. Blaine leads the Republican list, with Arthur second; Tilden leads the Democrats, with McDonald second.

Much comment has been caused by the publication in the New York *Times* on Friday of a long interview with an "old and intimate friend of Mr. Tilden," the tenor of which was that he would accept a renomination for the Presidency at the call of his party, and that his physical strength was equal to the duties of the office.

On Monday a committee of seven of the Telegraphers' Brotherhood presented to the officers of the Western Union, the American Rapid, and Baltimore and Ohio Companies a letter requesting a general increase of 15 per cent. in the salaries of operators, and a reduction of one hour in the hours of work, and requested that a reply should be returned as early as convenient for the companies. No time was fixed for it, and no threats were made. It is believed, however, that a strike will take place on Wednesday, and 13,000 men are expected to join in it. No concession had been made to the telegraphers on Tuesday evening, though it was rumored that the Baltimore and Ohio would yield their demands.

The Rev. J. Trumbull Backus, senior member of the Board of Trustees of Union College, and one of the leaders of the anti-Potter movement, on Friday called a meeting of the Board at Schenectady on August 2. The Potter party had not intended to have another meeting of the Board until early in the winter. Notice was served on Saturday upon the State officers of an application, to be made at Saratoga on July 24, for a writ of mandamus compelling the State officers to meet with the trustees at the above-mentioned special meeting.

Attorney-General Russell, of this State, has decided that it is the duty of the State Engineer and Surveyor to make a map of the proposed Niagara Park for the Commission, unless the appropriation at his service is inadequate.

General Bonaches, a Cuban revolutionist, is in this city, endeavoring to get men and money for a new revolt against Spanish authority in Cuba, and with that end in view has issued a proclamation.

The Rev. Charles W. Park was to have been installed pastor of the Howard Avenue Congregational Church in New Haven, Conn., on Wednesday. After waiting patiently for two hours, the large audience there assembled was informed that the Ecclesiastical Council had rejected Mr. Park on account of his beliefs—among them his opinion of the possibility of universal salvation, his rejection of infant baptism, and his views of the Divine authority of the Scriptures. The congregation, however, are determined to receive him as their pastor.

The failure was announced in this city on Thursday of the well-known publisher, Mr. Orange Judd. It does not affect the publishing company bearing his name. He was connected with a number of outside enterprises which were unsuccessful.

The laboratory, library, and museum of Indiana University, Bloomington, were burned on Thursday; loss $200,000.

Fire was discovered in the steamer *Niagara*, running between New York and Cuba, on Thursday morning, when she was off the southern coast of Florida, on her way to the island. It could not be extinguished. A steamer was happily sighted, which took off the mails and twenty-five passengers of the *Niagara* safely. She was then run ashore in sixteen feet of water, afterward raised, and run to Havana. She is a first-class iron steamship of 1,668 tons burden, valued at $350,000, and owned by the New York and Cuba Mail Steamship Company.

Charles Sherwood Stratton, better known as "General Tom Thumb," died at his residence in Middleboro, Mass., on Sunday morning of apoplexy. He was forty-five years of age. At the time of his death he was forty inches in height and weighed seventy-five pounds.

Judge T. C. Theaker, Commissioner of Patents in 1865, died at Oakland, Md., on Monday, aged 71.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone made a grave statement in the House of Commons on Wednesday afternoon. He said that when the French occupied Tamatave, Madagascar, and proclaimed a state of siege, the British Consul there was suffering from a serious illness, which the political crisis aggravated. His secretary was arrested in his presence. Admiral Pierre, the French commander, ordered the sick man to leave Tamatave within twenty-four hours. The Consul died seven hours after receiving the notice. Admiral Pierre also stopped communications between the British man-of-war *Dryad*, which was stationed there, and the shore. The flags of all the foreign consuls were hauled down. Mr. Gladstone also said that an English missionary named Shaw had been arrested at Tamatave and remained in prison. In conclusion, Mr. Gladstone said that they awaited those communications from the French Government which the case required, and which they had intimated that

they expected. The Premier's remarks were cheered.

The French Government on Thursday informed England that they awaited official advices from Tamatave before replying to the demand for explanations of the occurrences there. Premier Ferry believes that the reports from Tamatave have been exaggerated. The French Consul at Zanzibar on Friday telegraphed his Government that he had no knowledge of the alleged outrages.

In a telegram dated July 6, by way of Zanzibar, the French Admiral Pierre reports that he repulsed a night attack on June 23 and another on July 6. The Hova loss was heavy. The French loss was only one killed. Admiral Pierre does not mention any trouble with the English Consul at Tamatave.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Monday M. Challemel-Lacour, Minister of Foreign Affairs, said he believed there had been at least an exaggeration in the accounts of the occurrences in Madagascar. He was certain that if Admiral Pierre had adopted any measures, they had been necessary, and that Admiral Pierre had complied with orders to avoid offending England. News of the occurrences was lacking, because the Admiral was unable to detach a vessel by which to send despatches. He declared that unexplained events could not impair the present good relations between France and England. He added that if a grave error had been committed or passion manifested, the French Government would not hesitate to fulfil the obligations imposed by a sense of justice and the interests of the country. The Minister's remarks were received with cheers.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday afternoon Mr. Childers, Chancellor of the Exchequer, said that the agreement arrived at between the Government and M. de Lesseps, providing for the construction of another Suez canal, had been signed. The new canal would be completed at the end of the year 1888. England, he said, would lend the canal company £8,000,000, at 3½ per cent. interest, the loan to be redeemable in fifty years. The Government would endeavor to obtain a fresh concession of land from Egypt and an extension of the original concession for ninety-nine years. The scheme was warmly approved by the French press and people. In England it has met with great opposition. The London Chamber of Commerce unanimously decided that the agreement was inadequate and unsatisfactory. Meetings were held by many prominent corporations making similar protests. In the House of Commons on Friday afternoon Mr Childers said the agreement would be submitted to the House by a motion made in the committee that the sum to be loaned to the Suez Canal Company by the Government for building the new canal be charged on the Consolidated Fund. M. de Lesseps expresses himself as indifferent whether England accepts the agreement or not.

It is understood in Paris that M. de Lesseps has refused to modify the terms of the agreement between himself and the British Government as to the new Suez Canal. The English Conservatives on Monday decided to oppose the agreement. In the House of Lords on Tuesday afternoon Lord Granville, Foreign Secretary, said that on grounds of expediency he justified the agreement made by the Government with M. de Lesseps, whose absolute monopoly of the power to construct a canal across the isthmus was not admitted in the negotiations. Lord Salisbury (Conservative) said he was surprised to hear that the concession of M. de Lesseps gave him the power to bar the passage between two seas. He argued that neither the Sultan nor the Khedive was competent to make such a grant.

Mr. Gladstone announced in the House of Commons on Monday afternoon that he could not propose any legislation in regard to the importation of cattle, but the Government would make an investigation as to whether a stricter application of the rules for the prevention of disease was necessary.

The Speaker of the House of Commons has written to Mr. Bradlaugh, informing him that he will be excluded from the House until he engages not to attempt to take the oath in disregard of the resolution of the House. Mr. Bradlaugh has made a reply, declaring that the action of the House in his case was illegal.

There was a riot in Wexford Borough, Ireland, on Tuesday, during the polling for a member of Parliament to succeed Mr. Healy. Great animosity was shown toward the Liberal candidate, The O'Connor Don. Mr. William Redmond, Parnellite, received 307 votes against 126 for The O'Connor Don. After the result was announced the defeated candidate drove through the streets under escort. The party was pelted by a mob. The police charged the crowd with bayonets. Several persons were wounded. Thirty policemen were injured, twelve seriously. Messrs. Healy and Sexton restored order.

A number of pauper emigrants who were sent back to Ireland by the American authorities have arrived at Queenstown, and all accounts published in England agree in describing them as a wretched class of people.

The ironmen at Wolverhampton, Staffordshire, England, have agreed to resume work at the reduction in wages against which they struck.

The British rifle team was announced on Monday. The Americans express themselves as satisfied with their reception in England. The Scotch team won the National Challenge trophy on Monday over England, Ireland, and Wales. Hinman, of the American team, won the St. Leger prize, members of the English team also competing.

The Very Rev. Archibald Boyd, Dean of Exeter, England, died on Wednesday, at the age of eighty. He was the author of a number of religious works.

Eighty bodies have so far been recovered from the steamer *Daphne*, which capsized on being launched near Glasgow on July 3. The steamer was partly raised on Friday.

The national fête day was celebrated in Paris on Saturday with great ceremony. The unveiling in the Place Château d'Eau of the great Statue of the Republic took place in the morning in the presence of Senators, members of the Chamber of Deputies, Municipal Councillors, and a vast concourse of people.

M. Paul de Cassagnac has been excluded from the French Chamber of Deputies for a fortnight for declaring, in the course of a debate, that the Tonquin expedition was due to stock-jobbing motives.

Advices from Tonquin, dated July 3, received in France on Thursday, say that General Bouet, the commander of the French troops in Tonquin, arrived at Hanoi on June 15. The defences at Haiphong were completed, and those at Namdinh and Hanoi were advancing rapidly. A Hong Kong despatch of July 12 reported Tonquin in a state of anarchy. The French have captured and hanged many marauders. On Saturday it was announced that 3,000 Chinese troops had been ordered from Canton to the Tonquin frontier.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday, by a vote of 391 to 115, accepted the Ministers' proposal to begin debate on the subject of conventions with railway companies on Monday. The vote is considered as foreshadowing the adoption of the conventions and as obviating all fear of a Cabinet crisis.

The revenue of France for the first half of the present year was 28,000,000f. below the sum estimated in the budget. The imports into France during the month of June increased 64,000,000f. as compared with those for June, 1882. The exports for that month decreased 21,000,000f. as compared with the exports for June last year.

M. Waddington was on Tuesday appointed French Ambassador to England in place of M. Tissot, who has resigned on account of ill-health.

M. Louis Pasteur, the well-known French chemist, has offered to organize a mission with the object of investigating the nature and origin of the cholera in Egypt. The disease has been spreading rapidly. On Thursday it had appeared at Zitfeh and Shibin, about forty miles from Cairo. On Saturday it had reached Shubra. On Monday the first cases were announced at Cairo. A panic prevails at Alexandria.

The Spanish Cabinet have considered favorably the project of France for the construction of a tunnel under the Strait of Gibraltar.

The treaty of commerce between Germany and Spain has been signed.

A debate on the policy of the Spanish Government was held in the Chamber of Deputies of that country on Thursday. Señor Castelar, the Republican leader, maintained that democracy was incompatible with monarchy, and he attacked monarchy and defended republicanism amid great commotion. Prime Minister Sagasta spoke warmly in defence of monarchy. He denied the truth of the charge, and reiterated that he was willing to carry out the promised reforms without a modification of the Constitution.

Emperor William has given his sanction to the Prussian Church Bill.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ) in a recent issue quoted a letter from Mr. Sargent, the American Minister, in which he says that Germany's pretence that the interdiction of the importation of American pork was owing to sanitary reasons, is now becoming the thinnest veil. The *Gazette*, in reply to the assertion of Mr. Sargent, reproduces an article from a Cincinnati paper in which it is declared that half of the lard manufactured in America consists of cotton-seed oil, tallow, clay, and water.

M. Krazewski, the Polish author, who was arrested in Germany on a charge of being connected with a conspiracy in Russian and Prussian Poland, has been found guilty and sentenced to two years' imprisonment.

In regard to the trial at Nyiregyhaza, Hungary, of the Jews charged with murdering Esther Solymosi, it is reported that the Public Prosecutor intends to withdraw the indictment against the defendants, and that the Hungarian Government will prosecute the concocters of the case with the utmost severity.

There are fears of an outbreak in Crete owing to the resistance of the people to the payment of taxes.

Serious fears are felt in regard to the health of the Shah of Persia.

Both houses of the Victorian Parliament, Australia, have unanimously voted an address to Queen Victoria urging the annexation of or the establishment of a protectorate over New Guinea and other Pacific islands, and offering to share the expense of such action.

Guayaquil, Ecuador, is rejoicing at the entrance of the insurgents, under Alfaro, into the city, and business is being resumed.

Late news from Guayaquil, Ecuador, asserts that the resistance of General Veintemilla was generally feeble, although the main fort held out vigorously. The townspeople received General Alfaro's troops with great enthusiasm.

Reports of a great battle in South Africa were received on Wednesday. The forces of Cetewayo defeated those of Chan, and the latter chief was captured. On Saturday there was a report that Cetewayo had been defeated. It is also reported that Chiefs Mapoch and Mamsoer have submitted to the Boers.

Cuba is alarmed over frequent daring robberies and assassinations which are encouraged by lax methods of punishment.

THE PROTECTIONIST LAST DITCH.

When we last spoke of the plan of raising revenue over and above the expenses of the Government for the purpose of distributing the surplus among the States, it was simply the speculative scheme of a protectionist professor in Philadelphia. It has been, however, seriously embodied in the platform of the Republican party in Pennsylvania, as a proposal for a permanent change in the fiscal system of the country. Nothing which has yet been said or done about the tariff furnishes so good an illustration as this does of the way in which the protective system debauches or perverts the minds of its votaries on nearly all political topics. In Pennsylvania it has produced a kind of fanaticism which in some of its effects is not unlike religious bigotry, and exerts a decidedly narrowing influence on the social and intellectual life of the State, as well as on its politics. It would really seem now, if we are to accept the Republican Convention as a fair exponent of the popular feeling in the State on this subject — which we are not by any means prepared to do—as if the Pennsylvania protectionists were ready to change the form of the Government sooner than submit to a reduction of import duties. They have apparently got into the state of mind of the French Legitimists, who would sooner see France ruined than see the Republic succeed. A great many of our high-tariff men have worked themselves into a sort of hallucination, in which a government carried on with low import duties seems almost the same as no government, and a high tariff stands side by side with security for life and property, among the essentials of a political organization.

This will not seem too strong language to those who seriously consider the probable effects on our system of government of the permanent collection of "redundant revenue, to be distributed from time to time to the several States, on the basis of population, to relieve them from the burdens of local taxation and provide means for the education of the people." And these effects are so plain that it would be affectation to suppose that the Pennsylvania politicians do not perceive them. The burdens of direct local taxation are the most legitimate and most useful burdens the people have to bear—so much so, indeed, that they may be called the corner-stone of our system of government. It is to the fact that so much of our taxation is local and direct that we owe the success of the republican experiment on this continent. It not only prevents the growth at Washington of a corrupt centralized power, with duties so multifarious, and an army of officials so vast and so scattered, as to be beyond the reach of any effective criticism or supervision, but it educates the taxpayers in the duties and responsibilities of government. It is because so much of their taxation is, and always has been, local taxation, voted on the spot by the men who pay it, and spent under their eyes by their own officers, that Americans are the best politicians in the world. If, however, the process of deriving local expenses from a central fund in Washington once began, no local taxation would long survive. The local interest in taxation would rapidly disappear, and each State, town, and county would commit its affairs to the management of a set of shrewd lobbyists permanently stationed at Washington, with instructions to make the revenue as "redundant" as possible. In fact, members of Congress would soon find that this was their principal duty. If any locality found itself short of schools, bridges, roads, or other improvements, it would simply send an appeal to Washington for more redundancy. And when its share of the redundancy came to be spent, far from feeling any of that interest in honest administration which is now the salt of our politics, the taxpayers would look on at its outgo with much the same mixture of indifference and amusement with which they witness the extravagance of a very rich man.

Nor is this all. We have at this moment a lamentably large number of States in which the willingness to pay taxes is at a low ebb, in which a very dishonest attitude of mind toward the public obligations is very common, and in which there is a large body of grossly ignorant and therefore easily corrupted voters Everybody knows where these States lie: we do not need to make a list of them. To these the adoption of the redundancy system would seem like the establishment of an annual scramble for vast sums of money, the most adroit and unscrupulous to have the largest share. They would sell their support at every Presidential election and at every division in the House to the party which promised most redundancy, and this would be one of the few party promises which would have to be kept. In fact, under the influence of the lively competition which we see between the parties in other things, we might eventually come to have redundancy enough to pay off the farm mortgages in some States and give pianos to the farmers' wives. The only thing certain about the working of such a scheme is that it would create a vast sea of corruption, in which the Government would either speedily founder or totally change its form. The local governments would not long survive their growing dependence for money on the Federal Treasury, and the Government at Washington could not manage the machine which the redundancy would create, without such an enlargement of the executive powers and a corresponding corruption of Congress as would soon leave little of republicanism beyond the forms. We are, however, glad on the whole that the Pennsylvania Convention has proposed the scheme. No free-trader could desire a better revelation of the "true inwardness" of the protective system.

THE THREATENED STRIKE OF THE TELEGRAPHERS.

The demands of the telegraph operators may, for aught we know to the contrary, be perfectly reasonable. It is quite certain that if they are reasonable, the present condition of the operators is very bad. What they ask for, supposing Sunday to be now one of their working days, is the equivalent of 40 per cent. increase in their pay. Leaving Sunday out of the question, they ask for a reduction of six hours per week in their work, and an increase of 15 per cent. in their pay, which are together the equivalent of 20 per cent. in their pay. If these demands are fair, they are now certainly a very ill-used body of men. On this point, however, no outsider's opinion is of much value. It could hardly be settled without knowing a great deal more of the ratio of the supply of operators to the demand than we make any pretence of knowing. If, as in case of a strike may appear a week hence, there has been the same rush of young men into telegraphing, as a clean, genteel calling, that there has been into all sorts of clerical work, the demand is probably unreasonable. Every man's labor is worth what some other man will do it equally well for, and no more; but of course, in this as in all cases, doing a thing equally well with somebody else means doing it with the same judgment, fidelity, and honesty. But it is for the telegraph companies and the operators to find out by the clash of demand and supply what the proper wages of an operator is. There is no natural rate for telegraphers any more than for bookkeepers or teamsters.

That which interests the public most, however, and which the public can form an opinion about, is the means to which the operators propose to resort in order to enforce their demands. A strike of telegraphers now, when so large a proportion of the business of the country in every department is carried on by telegraph that credit itself in the commercial and financial world may be said to rest on it, is a very serious matter indeed. Next to the stoppage of the trains on the railroads, nothing could work greater business dislocation and inconvenience. The stoppage of the mails could be more readily provided for, because as long as the railroads are at work the means of transporting and delivering of letters could be readily accomplished by some sort of improvised organization. But telegraphing is a mystery—a small mystery, it is true, but one which nobody can master in a day or in a week. So that the telegraph operators have it in their power to inflict enormous loss and inconvenience on the community by refusing to do their work until their employers comply with their demands.

Now, the question whether any body of men ought to be allowed for any purpose to inflict this loss and inconvenience on the public is one of which the growing complexity of modern society will soon compel a peremptory settlement. A few years ago there was a strike of engine-drivers on one of the Massachusetts railroads, and they actually undertook to carry it out by abandoning trains filled with passengers in the open country, remote from a station. A repetition of this device was promptly prevented by penal legislation, so that every locomotive engineer in Massachusetts now holds his place with the understanding that if he abandons his engine on the road for any reason, he goes to jail. A similar theory of the relation of other railroad employees to the public led to the railroad strikes in 1877 and the horrible resulting riots, with enormous loss to the country. If anything of the kind were attempted again, assuredly some stringent measures for its prevention would be resorted

to. The truth is that a society like ours, and like that of all commercial nations, has become so dependent on the post-office, the railroads, and the telegraph, that they may be said to stand to it in the relation of the nerves to the human body. The loss even for a week of any one of them means partial paralysis. The loss of all three would mean a total deprivation, for a longer or shorter period, of nearly everything which the community most values. It would mean a suspension of business and social relations equal to that caused by a hostile invasion, barring the terror and bloodshed. It is consequently something to which no country will long allow itself to remain exposed. It cannot allow strikes of employees in these great public services, any more than it can allow the corporations themselves to refuse to carry on their business as a means of extracting what they think fair rates of transportation. No Legislature would permit this, and one or two more experiences like the railroad strike will cause every Legislature to take measures against the other. Telegraphers, railroad men, post-office clerks, and policemen fill places in modern society very like that of soldiers. In fact, they together do for society what soldiers used to do. They enable every man to come and go freely on his lawful occasions, and transact his lawful business without let or hindrance.

If it be asked what should employees in these services do in order to settle the rate of wages by a fair trial of strength such as other trades resort to, we answer that they can readily devise some mode of arbitration for this purpose. They could, if so minded, in the present temper of the public, readily procure legislation making such arbitration compulsory on the companies. They can appeal to public opinion. They can, if determined to stop work in a body, give sufficiently long notice to make the inability of the companies to fill their places in time a plain proof that their demands are well founded. And, though last not least, they can keep out of a calling in which strikes are not allowable. There is no hardship in that. Many occupations are in that category. Soldiers cannot strike, nor lawyers, nor doctors, nor ministers, nor clerks, nor farmers, and they do not treat it as a grievance and ask what they are to do when they cannot have their way about their wages or their hours.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE SUMMER RESORT.

Nothing is more remarkable in the history of American summering than the number of new resorts which are discovered and taken possession of by "the city people" every year, the rapid increase in the means of transportation both to the mountains and the sea, and the steady encroachments of the Cottager on the Boarder in all the more desirable resorts. We called attention to this subject last year, and it every year grows in importance. The growth of the American watering place, indeed, now seems to be as much regulated by law as the growth of asparagus or strawberries, and is almost as easy to foretell. The place is usually first discovered by artists in search of sketches, or by a family of small means in search of pure air, and milk fresh from the cow, and liberty — not to say license—in the matter of dress. Its development then begins by the neighboring farmer's agreeing to take them to board—a thing he has never done before, and does now unwillingly, and he is very uncertain what to charge for it. But at a venture he fixes what seems to him an enormous sum—say $5 to $7 a week for each adult. His ideas about food for city people are, however, very vague. The only thing about their tastes of which he feels certain is that what they seek in the country is, above all things, change, and that they accordingly do not desire what they get at home. Accordingly he furnishes them with a complete set of novelties in the matter of food and drink, forgetting, however, that they might have got them at home if they pleased. The tea and coffee and bread differ from what they are used to at home simply in being worse. He is, too, at the seaside, very apt to put them on an exclusively fish diet, in the belief that it is only people who live by the sea who get fish, and that city people, weary of meat, must be longing for fish. The boarders, this first summer, having persuaded him to take them, are of course too modest to remonstrate, or even to hint, and go on to the end eating what is set before them, and pretending to be thankful, and try to keep up their failing strength by being a great deal in the open air, and admiring the scenery. After they leave, he is apt to be astonished by the amount of cash he finds himself possessed of, probably more than he ever handled before at one time, except when he mortgaged his farm, and comes to the conclusion that taking summer boarders is an excellent thing, and worth cultivating.

In the next stage he seeks them, and perhaps is emboldened by the advice of somebody to advertise the place, and try to get hold of some editors or ministers whose names he can use as references, and who will talk it up. He soon secures one or two of each, and they then tell him that his house is frequented by intellectual or "cultured" people; and he becomes more elated and more enterprising, enlarges the dining-room, adds on a wing, relieves his wife of the cooking by hiring a woman in the nearest town, and gives more meat and stronger coffee, and, little by little, grows into a hotel-keeper, with an office and a register. His neighbors, startled by his success, follow his example, it may be only *longo intervallo*, and soon the place becomes a regular "resort," with girls and boys in white flannel, lawn-tennis (which succeeds croquet), a livery stable, stages, an ice-cream store with a soda-water fountain, a new church, and with strange names taken out of books for the neighboring hills, and lanes, and brooks.

This stage may last for years—in some places it has been known to last thirty or forty without any change, beyond the opening of new hotels—and it becomes marked by crowds of people who go back every year in the character of old boarders, get the best rooms, and are on familiar terms of friendship with the proprietor and the older waiter girls. But it may be brought to a close, and is now being brought to a close in scores of American watering-places, by the appearance of the Cottager, who has become to the Boarder what the red squirrel is to the gray, a ruthless invader and exterminator. The first Cottager is almost always a Boarder, so that there is no means of discovering his approach and resisting his advances. In nine cases out of ten he is a simple guest at the farm-house or the hotel, without any discoverable airs or pretensions, on whom the scenery has made such an impression that he quietly buys a lot with a fine view. The next year he builds a cottage on it, and gradually, and it may be at first imperceptibly, separates himself in feeling and in standards from his fellow-boarders. The year after he is in the cottage, and the mischief is done. The change has come. Caste has been established, with all its attendant evils. The community, once so simple and homogeneous, is now divided into two classes, one of which looks down on the other. More cottages are built, with trim lawns and private lawn-tennis grounds, with "shandy-gaff" and "tennis cup" concealed on tables in tents. Then the dog-cart with the groom in buckskin and boots, the Irish red setter, the saddle horse with the banged tail, the phaeton with the two ponies, the young men in knickerbockers carrying imported racquets, the girls with the banged hair, the club, ostensibly for newspaper reading, but really for secret gin-fizzes and soda-cocktails, make their appearance, with numerous other monarchical excrescences. The original farmer, whose pristine board was the beginning of all this, has probably by this time sold enough land to the Cottagers to enable him to give up taking boarders and keeping a hotel, and is able to stay in bed like a gentleman most of the winter, and sit on a bench in his shirt-sleeves all summer.

Very soon the Boarder, unable to put up with the growing haughtiness of the Cottager, and with exclusion from his entertainments, withdraws silently and unobtrusively from the scenes he once enjoyed so much, to seek out another unsophisticated farmer, and begin once more, probably when well on in life, with hope and strength abated, the heavy work of opening up another watering place and developing its resources. The silent suffering there is in this process, which may be witnessed to-day in hundreds of the most beautiful spots in America, probably none know but those who have gone through it. In fact, the dislodgment along our coast and in our mountains of the Boarder by the Cottager is to-day the great summer tragedy of American life. Winter has tragedies of its own, which may be worse; but summer has nothing like it, nothing which imposes such a strain on character and so severely tests early training. The worst of it—the pity of it, we might say—is that this is not the expulsion of the inferior by the superior race, which is going on in so many parts of the world, and which Darwin is teaching us to look upon with equanimity. The Boarder is often, if not generally, the Cottager's superior in culture, in acquirements, and in variety of social experience. He does not board because he likes the food, but simply because it enables him to live in the midst of beautiful scenery. He eats the farmer's poor fare contentedly,

because he finds it is sufficient to maintain his sense of natural beauty and the clearness of all his moral perceptions unimpaired, and to brace his nerves for the great battle with evil which he has been carrying on in the city, and to which he means to return after a fortnight or a month or six weeks, as the case may be. We fear, in fact, that very few indeed of our summer cottages contain half so much noble endeavor and power of self-sacrifice as the boarding houses they are displacing.

MR. JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN.

LONDON, July 1, 1883.

THE Cobden Club dinner took a new turn this year—that is to say, it had much more to do with certain aspects of English home politics than with the spread of free-trade principles in the world. This unwonted direction of the table-talk was in part forced upon the Club by the retirement of a few members of the organization, the most prominent of whom were Mr. Goschen and Lord Ampthill, only a fortnight before the dinner, for the reason (as given out) that M. Clémenceau had been elected an honorary member. The unreasonableness of the course pursued by these gentlemen need not be dwelt upon, because, as I am assured by everybody, they did not retire on M. Clémenceau's account at all, but on Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's account. Mr. Chamberlain had been chosen as the Chairman of this year's meeting, and Mr. Chamberlain is just now about the best hated man in England, because, being a member of Mr. Gladstone's Government and the leader of the Radical wing of the Liberal party, he has lately given utterance to opinions favoring manhood suffrage, representation by equal districts, and other republican notions. Perhaps, however, Mr. Chamberlain is hated more for what he is expected to say hereafter than for anything he has yet said. The concentration of dislike by the governing classes upon any individual is sufficient to make him an object of interest, and it was for this reason that I took a good look at him last night. A few words descriptive of this striking personality will be acceptable to Americans, to whom he is as yet only a name.

Joseph Chamberlain, M. P., the colleague of John Bright in the representation of Birmingham and President of the Board of Trade, is apparently about forty years of age —I am told that he is nearer fifty—about five feet nine inches in height, without an ounce of superfluous flesh, close-shaven except as to a suspicion of side-whiskers, with a complexion approaching paleness yet not pale, with the lithe figure of one going to take part in the Olympic games, and with an air of business rather than an air of command. He wears a glass, English fashion, in one eye, and had last evening an orchid of considerable merit in his buttonhole. Both going to and returning from the dinner I observed that Mr. Chamberlain was occupied with a cigar.

This is the exterior of Mr. Chamberlain as it presents itself to a stranger. When you are introduced to him he greets you in a rather business-like way, which is equally removed from cordiality and from indifference, as much as to say, "If you are an interesting person, I shall be interested in you; we shall see about it." When he rises to speak there is no expression in his face except in his gray eye, which burns cold like an electric light. With his hands locked behind him, or in his pocket, he begins in an elastic, measured, unhesitating way, without gesture and without exordium, to state his case. His voice is ample and his enunciation distinct, and you soon feel that you are listening to one who is entirely sure of his footing, who knows exactly what he wants and how to go about it, who is independent in all things, and as courageous as need be. His words are perfectly chosen to express his ideas, and there is neither redundance nor paucity in his style of diction. Nothing can exceed the logical and unadorned terseness of his last evening's speech. Only once did he raise his arm in the way of gesture, his only movements being the bending of the body and the turning of the head this way and that—all graceful enough, and yet not what we are accustomed to look for in a successful orator. Mr. Chamberlain can certainly hold his own in any debating body of our time or on any hustings.

It is customary at all English public dinners for the Chairman first to respond to two toasts—one to the Queen and the other to the Prince and Princess of Wales and the other members of the royal family. Mr. Chamberlain performed this duty with republican simplicity, and, as it struck me, in a strictly republican tone. He accorded to the Queen all the good qualities which can adorn a woman and a sovereign. He fully paid her the respect which is her due in both particulars, but he said no words of either respect or disrespect toward royalty itself. He also paid a compliment to the Prince of Wales as an untiring and zealous worker in the only department of activity open to him under the English Constitution, which consists of lending his presence and influence to whatever is useful to the people—a labor which can only be appreciated (he said) by those near enough to him to estimate its aggregate amount.

After disposing of these formalities, Mr. Chamberlain accepted without proof the fact that the schism (if it may be so far dignified) in the Cobden Club was caused by his presence in the chair, and not by that of M. Clémenceau on the rolls. Clémenceau, by the way, was not present at the dinner, and was not even expected, and no allusion was made to him by any speaker at the table. After some introductory matter on the guiding principles of Mr. Cobden's life, in the course of which free trade was rather incidentally than directly mentioned, Mr. Chamberlain proceeded with fine irony to show that the seceders from the Club were like the character in the "Bourgeois Gentilhomme" who was surprised to find that he had been speaking prose all his life without knowing it. Mr. Cobden had been in favor of manhood suffrage and equal representation, and of all the other reforms which are termed "radicalism" in England, and yet these tender-footed gentlemen had been marching under the Cobden banner about seventeen years, without the least suspicion of the interpretation that might be put upon them, until a fortnight ago. From this point Mr. Chamberlain went on to state his position as a member of the Liberal party, recognizing what was required of him by the conditions of membership, but asserting at the same time a freeman's right to hold, and maintain, and speak his opinions to any who might choose to listen, without being called upon for apologies. The reforms which he deemed desirable might not be ripe for adoption, but they were always ripe for discussion, and if anybody supposed that those who held views in common with himself on these subjects could be deterred from expressing them on proper occasions by considerations of office, the thought was as insulting to the intelligence as it was injurious to one's sense of honor.

This is not intended to be a synopsis of Mr. Chamberlain's speech, which must be read by those who desire to acquaint themselves with its uncommon solidity. Its effect upon the audience was not overpowering or "electrical," or anything of that sort, but was captivating by its business-like adaptation to the subject in hand. It made one feel that everything had been said that was needed, and that the way of saying it was exactly the right way. This is the essence and kernel of oratory, and yet Mr. Chamberlain is not an orator of the schools. He is an orator of practical life. His style, like his physique, is suggestive of whip-cord and steel springs. He disdains metaphor and tricks of speech, because they stand in the way and take up one's time. I am informed that he made his own fortune before he reached the age of forty-five, by superior skill and discernment as a manufacturer, and then deliberately abandoned trade and entered public life. His whole aspect bespeaks the English man of business. He impresses you as one who would know the right thing to do in case of a fire. He seems to be a man not likely ever to have a large *personal* following, perhaps not to desire one, and yet very likely to be one day at the head of the Government, because needed there.

THE MONAGHAN ELECTION.

LONDON, July 3, 1883.

IT is long since any Parliamentary election in Ireland has attracted so much attention and been watched with so much anxiety as that whose result was announced last night. For two years past it has been a matter of course that through the centre, south, and west of Ireland every vacant seat, as well in boroughs as in counties, should be filled by the choice of a Nationalist candidate. The only exceptions have been in the petty borough of Portarlington, with only 146 electors, and in the county of Dublin, which, under the comparatively high franchise that obtains in Irish counties, is a mainly Protestant and therefore Conservative constituency. Both these seats have been filled within the last eight months by the election of Tories, but no one attached any importance to that result, except as an indication of the weakness of the Liberal Ministerialist party. In the rest of Roman Catholic Ireland every new member returned has been a follower of Mr. Parnell.

Ulster, however, is, as everybody knows, a part of Ireland by itself, a region largely Protestant, and in some places filled by a population largely English or Scottish in blood. All its counties used to return Tory members, and have down till now, with the single exception of Cavan, a county which is almost wholly Roman Catholic, returned either Tories or Gladstonite Liberals, while all its boroughs except Dungannon, have returned Tories. Ulster was, therefore, the stronghold in Ireland of loyalty to the British connection. Not even the Home Rule party, much less the Nationalist party, which practically goes further than Home Rule, though no one knows how far, had effected any lodgment in it. The ten Liberals who came from it to the House of Commons were not only among the stanchest adherents of Mr. Gladstone, but were important as representing the possibility of reconciling an advanced Liberalism with complete fidelity to England. They embodied the idea that the policy of the Liberal party—that is to say, large concessions to the agricultural tenants, and large extensions of local self-government—is compatible with the maintenance of one imperial Parliament and the cordial union of Ireland with England. Thus their support strengthened the Government materially by enabling it to appeal to them as exponents of Irish opinion, and as typifying what Irish opinion generally might become when discontent had been appeased by a policy of continued conciliation. For the same reason the Nationalist

party has always longed and striven to gain recruits from Ulster. While it stood aloof from them they could not pose as representing a united current of Irish national feeling. They have more than once started candidates at Ulster County elections, not so much in the hope of winning seats for themselves as of defeating the Gladstonite candidates. But they have been always beaten. The tenant farmers of that province, who are largely Presbyterian and generally opposed to a policy of disunion, have stuck to the Liberal party. And the Liberal Government, which had so much benefited them by the Land Act of 1881, expected that their fidelity would be permanent, and even cherished the hope of winning the counties of Antrim and Down, where the strength of Orangeism has hitherto kept the representation in Tory hands.

However, the best gratitude to rely on in politics is gratitude for favors to come. The tenant farmers were enthusiastic for the Land Act immediately after it passed, but they soon discovered that it had done for them less than they expected. The block in the Land Courts was such that cases remained unsettled, and they have had to go on paying the old rents in the meantime, even when they feel sure that a reduction will be ordered by the Court. Leaseholders are excluded altogether from the provisions for fixing a fair rent, and yet in many cases the hardship of the leaseholders' position was scarcely less than that of tenants from year to year. Of the other grievances only two need be mentioned, the construction put on the clause of the Act which dealt with the question of reckoning tenants' improvements, in fixing the rent, and the fact that the Land Court has in many cases reduced the rent far less than the tenants had hoped and expected. Thus during 1882 there arose no small dissatisfaction with the Act, and meetings were held in the north of Ireland calling loudly for amendments in it. Early in the present session Mr. Parnell brought in a bill for the modification of the Act of 1881, embodying these amendments, together with others of a more sweeping nature; and they also appeared in a measure introduced by Mr. Dickson, the Liberal member for Tyrone, who is a sort of leader among the Ulster Tenant-Right Liberals. When Mr. Parnell's bill came on for second reading the Government opposed it. They admitted that there was force and worth in some few of its proposals, but they condemned the greater part of them; and when appealed to by Mr. Dickson to take up the subject themselves, and satisfy the just claims of the tenants, they replied that there was no time to do so in the present session; that England and Scotland must have their turn this year, as Ireland had occupied the two preceding years. This was a heavy discouragement to the Liberal party in Ulster—far heavier than the Government realized at the moment; and the consequences of it are now seen.

Little more than a fortnight ago it was announced that some appointment had been conferred on Mr. Givan, the Liberal member for the County of Monaghan, and his seat accordingly became vacant. In these cases the Government usually has a candidate ready, or at least the retiring member gives some notice to his party on the spot that they may prepare for a contest. However, in this instance no arrangements seem to have been made. The Liberals were for a time without any candidate, while the Tories at once put forward a Mr. Monro, a Dublin barrister, and the Nationalists announced that the seat would be fought by Mr. Healy. Mr. Healy is one of the most vehement and uncompromising of all the extreme party. No Irishman in the House of Commons has surpassed him in the bitterness of his hatred for England, or in the hard, dry, fierce bitterness with which that hatred has been expressed. He had been released, very shortly before, from an imprisonment to which he had been sentenced for refusing to give securities for good behavior when brought up for the use of inflammatory language. He was a specially suitable candidate, because he had fought very hard for the tenants' interests when the Land Bill was before the House of Commons in 1881; and his name had been given to the clause which secured, or was intended to secure, to the tenant the benefit of all his improvements. It was immediately foreseen that the contest would be a severe one, and that the fact that both a Liberal and a Tory candidate were running would give the Nationalists a chance which they could hardly have against one opponent only, whether Tory or Liberal. People in England began to urge that one or other of the "loyal" candidates should retire, so as to strengthen the other and keep Mr. Healy out. But the Liberals would not yield, alleging that, as the late member had belonged to them, the seat was prima facie theirs, and they ought to be allowed to fight it against the common enemy. On the other hand, the Tories would not yield, because they insisted, and the result has proved that they were right, that their man had a better chance than the Liberal. Thus all three went to the poll; but the Liberal, whether in consequence of reports spread by his opponents that he was retiring, or because he was a strong teetotaler, and therefore unwelcome to the whiskey lovers of Monaghan, received very few votes, and Mr. Healy came in by a number of votes somewhat larger than that which both his opponents received. We are still imperfectly informed as to the causes of his victory, but they seem to be, firstly, the belief of the farmers that he had been their effective advocate when the Land Act was being passed, and that he might be expected to squeeze something further for them out of the House of Commons, and, secondly, a disappointment that Mr. Gladstone's Ministry had not listened to their complaints, but apparently left their cause to be defended by Mr Parnell and his friends. Monaghan, too, it must be remembered, is very largely Roman Catholic, and as soon as it was clear that the Liberal tenant-right man (Mr. Pringle) would not get in, the Catholics went over in a body to Mr. Healy, leaving the Tory to be supported by Protestants only.

The result has spread dismay not only in Ulster but among some sections of the Ministerial party in England. It makes them fear that their last fortress in Ireland, the Ulster counties, is crumbling away, and that when next general election comes, they may see nearly the whole island divided between bitter Tories and furious Parnellites. Some things it has certainly helped to teach, though one might have thought the lesson was scarcely needed. One is that men's allegiance will go to those from whom they think they have something further to hope. Another is that the exhortations of the Pope or the Roman Catholic hierarchy will make very little difference in the political conduct of Irish Roman Catholics: Mr. Healy had spoken more contemptuously of the recent circular of the Propaganda than any other prominent member, yet he lost no Catholic votes thereby. And a third lesson is that the two English political parties dislike one another too much to combine even against so threatening a foe as the Nationalist. Neither would give way during the contest, though each knew he was thereby doing his best for Mr. Healy.

The dismay I have spoken of and the corresponding exultation in the Parnellite ranks are perhaps greater than the occasion demands. Monaghan is more Catholic than most of the counties of Ulster. It does not follow that Tyrone or Londonderry can be also wrested from the Liberals, who now hold them. Mr. Healy won his seat entirely on a land-reform platform, keeping the Home Rule or Separatist side of his platform in the background. Still, the example of such a successful invasion by the Nationalists of a new part of Ireland is calculated to increase the uneasiness wherewith English politicians regard the next general election in Ireland. Y.

THE MARRIAGE LAW AND ENGLISH OPINION.

LONDON, June 29, 1883.

YOUR readers must forgive me for calling their attention to a dreary subject, namely, that bill "to alter and amend the law as to marriage with a deceased wife's sister," which was yesterday evening rejected by the House of Lords. The topic itself is as dull as ditch water. Lord Beaconsfield himself could not have invented a single new argument or fallacy for or against the bill which he, like his early patron Lord Lyndhurst, would have attacked or defended with equal facility and with equal indifference. If the measure itself, and the reasoning by which it is supported or assailed, lack all novelty, the persons whose grievances the bill is intended to remove are hardly calculated to excite sympathetic interest. The wrongs of the slave, the factory hand, the martyrs to the anti-vaccination craze; the grievances, whatever they might be, of the compound householder, have all in my time gained the public ear and were all of them interesting, exciting, romantic in comparison with the complaints of the middle-aged widower who feels that life will be a blank unless he is allowed to marry the sister of his deceased wife, or (what is the more frequent case) unless the so-called "marriage" which, in defiance of the law, he has been pleased to celebrate, is, in the strange language of the bill, "deemed to be henceforth valid in the same manner as if it had been duly celebrated or contracted on the day of the passing of this Act." But for all this I am convinced that the bill, and still more the debates upon the bill, with their perplexing and illogical termination, will be found well worth the consideration of any one who wishes to understand the habits of thought and feeling which prevail among the upper classes of Englishmen. The discussions in the House of Lords suggest at least two reflections of some importance.

First. The whole of the arguments used as well by the opponents as by the advocates of the bill, have a strange, one might almost say a portentous, want of reality. In the whole mode in which the controversy is conducted there is something factitious and almost insincere. In no country but England (unless it be the United States) would it be possible for so many men of eminence—statesmen, judges, bishops—as have taken part on one side or the other of this controversy to argue about a plain and simple issue, and yet never to say exactly and precisely what they meant, or to mean exactly what they said. The only speaker who tried to speak out was Lord Bramwell; and Lord Bramwell, with all his honesty and vigor, was like a strong man giving hard blows with a hammer without ever quite succeeding in hitting the nail be aimed at on the head. But if we except his lordship, it may well be doubted whether any one who has addressed the public on this subject, either within or without the precincts of the House of Lords, has even tried to state his views in the plainest terms, and to use no argument which does not command his full and entire belief. Cant (which is quite a different thing from

hypocrisy) has been triumphant: conservatives and reformers have each canted so drearily that a plain man may well feel puzzled whether he ought to approve of a measure which is intended to carry out a reform required by the circumstances of the day, or to enjoy a grim and modified satisfaction at the rejection of a bill which tries to accomplish a wise and politic end in the most foolish and impolitic manner.

To justify this statement, let me examine for a moment the position first of the majority who have rejected, and next of the minority who have supported, the bill brought forward by Lord Dalhousie. The learned lords and right reverend prelates who stand (rhetorically speaking) aghast at any change in the marriage law, allege with more or less earnestness several grounds of opposition. The change is forbidden (they tell us) by the law of God; it shocks the moral sentiment of Christendom; it is the first step in a road which may lead us a good deal further than we at present see, and it is likely in practice to produce evil results. Now, it is not my object to argue out this matter for the edification or instruction of your readers. My aim is to point out that the greater number of the reasons alleged against legalizing the marriage with a deceased wife's sister do not command the full belief of the persons who use them. They are guiltless of dishonesty, but they are victims to unconscious cant. Can any one, for instance, without the grossest injustice to such men as the Lord Chancellor or Lord Coleridge, think that they would not exhibit a very different kind of energy from anything they have displayed if they held that the legislature were really about to violate the law of God? This solemn formula amounts, when examined, to a dubious inference from texts of Leviticus, from metaphors used in the New Testament, or from an alleged consensus of Christendom. But those who use it know that they are identifying the law of God with a very different thing, namely, disputable inferences from texts of Scripture. They know, also, that modern Englishmen of education do not for the most part admit that Scriptural texts, even of undoubted interpretation, are as such morally binding on the nation. They are using phraseology which had a real meaning in the sixteenth or seventeenth century, when the words of the Bible were believed to be in the strictest sense the authentic commands of the Deity, but which has a very doubtful meaning to those who now employ it, and which to many of their audience has no meaning at all. Nor can any man who does not confound words with facts talk seriously of a shock to Christian morality. Nearly every Protestant country except the United Kingdom allows the marriages which are conventionally supposed to shock moral feeling. Nor can much be made even of Roman Catholic opinion, for if, as a general rule, the Roman Catholic Church forbids, Papal dispensations in practice constantly allow, the unions which the bill aims at legalizing.

We may go a good deal further than this in our proof that the opposition to the bill is based on factitious sentiment. One English colony after another has, with the sanction of the Crown—that is, in effect, with the sanction of successive Liberal and Conservative Governments—made legal the marriages which we are now told are opposed to the law of God and to the conscience of Christendom. Can any one suppose that the men who have governed England for the last fifty years would tacitly have sanctioned legislation in any part of the British Empire which they genuinely held to be immoral, as, for instance, laws to legalize torture, to sanction fraud, or to establish polygamy among Christian populations? No one can hesitate to answer this question in the negative; but if this be so it is quite certain that statesmen of all parties have not in reality felt that to allow a widower to marry the sister of his dead wife was to shake the foundations of morality. The rhetorical horror avowed by a disputant in the heat of debate is a very different thing from the same man's genuine indignation at acts which really offend his conscience.

Of the two remaining grounds of opposition one need say little; they are in their way fair arguments. One may, however, be allowed to remark that reasoning based on the difficulty of "drawing the line" is in England one of those argumentative weapons which every one uses and to which no one attaches any importance. It may be described as a shot always fired by combatants who want to cover a retreat. Nor can I attach much importance to the practical evils which it is alleged will follow from a change in the law. The reason why I attach little weight to this consideration is my firm conviction that, were the whole question to be determined on grounds of expediency, the law would be changed to-morrow. Theological sentiment, a dread of change, and the natural dislike of Anglicans to all steps which lead England nearer to the Protestant and further from the Catholic world, have much more to do with the opposition to an alteration in the law which is absolutely certain to take place in the course of a few years, than any considerations which can be proved valid by the one criterion of sound legislation—the principle of utility. The point, however, principally to be noticed is the strange, though perfectly natural, attitude of the episcopate toward the Bible. They cannot make up their minds whether to rely or not to rely on Leviticus, and don't know for certain whether the texts of the Pentateuch are to be treated as irrelevant fragments of Hebrew legislation, or are to be considered the voice of God. In a work on the articles of the Church of England which I used to study when a boy, was a remark to this effect: "Bishop so-and-so has said that this text [the passage, I think, about the three witnesses] is probably spurious, but that it ought not to be given up without a fight." The prelate, whose name I have forgotten, was an admirable representative of his order.

But if Lord Cairns and the episcopal bench use arguments which are vitiated by unreality, they may urge with some reason that a hollow attack may be fairly met by a sham defence; for the position of Lord Dalhousie and his friends is only a trifle better than that of the Duke of Marlborough and the Bishop of Exeter. The advocates of reform are certainly not prepared to speak out boldly in defence of their own convictions. They dare not say that even if the best of Hebrew scholars should show that passages from Leviticus really forbade the marriage which it is proposed to legalize, this would no more affect the convictions of English Liberals than would proof that such a union was opposed to the text of Gaius or of Justinian's 'Institutes.' They dare not, again, meet "the thin end of the wedge" argument in the only way in which it can properly be met, namely, by boldly asserting that if English opinion should at any future time come to sanction marriages which it now condemns, English law must change with the change of national judgment. They hardly dare to urge that consanguinity will (it is probable) be ultimately made the basis of the greater part of the prohibitions on marriage, and that there is no reason whatever for supposing that rules which depend on various complicated considerations can in the long run be regulated wholly by one simple principle.

But the reticence of reformers as to the possible future results of legislation is not half so astonishing as their refusal to recognize the patent faults of the particular means by which they attempt to effect a desirable reform. The bill rejected by the Peers ought to be a simple measure for legalizing in future the marriage of a man with his deceased wife's sister. One clause of not more than five or six lines would accomplish every object legitimately aimed at by the reformers of the marriage law. Unfortunately, they wish to attain two other objects, which have nothing to do with the real principle of the bill. They wish to conciliate the clergy of the Church of England. Hence the bill provides, in a roundabout and almost surreptitious manner, that the marriages which it allows are in England not to be celebrated by the clergy. This astounding concession to clerical pretensions gives a legal recognition to the detestable theory that there is a difference between lay morality and clerical morality; it stimulates among the clergy the vicious notion that officials of the State Church are not bound to obey the State, and further, like all weak concession, is certain to beget unwarrantable exactions. The clerical press already mutters that the clergy will not admit to the Communion persons who take advantage of a law which the Church condemns. Reformers, again, wish to legalize so-called "marriages" which have already been made in defiance of law. They therefore at once fall into all the evils of retrospective legislation. A measure which on the face of it embodies a salutary reform becomes a direct encouragement to rich men to defy the law of the land, in the expectation that by means of wealth and agitation they may not only get the law changed, but also escape the penalties of lawlessness. The plain truth is, that the retrospective provisions of the bill are from a public point of view absolutely indefensible. But this plain truth is just one of those truths which neither Lord Dalhousie nor even Lord Bramwell dare boldly insist upon. For if the retrospective provisions were struck out of the bill, the rich law-breakers who support the agitation for reform would, it may be shrewdly suspected, keep their money in their own pockets. The present law presses hard on the poor. It cannot be repealed without agitation; you cannot keep agitation alive without money; and if you want money you must make the bill acceptable to the law-breakers who can supply the means of war. Why, you may ask, cannot a reasonable reform be obtained without agitation? My reply is, that in modern England the power of resistance to change under the Constitution is too strong. Here, as elsewhere, we move in a vicious circle: the exorbitant influence of the well-to-do classes and the excessive rights of the House of Lords make all improvement impossible which is not forced on the governing classes by visible exertions of popular energy. Conservatism begets agitation, and agitation constantly leads to vicious legislation.

Secondly. The whole course of the movement in favor of amending the marriage law is an astonishing proof of the power still retained in a country like England by wealth, by rank, by royalty. That the personal grievances of a limited number of well-to-do persons have had a great deal to do with keeping alive the active demand for reform, is past a doubt. It is equally certain that if the English Constitution had been in reality democratic, the resistance to a change which has been easily accomplished in most of the colonies and is in harmony with popular feeling would have been overcome years ago. Were it not for the House of Lords, the bill which the Peers have thrown out, or one like it, would be passed in an instant. Do not, however, suppose that I mean to represent the lay Peers or the bishops as being in this matter out of harmony with the part of the nation whose ideas the Peerage at once share and influence. Mr. Matthew

Arnold is, with all his talent and boldness, at bottom the prophet of the genteel and wealthy classes. When he mocks at a reform supposed to be demanded by Nonconformists and other Philistines, he undoubtedly commands the sympathy of the readers for whom he writes. There is not, further, I think, much doubt that the unanimous opposition of the bishops fairly represents the average tone of respectable churchgoers. The power of the House of Lords to resist reform is a testimony not so much to the isolated authority of the House as to the immense force still exercised in England by the conservative classes. To any one who knows the English world, the wonder is not that the Lords should have rejected the bill, but that they should nearly have passed it. The explanation lies in a little-noticed but very noticeable feature in English society. The royal family have taken a great interest in the proposed reform of the marriage law. Their feelings are (it may be supposed) a good deal influenced by German sentiment. In any case, the patronage of the Prince of Wales has been of infinite help to the reformers. His wishes have all but outweighed the authority of a unanimous episcopal bench. This fact is well worth the consideration of all who wish to understand the British Constitution. D.

A SUBSERVIENT REICHSTAG.

BERLIN, June 28, 1883.

ON June 12 the German Reichstag, after a long, but often interrupted, session of fourteen months, was closed. The Prussian Landtag, which for nearly the same period has been holding its sittings simultaneously, will dissolve by the 30th. Thus the political campaign has at last come to an end, to the great relief of all concerned and of the public at large, which had rather too many discussions and speeches to follow. Long and protracted as the latter were, the result of the work of the two bodies is not only small, but even humiliating in the extreme. I do not know whether the executive or the legislative power has suffered most; but so much is certain, that, in spite of the endeavors of the Liberals, all that is cherished by the German people has suffered a crushing defeat such as had not been thought possible. To say we are driven along in a reactionary current, would not fairly represent our present condition. Germany is handed over to a Conservative-Clerical alliance which, directed by Bismarck, is, and for the next few years will be, master of the field. It is true, the majority did not carry all its points at the last session: the tobacco monopoly, the threefold increase of duty on timber and on several minor articles, did not pass. Moreover, its victories—as, for instance, the carrying the new ultra-reactionary law on trade, professional business, and peddling (*Gewerbeordnung*)—can do no great practical harm, as the theoretical sophisms are easily refuted by daily life; but these and other measures show the tendency of the present majority, and undermine the respect of the people for the laws. Provisions which would be laughed at in your country by the most innocent backwoodsman have been engrafted on our statute-book. Thus, by an amendment of our squirearchy's, the present law prescribes that a peddler shall behave politely, clean his boots when entering a house, and bow to the owner while offering his wares. A book-peddler must carry with him a list of the books he proposes to sell. Immoral and scandalous books—there is, of course, no definition of the term—shall be confiscated. In this case the prohibition must be enforced all over Germany, and is stronger and more arbitrary than the old censorship which in 1848 contributed to a revolutionary rising. In fact, only catechisms, hymn-books, almanacs, and cyclopædias are broadly tolerated, and the policeman will henceforth decide whether Lessing's, Goethe's, and Schiller's works are moral or ought to be allowed or forbidden. Public showmen, dancing masters, theatre directors must satisfy the police as to their good moral character, and their license can at any time be withdrawn, thus preventing a large investment in a business of this character. The so-called reform of the Prussian civil administration is exclusively calculated to increase the power of the landed aristocracy, and to make all the rest of the population more pliant and submissive to those in power. These gentlemen do not even seem to appreciate the likelihood that some day they may be in a minority.

The passing of the budget ahead of the regular time, although formally constitutional, is, in fact, an attack on the spirit of the Constitution, and so a victory which Bismarck has achieved by the help of the Clericals. The greater part of the Liberals, perceiving that they were a helpless minority, joined the supporters of the Government and postponed some of the most important items of expenses, so that the Chancellor is bound to convene the Reichstag at the beginning of next year to submit to it a supplementary budget. Nevertheless, the defeat of the Reichstag is overwhelming, as, instead of taking up the cudgels, it yielded to the harsh demands of Bismarck. Even the fact that he won his success by a great sacrifice, introducing the imperial influence and wishes into party strife, cannot be pleaded as an offset against the real loss of dignity and authority which the Reichstag has suffered by its meek subservience.

The worst defeat, however, of all is the latest legislation on the relations of the Prussian Government with Rome and the Catholic Church. The advances made by Bismarck would be incomprehensible if his endeavor to gain the support of a powerful party did not control all his political actions. It is more than strange that so prominent a statesman as the Chancellor, led by the desire to subject everything to his dictates, disdainfully rejected the services and assistance of those who were eager to coöperate with him, and is now trying to win over to his side a party whose interests centre in Rome and in the principles of the Roman Catholic Church. In the first ten years after the establishment of the North German Union and the Empire, he carried every measure by the help of the thoroughly unselfish National Liberals (numbering from 150 to 180), and of a few so-called Free Conservatives. Since 1879 Bismarck has only exceptionally succeeded in carrying through his measures with the assistance of the Ultramontanes, who, like clever tradesmen, make their terms beforehand, and who have an advantage over him in the fact that he can no longer fall back on the Liberals, who, on the contrary, fight him like one man, while the Conservatives alone are mentally and numerically too weak. Thus the same statesman who in former years declared Windthorst an intriguing enemy of his country, and solemnly protested that he would never go to Canossa, has now proceeded further south on the road to Rome, and has just voluntarily, at least, if not cheerfully, passed under the Caudine forks.

You will remember that in the course of the last negotiations with the Pope the Prussian Government declared that it would abolish the most obnoxious Falk laws if the Church would bind herself to announce to the civil authorities every nomination to a cure of souls. This concession Rome refused to make, although it has complied with it in many other instances where Protestant princes were concerned. In his note of May 5 to Cardinal Jacobini, Herr von Schloezer declared that his Government would be compelled to regulate its relations to the Church exclusively by its own legislation; that, consequently, it would grant to the Catholic Prussians everything that was reconcilable with the indispensable state authority, and that then the law of Prussia would alone control the ecclesiastical relations. In this contingency a repressive policy would have been required instead of a preventive one, and the Government could easily have dispensed with the above announcement. Herr von Schloezer, of course, in his despatch, did not dilate upon the consequences of his communication, but they are apparent: a priest who did not obey the laws of his country would be punished according to the extent of his disobedience, and, first of all, lose his salary and income from the Government funds. The position of the Prussian Government was clear and impregnable; but, instead of maintaining it, Minister von Gossler, on June 5, even before Rome had answered the above note, lowered his own bid and laid a new bill before the Landtag, which gave up this point of view and asked the announcement only of those priests who are appointed permanently by their superiors. It does not require great wisdom to understand that nothing better could happen to Rome. The bishops, having been in the habit of making only temporary appointments in order to have the lower clergy more dependent on their arbitrariness, will only be encouraged in their old mode of action, and in their own interest will make no permanent appointments, to which the Government henceforth cannot object. And such a bill was passed by the House by a majority of 224 to 107 votes, and was, of course, sanctioned by the Upper Chamber. The cynical insolence of the leaders of the Clerico-Conservative majority knows no bounds. This cannot surprise us in the case of the Ultramontanes, but it is depressing that high Protestant officials and members of the gentry, actuated by spite against the Liberals, join in the triumphal chorus of the Centre.

It is a melancholy fact that, not only with the consent but at the instigation of the Chancellor, all those Falk laws are, or will be, repealed which ten years ago were passed amidst the general applause of the people. In 1873 everybody who tried to avert unnecessary severity was called an enemy of the country and of the Government; to-day the same reproaches are made to those who are not eager to pull down the creation of that time. The same men who then praised Bismarck for having introduced those laws now extol him in an equally lavish manner for doing away with them. What the Chancellor did ten years ago, when he provokingly turned a cold shoulder to the Conservatives, he now does by sacrificing his former friendly relations with the Moderate Liberals to an alliance with the Ultramontanes. Whether it will bear the fruit he expects from it will be shown in a comparatively short time. In my opinion, the unnatural union will not last long, the less because the Centre considers its present victory only as a payment on account of its claims, and will consequently ask more. The next demand will be the subjection of the school to the Church; but if the Government is willing to yield further, there will come a stop in such concessions, which ignore the traditions and the roots of the Prussian policy. Thus we are not at the end, but shall sooner or later reach the second act, of the *Kulturkampf*.

In recapitulating the results of the late parliamentary campaign, it is less the defeat of almost all Liberal measures which is to be deplored, in the interest of our constitutional development, than the bitter and exasperated spirit in which the political antagonists fought each other, the misrepresentation and malice with which the

motives of others were assailed, and the dissolution of old party ties. By this time all the old parties are broken up. The National Liberals are about to fall to pieces, especially since Herr von Bennigsen has resigned his seat and retired to private life. It is not my business at present to examine whether a party leader is justified in leaving the battle-ground, but in fact his doing so means the retirement of moderate German Liberals from our political life. Bennigsen is a very able and patriotic man, of high personal and political standing in life, who was always in favor of peace and compromise. He understands very well that Bismarck's autocratic rule rests on a great national basis, and that not from sheer stubbornness does he rule with an iron rod. But he has at last found out, as he says in justifying his withdrawal, that the embittered and daily growing contest between the Chancellor and Parliament, and the split among the Liberals themselves on the most decisive questions, cannot lead to a salutary solution of the pending difficulties; or, in other words, that middle parties at present can achieve nothing, and must make room for extremists in the political arena. Hitherto Bennigsen has been an independent and disinterested supporter of Bismarck, who, by the retirement of such a devoted friend, suffers an irreparable material and moral loss. In consequence of the new law in favor of Rome, the Free Conservatives have divided. The Centre, in its present complexion, cannot last much longer, and, having gained its ends, in the course of the next session will probably dissolve. I do not complain of this general decomposition—it is in itself a healthy progress; but in our present emergency it is rather doubtful whether it will produce sound and strong new parties. +++

THE LAST YEARS OF MME. D'ÉPINAY.—II.

PARIS, June 27, 1883.

WE left Mme. d'Épinay at the moment when, her husband being entirely ruined and having lost his place of farmer-general, she took a little house in the faubourg de Monceau. Society at first gave her many proofs of sympathy, and after a while, as usually happens, abandoned her and forgot her. Society likes to prove to itself that it has very fine sentiments, but when the proof has been given, it must think of something else. Mme. d'Épinay only kept her real friends. Grimm spent every evening with her. She spent most of her time in the education of her daughter Pauline. Her letters of that period are truly charming; she enjoyed her new life, her little "republic of hens and pigeons," her game of backgammon with Diderot, with Grimm; she enjoyed the absence of M. d'Épinay. When summer came, she went to the Chevrette, which had not yet found a tenant. She helped Grimm in his 'Correspondance Littéraire,' which had much success, and deserved it. Diderot spent much time with them. When she was obliged to leave the Chevrette, she took refuge at La Briche, which was a much smaller country-house. "There is the place to live in," writes Diderot; "not in that magnificent château of the Chevrette: immense ponds, with their shores covered with plants; an old bridge in ruins, and covered with moss; trees which grow as it pleases Nature, planted without symmetry; a space which is not large, but where one does not find one's self."

Mme. d'Epinay saw with much apprehension all the paternal instincts developing in her son Louis. He was not eighteen years old. She resolved to take him off the "pavé de Paris," and sent him to a friend of Grimm's, M. Bethmann, a rich merchant of Frankfort who had settled in Bordeaux, and who consented to take the young man into his office. He was a sort of power in Bordeaux; Catherine II. had appointed him Russian Consul. He was the type of the honorable, laborious, honest, charitable merchant, such as Sedaine has described him. Young d'Épinay, who was much spoiled, could not enter into such a severe and puritanic life; he could not be a clerk. In vain did Mme. d'Épinay give him the best of advice. After a little while M. Bethmann wrote to her that he could no longer keep her son.

Mme. d'Épinay tried in vain to get a place for Louis at Frankfort. She was afraid to see him come back to Paris. Her health was miserable; she had just lost her mother, who had been her constant and dearest friend. M. d'Épinay continued to spend all his time with the demoiselles Verrière. Mme. d'Épinay was afraid of the future of her daughter Pauline. Fortunately, the Vicomte de Belsunce, colonel of infantry, was seduced by the charms of Pauline, and married her. He belonged to one of the oldest families of Navarre, and took his young wife with him to the mountains of Mixe, where he had the hereditary charge of *grand bailli d'espée*. They lived in the old feudal castle of Méharin, which was very different from the Chevrette. Louis d'Épinay was admitted to the bar of the Parliament of Pau. He was agreeable in his manners, wrote pretty verses, was a good musician. His sister and his brother-in-law were influential and respected; but his natural folly was uncontrollable. He made debts, and was obliged to resign. M. d'Épinay asked for a *lettre de cachet*, and his son Louis was taken to Bordeaux and imprisoned, first at the Château Trompette, then at the Fort du Hâ. M. d'Épinay, who ought to have been more indulgent, kept his son in prison till the month of September, 1771; after two years of prison, the young councillor returned to Paris.

The salon of Mme. d'Épinay, notwithstanding her great reverses of fortune, was becoming more important than ever; it was now a literary circle. The foreign diplomats, Count Creutz, Baron Gleichen, Lord Stormont, Marquis Caraccioli, Marquis of Mora, Prince Pignatelli, liked to meet the literary men of the time at the modest house of the clever and amiable lady who was "ni bête ni conquérante." These foreigners liked nothing so much as Paris. When Caraccioli was appointed Vice-King of Sicily, the King made him his compliments: "Sir, you are going to occupy one of the finest places in Europe." "Sire," answered Caraccioli, "the finest place is the one I leave: it is the Place Vendôme." Creutz could never console himself for having lost the suppers of Mme. Geoffrin, when he became prime minister of Gustavus III. It must be admitted that nothing could be imagined more refined, more intellectual, more airy than the French society of that time. There was an indescribable grace in everything—in the manners, in the dress, in the furniture, in the material as well as in the intellectual details of existence. Some seriousness was added to the pleasures of the mind by the discussion of a thousand new philosophical problems, and by the new science called political economy. Theories on taxation were discussed as eagerly as the operas of Gluck and of Piccini. Rousseau had returned to Paris in 1770; he had written the 'Confessions,' and read chapters of them in various places. Mme. d'Épinay was much grieved at some passages of this work. She wrote to M. de Sartine: "The person whom I mentioned to you yesterday has read his work to M. Dorat, to M. Depezay, and to M. Dusaulx. When one takes these gentlemen into the confidence of a libel, you have the right to give your opinion, even if you have not received a formal complaint." She then asks M. de Sartine, who was at the head of the police, to order Rousseau to discontinue reading the 'Confessions.' She and Grimm were treated in them with the greatest severity and injustice. Rousseau saw M. de Sartine, and he stopped reading his libellous work.

Mme. Geoffrin was notoriously afraid of any sort of quarrel. The Abbé Galiani once wrote of her: "Mme. Geoffrin has had the erisypelas, probably because somebody told a piece of news in her house." Grimm laughed at her in this way in his 'Sermon du jour de l'an': "Mother Geoffrin informs her friends that, as in preceding years, it will be permitted to speak in her house neither of internal nor of external affairs; neither of the court nor of the town; neither of the affairs of the North nor of the South; neither of the East nor of the West; neither of politics nor of finance; neither of peace nor of war; neither of religion nor of government; neither of theology nor of metaphysics; neither of grammar nor of music," etc. Mme. d'Épinay was not quite so prudent. Grimm had given her a taste for politics, but she preferred, on the whole, literary and social topics. She wrote faithfully every week to her dear Abbé Galiani, and her letters are quite worth reading, even at this distance. She keeps her good humor in her letters, though she had troubles of all sorts. Her son Louis, who had been appointed lieutenant in the Mousquetaires, had not become wiser; he incurred new debts, left the Mousquetaires, joined the Dragoons, got into trouble, and, finally, was interdicted and retired to Berne. Grimm made longer and longer absences in Germany. Her health grew more and more deplorable. Diderot had gone to Holland and to St. Petersburg; he had been very well received by Catherine: "I found her, as she had been described to me," said he, "the soul of Brutus with the charms of Cleopatra." Grimm himself left for St. Petersburg; he saw Catherine very often. "She is, I assure you, a charming woman, whose house ought to be in Paris. . . . One would swear that she has nothing else to do than to be amiable, and one would not suspect that she has an Empire to rule; she calls it her breadwinner." Catherine took much pleasure in the society of the impetuous Diderot. "If I had believed him," said she, "I should have changed everything in my Empire: legislation, administration, politics, finance." She heard him complacently, and told him finally that he could make all sorts of plans, as he worked only on paper; she was a poor Empress, who had to deal with men.

Louis XV. died in 1774, and the new reign began in a fervor of enthusiasm. Voltaire and all the philosophers thought that their time had come: reform, reform was in the mouth of everybody. Galiani saw further, and wrote to Mme. d'Épinay: "You Freuchmen are just in the state which Titus Livius describes, when the Romans could no longer suffer their pains nor the remedies." After two years of absence, Grimm had returned to France; Galiani complimented him on his return, and, speaking of Diderot and Grimm, said: "We shall not learn much from our two travellers, for one will not say what he has seen, the other will say what he has not seen."

Mme. d'Épinay published in 1775 the 'Conversations d'Émilie.' She was obliged to spend the greater part of her time on her couch, and she found distraction in writing. The 'Conversations' are conversations, or pretended conversations, of Mme. d'Épinay with her granddaughter, Mlle. de Belsunce; they are full of the *sensibility* which was the fashion at the end of the thirteenth century; there is some grace, some delicacy, in the work, but, on the whole,

it is very feeble. Mme. d'Epinay's *esprit* shows only in her correspondence: she required a liberty, a *décousu*, a suddenness which cannot be found in a semi-didactic, semi-pedantic work. Of course, everybody admired the 'Conversations d'Émilie,' even Catherine of Russia. Mme. d'Épinay was consoled in her long illness by the conversion—the word is not too strong—of her son Louis, who lived in Berne, and who there married Mlle. de Boccard, who belonged to one of the patrician families of the Republic. This marriage filled her with joy; she needed consolation, as Grimm had left her again and had gone to Italy. She spent half her time writing to him and to Galiani. Her husband was not converted; the disorder of his affairs became such that he was interdicted in 1777; his family gave him 10,000 livres a year, and he was placed under a sort of guardianship. Grimm came back to Paris that same year, after two years more of absence; he found Mme. d'Épinay very ill, spitting blood occasionally, drinking opium constantly. She had her granddaughter with her, and this girl was her greatest comfort. Émilie was already canoness of a chapter of Notre Dame, and as such was called a Countess. Alas! the conversion of Louis d'Épinay had only been of short duration; no human influence could long stop him in his course of folly. Three years after his marriage he was again in debt, and M. de Boccard was obliged to ask for the interdiction of his son-in-law. Mme. d'Épinay could not do much for her son: she was now almost poor; her pension had been reduced. Catherine of Russia, through the faithful Grimm, was obliged to come to her aid. She became so ill that she could not write long letters; from her deathbed she sent verses to Grimm with some of her gray hair:

> "Les voilà, les cheveux que le temps a blanchis;
> D'une longue union ils sont pour nous le gage.
> Je ne regrette rien de ce que m'ôta l'âge,
> Il m'a laissé de vrais amis."

She remained cheerful, thoughtful, affectionate to the end, and died quietly on the 19th of April, 1783. Galiani wrote to Mme. du Bocage, who informed him of her death: "Mme. d'Épinay n'est plus, j'ai donc aussi cessé d'être." He told her frankly that he could not continue with anybody the correspondence which he had had with Mme. d'Épinay: "My heart is no longer among the living." The volatile little Abbé was capable of a true and profound affection. As for Grimm, he became a father to Mlle. de Belsunce; he made her a demoiselle d'honneur of Catherine, married her to the Comte de Bueil, an officer of the Gardes Françaises, in 1782, and when the Revolution broke out he took Mme. de Bueil and her children with him to Aix-la-Chapelle. In 1793 he conducted them to Gotha. Catherine died in November, 1796, but the pensions which she gave to the family of Bueil were paid to the end, even after the death of Grimm. Poor Grimm survived all his contemporaries; he spent his last years in Gotha, with the daughters of Mme. de Bueil, who became his secretaries. He died on the 19th of December, 1807, leaving all his fortune to Mme. de Bueil, to the dear Émilie, to the granddaughter of his ever-regretted friend Mme. d'Épinay.

Correspondence.

THE *NEW YORK GAZETTEER.*

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of July 5, a writer has called in question the existence of the *New York Gazetteer and Country Journal.* Bound copies of that paper are now to be seen in the rooms of the American Antiquarian Society at Worcester, Mass. The *Gazetteer* was "Printed and Published by SHEPARD KOLLOCK every Tuesday and Friday, at No. 32 Maiden Lane, where subscriptions are taken in at *twenty-four shillings per Annum.*" Each issue numbered eight small pages, with three broad columns on a page. In Vol. ii., No. 66, page 525, top of column three, is this heading: "New York, July 21. By the Sloop Monmouth, Capt. Freneau, in five days from Charleston." Under this is the notice, published at Charleston, by "the secret committee" for the benefit of "the Hint Club."

On Thursday, August 24, 1786, the *Gazetteer* (Vol. ii., No. 82) changed its name and became the *New York Gazetteer or Daily Evening Post.* Then the number of pages was cut down to four, the size of the page increased, and the price of subscription raised to five dollars a year.

Respectfully, JOHN B. McMASTER.

Worcester, July 14, 1883.

PURITAN AUTO-DA-FES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On page 32 of his 'History of the People of the United States,' Mr. McMaster says: "Compared with Cotton or Hooker, a New England minister of 1784 had indeed made vast strides toward toleration. He was a very different man from the fanatics who *burned Roman Catholics at the stake,*" etc. Italics mine.

I am not learned in history, and will make no assertion; but perhaps the *Nation* or Mr. McMaster will be willing to answer two or three questions.

1. What Roman Catholic was ever put to death for his religion by public authority in New England?

2. Was any one ever "burned at the stake" in New England by public authority? If so, who was it?

3. Was any Roman Catholic ever burned for his religion by Puritan authority, even in *old* England?

In the first of the notes at the foot of page 12, it is said: "The Neck seems to have been quite a barrier to the daily travel between Boston and Charlestown." Did people habitually go round over the Neck to get to *Charlestown*, or is the word possibly a slip?

Respectfully yours, JAMES H. CROSBY.

Bangor, Me., July 10, 1883.

CAN IT BE THE COBDEN CLUB?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If the directors of the Mercantile Library had reflected a little, they would probably not have charged the repeated cutting out of the article "Political Economy" from 'Appleton's Cyclopædia' (mentioned in the *Nation*, No. 940) to the vandalism of New York readers. When we consider the strong protectionist flavor of the article, which was written by Henry Carey Baird, and which devotes to Henry Carey about the same amount of space as to Adam Smith, Ricardo, and J. S. Mill combined, need we doubt that the atrocious mutilations were due to the diabolical activity of the emissaries of the Cobden Club? X.

VÁMBÉRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 936 of the *Nation* you speak of Vámbéry as having been "assailed and represented as a fraud by Russian travellers and scholars," as if the main motive of the attacks on him were of political origin. A Turkish officer who had seen much service in the Central Asian provinces, and who knew Vámbéry, told me that his famous expedition to Samarkand consisted simply in going out on the Samarkand route to where he could interview the pilgrims returning, and in getting from them all the details of information of the Samarkand world possible; but that in fact he had never approached that city. This was curiously confirmed by his mistakes in description, which were such as ignorant people and those not accustomed to accurate observation are likely to make, as shown by the Russian descriptions when their expedition occupied the city. My Turkish friend told me the name of the locality where Vámbéry camped, but this I have forgotten.—Yours truly, W.

Vienna, June 30, 1883.

DUELLING AND STREET-FIGHTING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "E. I. R.," of Atlanta, in No. 939, urges the plea for duelling that it prevents street-fighting. But does it? If it does, there is at least one strong ground in favor of the institution. We do not think the plea can be sustained. The "Code," as is well known, provides in express terms, in several events, for posting (see sections 4, 5, and 6 of Seconds' Duty, 'Wilson's Code'). Now, what is posting? It is putting up in the street, or other public place, a placard denouncing the person posted, and it is expected that the person who posts another shall stand by armed to shoot down any one who attempts to remove the placard. This is the theory—a theory put in actual practice in two notable instances in the city of Charleston, some years since. In one of these, four highly-respected gentlemen, differing upon the punctilios in their arrangements for a meeting, in carrying out the theory and obeying the requirements of the "Code," made the corner of Broad and Meeting Streets their battle ground in the full blaze of day, and in this battle three of them were shot—fortunately, no bystanders. The other case is reported in our law-books (1st McMullan's Law Reports, St., p. 126). In this, likewise, four gentlemen were engaged—this time at the west end of Broad Street. Two of them attempted to stick up a paper on a lamp-post, and the other two shot at those who were doing so, in which shooting one of the party was severely wounded. The usual practice under the "Code" now is that, "when practicable, 'a card' published in a newspaper is substituted for 'posting'" (note to late edition of the "Code"). On such a publication, the parties shoot at sight, on the streets or elsewhere, as in Allston's case, to which your correspondent alludes. The "Code," it will thus be seen, regards street-fighting as a contingency, and one which, under certain circumstances, it in effect prescribes.

Street-fighting is not peculiar to the South; it has always been the accompaniment of duelling, and street broils have always been contemporaneous with its practice. The two things have gone together. Look over Doctor Millingen's history of duelling, and see how often public brawls are mentioned. It is one of the curiosities of literature that the person who is perhaps best known in history and fiction as a duellist is equally chronicled as a street ruffian. Every one will recall Thackeray's account of the duel between Lord Mohun and Lord Castlewood, in his story of 'Henry Esmond,' and the delicacy with which they ignored the real cause of enmity and put their difference upon a dispute about cards and the snuffing of a candle. Now, who was Lord Mohun? He was no creature of fiction, but a real historical character. He figures in all the memoirs of the times, and is cited as an illustration of them. Macaulay gives a graphic account of a street-fight in which this hon-

orable character is engaged in "standing by his friend," who, lying in wait for a famous actress, Anne Bracegirdle, endeavors to abduct her, and in the attempt thinks it quite in order to run his sword through the body of her protector. This gentleman Lord and his friend, a captain in the army, swagger sword in hand about the streets, daring the constables to touch them; and, as one of our own juries would in all probability have done had they sat upon his case, the House of Lords, by sixty-nine to fourteen, acquit their accused brother when he is put upon trial before them for this murder.

The death of this duellist is equally historical; full accounts of the duel in which he fell will be found in Bishop Burnett's 'Own Times' and in Doctor Millingen's work, but this is Thackeray's account of it. Thackeray is describing a gathering in which he brings together Bolingbroke and Swift and others of the great men of the time, but which, he says, meant to be a feast, in spite of drink and talk, was as dismal as a funeral. Among other things, he says, they talked about the "Mohocks" and the damage they were doing rushing through the town killing and murdering. In the midst of the attempted merriment, Swift, he tells us, came running into the hall, crying out:

"'Drink no more, my lord, for God's sake! I come with the most dreadful news.'

"'Is the Queen dead?' cries out Bolingbroke, seizing on a glass of water.

"'No; Duke Hamilton is dead; he was murdered an hour ago by Mohun and Macartney. They had a quarrel this morning; they gave him not so much time as to write a letter. He went for a couple of friends, and he is dead, and Mohun, too, the bloody villain who was set on him. They fought in Hyde Park, just before sunset. The Duke killed Mohun, and Macartney came up and stabbed him; and the dog is fled.'"

I am endeavoring, Mr. Editor, as you will observe, to illustrate the state of society in which duelling flourishes, and to show that street broils and fighting have always prevailed as an accompaniment of the custom of duelling. Who were the "Mohocks" about whom Thackeray's dismal party were talking when so startled by the death of Duke Hamilton? A full account of them will be found in Macaulay's 'Hist.,' vol. i., p. 369; Lecky's 'XVIII. Century,' vol. i., p. 522. They were a club of young men of the higher classes, young gentlemen, who, in order to keep their hands in, nightly sallied forth into the streets, sword in hand, swaggering about the town, breaking windows, upsetting sedans, beating quiet men and insulting women, and committing the most wanton and atrocious outrages. See also the brawls which accompanied duelling in Ireland (Lecky, vol. ii., p. 318). When duellists abound, Mohuns will always be found among them; and "Mohocks" usually flourish in the same community, if they form no part proper of their society. E. McC., Jr.

Charleston, S. C., July 4, 1883.

A SEQUEL TO THE BEIRNE-ELAM DUEL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On Saturday, June 20, after the duel between the Virginia editors, Beirne and party stopped for the night at Baltimore. A friend of Beirne's, elated at the success of this hero, put his name down for an invitation to the "Baltimore Club"—the fashionable young men's club of this city. By the constitution of this club, any two governors may veto any invitation. Two governors were found who took, as it proved, the extraordinary view that a criminal flying from justice, with the blood of a fellow-man on his hands, was a proper person *not* to show civilities to, and exercised their right of refusing the invitation. Beirne's friends and friends' friends were aroused. They had a general meeting called, at which, by a vote of four to one, the Club passed a resolution regretting the unseemly conduct of the governors; in fact, the Club humbly apologized to the duellist.

It may in some way affect the disinterestedness of this act that many members of the Baltimore Club visit Richmond, and that the Richmond Club, of which Beirne is a member, on hearing of the aborted invitation, resolved never to invite any member of the former Club to partake of the latter's conveniences. But however we view this little occurrence, does it not prove that you are wrong, and that a duellist is a great man? H. O. P.

Baltimore, July 16, 1883.

JUDGE HOADLY AND THE *COMMERCIAL GAZETTE*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the news summary of your issue of July 5 are the following sentences referring to Judge Hoadly, the Democratic candidate for Governor of Ohio:

"His connection with the Archbishop Purcell troubles, as counsel for the assignee, in which capacity he contended for the sale of church property in the Cincinnati diocese, will also, it is asserted, injure his prospects. A decision in this case has not been rendered, and it is alleged that Judge Hoadly is trying to have it kept back until after the October election."

The first of these sentences contains what may be news to some of your readers, in its information that Judge Hoadly's rank in his profession is such that he was selected by the assignee of the late Archbishop Purcell to conduct one of the most important litigations ever before the courts of any State. It also contains what, perhaps, is of the nature of news, as to the political intelligence of the voters of Ohio, when it tells us that because Judge Hoadly has done his duty as an attorney in this case, by urging the sale of the church property to pay what, he argues, are diocesan debts, his prospects of election are injured.

The second sentence which I quote is an endorsement of a fair sample of that sort of low journalism which disgraces so many American newspapers, and which the *Nation* has always avoided and condemned. The suggestion that Judge Hoadly is, or has been, delaying the decision of the case referred to was first made by the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, and is a specimen of the kind of political warfare to which Mr. Halstead's formerly respectable paper has descended since its *mésalliance* with the organ of "Deacon" Dick Smith. As a Republican, I am glad to say that the coming campaign in Ohio can be fought against Judge Hoadly and his party on honest ground much above the *Gazette* level; and being of counsel representing one of the defendants in the "Church case," I can say with knowledge that this story is so entirely without foundation that there can be no excuse for its first publication. It originally appeared as part of what was printed as a communication to the *Commercial Gazette* from an alleged creditor of the late Archbishop. A reputable newspaper would not have published such a communication without an inquiry as to the sanity of its writer, or some confirmation of his ridiculous charge against a respected citizen.

The limited intelligence of those poor people who loaned their savings to Bishop Purcell on faith was sorely tried by his failure. Some of them lost what minds they had, but the majority have only lost faith in all mankind, and, ever since the exposure in 1879, have been suspecting and accusing of dishonesty every one who has had any connection with the Bishop's estate. This is but the natural result of their ignorance and inability to realize that his great wealth never had shape except in his and their imaginations, and that a great lawsuit cannot be carried through the court of last resort in a few months. The patriot of the *Commercial Gazette* who, for the love of his party and in the face of all that is decent, permitted such a communication to be the sole foundation for that editorial from which you probably gathered your item of news, when he saw the circulation of his little libel aided by the *Nation*, must have gloried in this triumph of "journalism." W.

Cincinnati, July 7, 1883.

[The paragraph in the *Nation's* Summary was based upon a daily-press despatch from Cincinnati, doubtless having the origin above indicated, though not naming any. — Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr.'s recent Phi Beta Kappa address at Harvard, directed against making the Greek language a requirement at our colleges, will be immediately issued in pamphlet form by Lee & Shepard, Boston.

T. Whittaker will publish a revised and popular edition of Mr. F. Saunders's 'Salad for the Solitary,' with more than fifty illustrations.

A new novel, 'An "Ideal Fanatic,"' by Mrs. L. B. Porch, will be published next month by Henry A. Sumner & Co., Chicago.

Roberts Bros., Boston, announce for the holidays Gray's 'Elegy in a Country Churchyard,' with thirty designs by Harry Fenn, and some rejected verses printed with the early editions; Jean Ingelow's 'The High Tide,' with original designs by Church and others; Newman's 'Lead, Kindly Light,' illustrated by William St. John Harper and George R. Halm; and Lord Houghton's 'Good Night and Good Morning,' with illuminations and etchings by Walter Severn.

'Studies in Literature' is the title given to the third number of Dr. Coan's eclectic series, 'Topics of the Times' (Putnams). It opens with *Blackwood's* article on American literature in England.

Mr. Robert S. Minot has translated from the Italian Edmondo De Amicis's 'Jottings about London,' making a thin pamphlet of 63 pages 16mo (Boston: Alfred Mudge & Son).

A companion volume to the record of Wesleyan alumni is the 'Biographical Record of the Alumni of Amherst College,' not so thick (only 670 pages) and printed in larger type, but full of matter suggestive of many romances and much hard work. The theological bias of a New England college appears in the statistics. Of 1,968 graduates 887 have been clergymen, and 92 foreign missionaries, against 348 teachers, 305 lawyers, 233 authors, 181 physicians, and 178 engaged in business. The authors, we suppose, belonged also to the other classes.

From the *Railway Review* office, Chicago, we have received a pamphlet reprint of articles in that periodical on 'The Control of Defective Sight on Land and Sea,' a handy résumé of what has been done legislatively in this direction in this country and abroad.

The Agricultural Department has printed a report on the 'Scientific and Economic Relations of the Sorghum Sugar Industry,' made by a committee of the National Academy of Sciences, with Prof. W. H. Brewer, of Yale College, at its head. The original document was transmitted to Commissioner Loring last November. In the interval the committee have been able to add statistics of the industry for 1882, showing its success in New Jersey and Illinois particularly,

A bibliography of the subject concludes this valuable report.

The May-June issue of *Psyche*, "a Journal of Entomology," bears the numbers 109–110 of vol. v. This handsome small-quarto periodical is the third of the publications which make Cambridge, Mass., a marked scientific centre—viz., *Science*, the *Bulletin* of the Nuttall Ornithological Club, and this organ of the Cambridge Entomological Club, of which the chief editor is Mr. B. Pickman Mann, of the Agricultural Department's Entomological Division. His services, like those of his fellow-editors, are gratuitous, and *Psyche* is perhaps hardly yet self-supporting, though by personal sacrifice it has been kept "on the wing," as we may say, for ten years. Its contents are both purely scientific and practical, and a distinguishing feature is an elaborate bibliographical record.

The progress during the past year in the construction and equipment of the Lick Observatory, on the summit of Mount Hamilton, California, is thus summarized in *Science*: The dome for the twelve-inch equatorial has been entirely completed in a very thorough manner. It is, without any doubt, the most convenient and complete dome of the size in the country. The four-inch transit house and the buildings for the photo-heliograph are in capital working order. They were utilized last December in a very successful observation of the transit of Venus. The walls of the main building are half done, and the cellar for the dome of the thirty-six-inch equatorial is excavated. Many of the original arrangements of the buildings and grounds were only provisional, and these are being replaced by others more substantial and permanent. A brick reservoir, containing 83,000 gallons of water (derived from three springs) has been built during the season; another of 20,000 gallons (spring water), and another of 83,000 gallons (rain water), will shortly be begun. The roads have been extended. The house for the Repsold meridian-circle will be begun in a few weeks, as well as a house for the astronomers, and buildings to contain the appliances for heating and lighting the buildings and moving the dome.

The prizes offered by the manufacturers (the Joseph Dixon Crucible Co.) for drawings executed with their American Graphite pencils may be called, we suppose, protection to American art. The awards have just been announced, from which it appears that out of 354 drawings sent in (from 25 States) 126 were from boys' schools, and nearly twice as many, 238, from girls' schools—a difference in favor of the girls for which we cannot account unless drawing is more generally taught them. The prizes were 128 in number, and more than one-half in cash.

The August number of the *Magazine of Art* (Cassell & Co.) has an illustrated article, among others, on the glorious Plantin-Moretus Museum at Antwerp, and also gives a representation of the bust of Fielding by Margaret Thomas, intended for the Taunton (England) Shire Hall, based upon Hogarth's posthumous pen sketch, which is also shown in facsimile.

In the May-June *Bulletin* of the French School at Athens is discussed a unique delineation on a funeral stele from Athens of an athlete engaged in balancing a heavy ball on his right thigh. This relic is shown in heliogravure, as are also several very interesting additions to the Myrina figurines already illustrated in this publication.

Last November there was organized in London a Costume Society, for the purpose of publishing an annual album or portfolio of illustrations of historic costume taken directly from original sources, either contemporary manuscripts or surviving examples. The first collection of plates has now been issued. Each plate is 11x15 in., is accompanied by a sheet of letter-press description, contains one or more costumes, often with bits of detail on a larger scale, and is signed, not by the draftsman—for the drawings do not aim at any other merit than fidelity—but by the expert who certifies to its exact accuracy. The annual subscription is a guinea, and the success of the society is dependent on an increase in the number of its members. The eminent architect, Mr. E. W. Godwin, is the honorary secretary, and his address is 7 Great College Street, Westminster.

Mr. Bernard Quaritch's Catalogue No. 349 is of books in historical or remarkable bindings from the libraries of sovereigns or distinguished private collectors.

The latest French art periodical is the monthly *Bulletin des Beaux-Arts*—"France de 1500 à nos jours" (Paris: Fabré; New York: F. W. Christern). Its excuse for being is the disturbance of French traditions in art by foreign invasion, and a consequent desire on the part of the editors to recall the glories of the elder French art. Its plan seems to be to give brief biographical sketches, with specimens of the work of the artists commemorated. Woodcuts ornament the text. The queries department promises to be useful. There is also a department for auction sales, edited by Druot.

Mr. Beljames's book, 'Le Public et les Hommes de Lettres en Angleterre au 18e Siècle,' reviewed at length in No. 856 of the *Nation*, has lately been "crowned" by the Académie Française.

The directors of the New York Chorus Society announced a few weeks ago that a series of three concerts would be given during the coming season, under the direction of Mr. Theodore Thomas, if 400 membership subscriptions could be obtained. It is a pleasure to state that already more than half this number of subscribers has been secured. Further subscriptions will be received by the secretary, Mr. C. M. Wiske, at Steinway Hall. The concerts will be private, no tickets being for sale at the door. They will afford an excellent opportunity for those who are unable to secure seats for the Philharmonic concerts, as they will hear at them the same orchestra and conductor, in addition to a large and well-trained chorus of 300 to 400 male and female voices. Last winter the Chorus Society produced three of the most important novelties of the season — Gounod's "Redemption," Schumann's "Faust," and the third act of Wagner's "Parsifal." Its last concert was, beyond comparison, the most finished and inspired musical performance given in New York last season.

—"The chief object," writes a correspondent in London, "of Mr. Freeman's recent account of his impressions of America is to show the essential unity of the English race on both sides of the Atlantic. It is an old story that husband and wife are one also, but, as the henpecked man asked, the great question is, Which one? Now there can be little doubt that the ordinary British observer, in talking about the unity of the two English races, has in his mind the likeness of the American to the normal British type and not any departure from that type toward the American. Indeed, he is often not a little inclined to protest against any threatened Americanizing of British institutions. And yet one of the first and strongest impressions of an American in the habit of crossing over here every two or three years is to the effect that the American invasion of Great Britain goes bravely forward, and that the ultimate conquest of the right little, tight little island is only a question of time. Five years ago the most noticeable symptom of this assault was the sudden appearance in London of many 'American Novelty Stores' for the vending to the native of all sorts of imported American notions and devices. Two years ago the invaders had captured all the groceries and provision stores, and had entrenched themselves behind high walls of tinned fruits and canned eatables of all sorts. This summer the American advance guard has thrown out skirmishers and captured the book-stalls in all the railway-stations. The proportion of American books seen on a British newspaper-stand is not quite as large as the proportion of English reprints scattered over an American stand, but the difference is not very great. All sorts of American books have been reprinted in England—the good and the bad, the merely popular and the honestly worthy. Mr. James, Mr. Julian Hawthorne, and Mrs. Burnett are as secure of their audience on one side of the Atlantic as the other, while Mr. Bret Harte and 'Mark Twain' may find more and warmer admirers here than at home. The delightful little Scotch edition (Edinburgh: Douglas) of Mr. Howells's writings is meeting with great favor; and it has been followed by uniform issues of Mr. Cable's 'Old Creole Days,' Mr. Stockton's 'Rudder Grange,' and Mr. Burroughs's 'Winter Sunshine.' The new 'Riverside' edition of Hawthorne is reissued here, to compete with various cheap issues of the great American romancer. Other publishers have just discovered Theodore Winthrop. Mr. Crawford's 'Mr. Isaacs' and 'Dr. Claudius' have appeared simultaneously on both sides of the water. Of more recent novels there are English editions of 'A Daughter of the Philistines,' of the 'Led-Horse Claim,' and of 'But Yet a Woman'—of which last there are already four different issues by two different houses. Simultaneous with the new Boston Emerson appears an English edition, in six handsome volumes, to be introduced by Mr. John Morley, and published by Macmillan & Co., while a cheap single-volume edition is issued by George Routledge & Sons, and a final volume is added to the selection in Bohn's Library to make it more nearly complete. Needless to say that the 'Correspondence of Emerson and Carlyle' has been one of the great successes of the publishing season. The three American magazines continue to extend their circulation and indeed so fully recognized is the artistic superiority of the American illustrated monthlies that the name of the new English magazine which is to be edited by Mr. Comyns Carr and published by Macmillan & Co., and of which the first number is due in October, is in some sort a challenge to the invader; it is to be *England's Illustrated*."

—It is seldom that a college prize essay can be regarded as a permanent contribution to literature; but this is not too much to say of Mr. George Pellew's essay on Jane Austen (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.). It is a very clever piece of work, in which he analyzes with minute care the part played by Miss Austen in the development of the novel. In analyzing her anti-romantic novels, he is very successful, and the whole essay throws much light on the literary causes which tended, apart from her own individuality, to produce her novels. He points out in an interesting way the immense chasm which separates her simple, natural, superficial novels from the deep, altruistic, philosophical, psychological tale as elaborated by George Eliot, full of the pathos and tragedy of life, not the simple little life of individual human pigmies, but the life of the great *être humain*, with all its wonderful moral harmonies and discords. But after all, is not Miss Austen rather a relief after George Eliot? and is there not, we may add, a law of reaction in novel-writing, which forces a generation which has had an overdose of one sort of writing, to develop a taste for another

and opposite kind? It seems to us by no means impossible that a surfeit of immorality, for instance, might be succeeded by some later Miss Edgeworth, as Miss Edgeworth was succeeded by those who worked against her moralities. Mr. Pellew makes two remarks which will strike many of his readers with surprise (and by the way, they express opinions which are not connected organically with anything else that he says). Walt Whitman he refers to as expressing "the reaction against conventionality in poetry," Zola, "that against conventionality in novels and the drama." We should be inclined to go much further than this, and to say that Zola and Whitman represent the reaction against love of form and beauty in art, and are apostles of a creed which strikes at the root of these somewhat as Louise Michel's and Dennis Kearney's do at certain social and ethical doctrines. Whitman is not the first poet who has expressed an impartiality between vice and virtue, or a reaction against conventions, but as the teacher of equality between beautiful and ugly, clean and dirty, foul and pure, he is a pioneer. To say that he represents a reaction against conventionality is to "draw it very mild."

—The "international" novel bids fair to be as much cultivated on the other side of the ocean as here. Halévy's agreeable 'Abbé Constantin,' and Uchard's rather disagreeable 'Inès Parker' have shown that French writers are quick to appreciate the charm of piquant contrasts of character and of novel situation, and all the new combinations which the new element offers them. They appreciate, too, the opportunity of a freedom of action in the heroine which before could be found only in a widow or a *déclassée*. In the April number of the *Bibliothèque Universelle* is a pretty story of this kind by Jeanne Mairet. The heroine is a young lady—rich, of course, for the *oncle d'Amérique* has been replaced by the *jeune fille d'Amérique*—who comes alone to Paris and is cured of a slight illness by a young and struggling physician. He furnishes the heroic, as his mother, a sort of French Mrs. Pickwick, furnishes the comic, element of the sketch. But the heroine, Miss Nellie, is the most satisfactory that we remember in any of the French stories where Americans are introduced, because she is more like the American girl as we know her here Still, we must remark that the ease and rapidity with which the rich young American surrenders her heart to the suitable young Frenchman in a French story, or to the suitable young Englishman in English stories, is only equalled by the ease with which (in fiction) a penniless hero makes a fortune by writing for the press, and the rapidity with which (in fiction) the débutante, without any previous training in acting, rises to leading parts and a high salary.

—The views commonly received by astronomers with regard to the observations of the transit of Venus in 1769, made by Father Hell at Wardhus, have been that he delayed publishing them so long as to give rise to the suspicion of intending to alter them; that he showed them to no one until he had received the observations made at other stations; and that a cloud was thus thrown over their genuineness. The suspicions thus excited were confirmed in 1835 through the discovery and publication by Littrow of Hell's original MS. journal, which its author had neglected to destroy; and the examination of this journal seemed to show numerous cases of alteration and erasure of the original figures. The reason for all which was supposed to be that Hell desired to publish, not his true observations, but results which should be in the best possible accordance with the observations of others. Professor Newcomb, whose experience with the records of the early observers has been such as to entitle his opinion in these matters to the highest weight, has lately taken advantage of a visit to the Imperial Observatory of Vienna to make an examination of Hell's manuscript, which he has conducted in a very systematic and carefully detailed manner. This investigation leads to results very different from the hypotheses of Encke and Littrow, which have not heretofore been questioned by astronomers who have employed these observations in determining the solar parallax. In brief, his conclusions are, that the belief that there was any suspicious delay in the publication of Hell's observations, or anything in his course to give reasonable ground for a suspicion that he intended to tamper with his observations, is a pure myth; and that, with minor exceptions, it is proved by positive evidence, and beyond serious doubt, that all the essential numbers of observation given by Hell are printed as concluded upon and written in his journal at Wardhus, before there was any possibility of communication with other observers. It is gratifying thus not only to know that Father Hell's recorded numbers may safely be employed as the actual results of observations, but also to see the suspicion of falsification, so long resting on a genuine record, effectively removed by entirely competent authority.

—About eighteen months ago an Exhibition of the History and Geography of Brazil was held in Rio de Janeiro. The National Library, as well as other public and private collections, contributed whatever they possessed of interest in that line, and the exhibition was so full that in order to render its utility permanent the Government ordered a complete catalogue of it to be made and printed. Leuzinger & Sons, of Rio, have just issued the third and last part of this 'Catalogo da Exposição da Historia do Brazil' (viii.-98, 1,734 pp. large 8vo). It is the only existing 'Bibliographia Brasiliensis' that aims at completeness, and it is also a most valuable contribution to "Americana" in general. The editor, Dr. Benjamin Franklin Ramiz Galvão, librarian to the National Library, deserves great praise for the conscientious care he has bestowed on the work, in which 20,337 different works or objects are catalogued, each number being accompanied by a note with the name of the owner or exhibitor, and with an occasional bibliographical remark. The 'Catalogo,' which is well printed, has three parts, geographical, historical, and artistic. The first includes also the bibliography of statistical works and of the periodical literature of Brazil. Each part is subdivided into many classes. The geographical, for instance, has special headings for the coasts, rivers, mountains, boundaries, hydrographical and topographical charts, special geography of the provinces, etc. The historical section embraces civil, administrative, ecclesiastical, diplomatic, military, literary, economical, biographical, and natural history. The work is, indeed, very exhaustive. An excellent index of authors fills eighty-two pages, the name of each author being accompanied by the number of his works that were exhibited. Thus, five numbers are assigned to Humboldt and three to Darwin. The present Emperor appears eleven times; L. Agassiz, seventeen times; and Professor Hartt, who was his pupil and devoted his too short life to Brazilian geology and anthropology, thirty-five times. The 'Catalogo' is absolutely one of the most important works that have been printed in Brazil.

—It is not often that one meets with an historical lecture so comprehensive, compact, and lucid as is Dr. Alfred Wiedemann's 'Die ältesten Beziehungen zwischen Ægypten und Griechenland' (Leipzig, 1883), delivered at the University of Bonn in October last. Dr. Wiedemann had previously proved his familiarity with Egyptological studies by his 'Hieratische Texte aus den Museen zu Berlin und Paris' (1879), and a thorough knowledge of Egyptian and Greek history in their relations to each other by his 'Geschichte Ægyptens von Psammetich I. bis auf Alexander den Grossen' (1880). The reader who is not aware of his previous conclusions as to these international relations would expect from him, as an Egyptologist, a strong leaning toward the wonderland of the Nile, in tracing the earliest channels through which culture, science, and art flowed into the lands of the Hellenes. Few Egyptologists are free from such a bias, and, like the decipherers of hieroglyphs, the decipherers of cuneiform inscriptions are generally much inclined to magnify the importance of the field which they cultivate in the compass of human development. Dr. Wiedemann pleasantly (unless for those who are fond of the strange and marvellous) disappoints such expectation. He is the soberest cultivator of Egyptian lore whom we have ever hit upon. He discards, almost without reserve, all the assumptions—whether founded on Greek myths and historical legends or on conjectural expositions of monumental inscriptions—of a very early contact of the Hellenic isles and coastlands with the shores of the Nile. Formerly the hieroglyphic term *'hanebu*, which in late trilingual inscriptions corresponds to Hellenes, was believed to have that meaning also on monuments of the fifteenth century B. C. But this lecture shows that *'hanebu* signifies 'northern people,' and was in early times used to designate the people of southwest Palestine and even of the Egyptian Delta, becoming the term for Greeks only with a late change of the geographical perspective. Equally erroneous was De Rougé's interpretation of the inscription of Pharaoh Merneptah, of the close of the fourteenth century, concerning his victory over "the people of the sea"—an interpretation which turned the heads of many writers on those remote periods, from Chabas to Lenormant, by opening before them the vista of a naval descent on Egypt by a confederation of nations, in which Achæans, Tyrrhenians (Tyrsenians, or Etruscans), Sardinians, and Sicilians appeared side by side with Lycians and Libyans. But the grand discovery is now regarded as exploded—by Brugsch, Kiepert, Duncker, and almost everybody else—and Dr. Wiedemann presents the reasons why the *Akausha* cannot be identified with Achæans, the *Turisha* with Tyrseni, the *Leku* with Lycians, etc., and which render it highly probable that all these confederates of the Libyans specified in the inscription were themselves maritime tribes of Libya.

—Dr. Wiedemann also contends—though rather by way of assertion than of argument—against the view current among the ancients as well as among modern archæologists, that the Greeks borrowed many of their mythological conceptions and images from the Egyptians. According to him, the comparisons of Athena with Neith, of Dionysus with Osiris, of Heracles with Khem, of Zeus with Amon, and of Hermes with Thoth, all rest on resemblances in external details; in principle, origin, and function these divinities are entirely heterogeneous. The Egyptian ferry of the dead has been compared with the bark of Charon, but the resemblance is only on the surface. It transported mummies and mourners, not across a Styx to the land of shades, but across the Nile to the necropolises in the western mountains, whence we frequently see the mourners returning gayly to their homes on the eastern banks. Nor is the sphinx of the Greeks like that of the Egyptians. The former is a fabulous creature, a mixture of animal and human elements, resembling the colossal winged

bulls of the Assyrian temples or the cherubim of the Hebrew prophets; the latter is nothing but a plastically executed gigantic hieroglyph, representing an animal specially sacred to a certain god with a head of a certain king, and expressing the filial relation of the Pharaoh to the divinity. Criticism, Dr. Wiedemann asserts, has also proved the comparatively late origin and historical worthlessness of the Greek legends of Egyptian immigrations into Hellas; they were invented to explain similarities of features. He also defines the essential differences between Greek and Egyptian temple sculpture, which strongly militates against the assumption that Greece was in plastic art the pupil of Egypt. The excavations at Troy and Mycenæ have not brought to light a single object clearly recognizable as originally Egyptian. The Greek alphabet alone is of Egyptian derivation, but it was the Phœnicians who taught it the Hellenes. Direct communication between Greece and Egypt began only, as Herodotus correctly tells us, when Psammetichus, about the middle of the seventh century, opened the Delta to Hellenic colonists. The influence of these communications was mutual, it grew rapidly, and it was Egypt which received more than it gave. This land was on the decline, and the Hellenic race was in its full vigor.

—Herr Cauer, in his *atelier* at Kreuznach, has been making some experiments that may help to settle the long-debated question how much color the ancients used in their sculpture, and the other question whether the moderns can endure as much on theirs. For it is undeniable that painted marble, as it has been painted in the present century, looks altogether too much like wax-work to please a public brought up on pure white. But Herr Cauer proceeds in a different way. A close study of the frieze of the Parthenon convinced him that it had been gilded. It occurred to him that it might have been colored over the gilding. He tried the experiment on some of his own statuettes, of marble, plaster, and terracotta. It succeeded so well that he next tried it on a restored plaster-of Paris casting of the Panathenaic procession (the Parthenon frieze). The whole was first gilded; then over that he painted very lightly some colored ornamentation, using blue (for the groundwork), red, black, brown, green, and white. The gold underneath softens all these colors, it is said, and for some reason prevents the distasteful wax-work effect, and, what is more, it strengthens both the lights and the shadows, an effect which would be very much needed, in the comparatively dark original position of the frieze within the double row of columns that surrounded the temple—another argument in favor of the belief that Herr Cauer has discovered the process used by Phidias. If the accounts given can be trusted, the German sculptor has revived a method which will wonderfully increase the effectiveness and especially the lifelike character of sculpture.

—One of the most interesting commentaries on one of the most interesting points of Ionian archæology, is the book of the Florentine voyager Christopher Bondelmonte, 'Of the Islands of the (Greek) Archipelago,' containing the observations made during a voyage undertaken about the beginning of the 15th century. Of this book three manuscript copies are known to exist or to have existed—one in Florence, supposed to be the original, one in London, and one in Paris. That in Florence has evaded all late researches, but a recent discovery at Constantinople, in the Seraglio Library, by E. Miller, of a Greek translation of Bondelmonte's book clears up many points of the narrative hitherto incomprehensible. Mr. S. Reinach, one of the thorough and admirable archæologists whom the liberality of the French Government trains in the school of Athens, and whose joint work is the greatest item in the classical archæological progress of to-day, has put into a brochure his article in the *Revue Archéologique* for January-February, 1883, containing a careful and subtle collation of this Greek MS. with the Latin text hitherto known, with the result above indicated. The studies of Bondelmonte are of the first importance for the mythology of Delos, where Mr. Reinach and his confrères have done so much admirable work during the past six years, and Mr. Reinach's analysis of the information developed by the collation of the new MS. with the old is a model of thoroughness and insight. When we remember that in the latter part of the 17th century the Parthenon was intact, and that Bondelmonte, as Mr. Reinach shows lucidly by his collation, found more than a thousand statues in Delos, including one which his company with all their ship's tackle were unable to raise upright, we can gather how much more the relics of the antique civilization have had to suffer from the ravages of human ignorance than from time. The brochure of Mr. Reinach is published by Joseph Baer, Paris.

—The last number of the *Historische Zeitschrift* (vol. 50, Heft 1) contains an article by Arnold Gädeke which passes in review several recent works upon Mary Queen of Scots, especially the paper by Harry Bresslau upon the casket letters, in the *Historisches Taschenbuch* for 1882. Bresslau agrees with Schiern (whose 'Bothwell' was reviewed in the *Nation*, May 20, 1880), that Mary was in love with Bothwell, and had an understanding with him; but believes that all the casket letters were genuine except No. 2, the longest and most important. Holding that this was forged, he holds that Mary's connivance in the murder of Darnley cannot be considered proved. Gädeke takes issue with him here, giving strong arguments for the genuineness of this letter as well as the rest. These arguments touch the language and the spelling, as well as the internal coherence of the letter itself. For the matter of that, it appears to us, as we said in our review of Prof. Schiern's work, that when the Queen's guilty passion for Bothwell is once admitted, one need not hesitate to believe her guilty of conniving at the murder. The motive was present, and the circumstantial evidence against her is so strong that her only defence can be the unlikeliness of the crime—her character, her reconciliation with her husband, her innocence as regards Bothwell. Once give up these, and the crime becomes likely instead of unlikely.

—A universal history of literature from the earliest times and among all civilized peoples down to the present day, with illustrations from every literature, including extracts from the most illustrious living Italian and foreign writers, would seem, in Dante's words, *non è impresa da pigliare a gabbo*, even in this age of primers. That this vast undertaking is to be comprised in three series of six volumes each, and to be accomplished in two years, heightens our amazement, while it inspires very natural doubts as to the character of the result. It would, however, be unfair to condemn this enterprise on general principles, for the name of the author, Professor Angelo De Gubernatis, is a guarantee that the work will be done in a scholarly manner and as thoroughly as is consistent with the plan of the history. The author is one of the most accomplished of living scholars, well versed in the languages of the Orient and Occident, and withal a man of fine literary sense and general culture. The result of his work cannot fail to be valuable and interesting to a large class of readers who are obliged to depend on books of this kind for their knowledge of foreign literatures. Two volumes have thus far appeared, containing the history of dramatic literature with selections ('Storia universale della Letteratura': Vol. i. Storia del Teatro drammatico, vol. ii. sezione 1, Florilegio drammatico; Teatro orientale, antico e cristiano; sezione 2, Teatro moderno. Milan, 1883, 16mo, pp. 598, 775). In the seventeen pages devoted to the *Teatro sacro cristiano*, the liturgical origin of the mediæval drama is clearly set forth, together with the various stages through which it passed in Italy, such as the *laude*, *devozione*, and *sacra rappresentazione*. A slight error is made in referring the play on the subject of the Wise and Foolish Virgins (technically known as the *Sponsus*) to Provençal and not to Old-French literature. In the corresponding division of the *Florilegio* are given no less than fifteen specimens of this class: scenes from the "Χριστὸς πάσχων," attributed to Gregory Nazianzenus, from the Pseudo-Querulus, from two of Roswitha's plays, from a *laude* of the 13th century, a *devozione* for Good Friday of the 13th or 14th century, and from nine Italian *sacre rappresentazioni*. The English Theatre occupies but sixteen pages, nearly seven of which are devoted to Shakspere. In the *Florilegio* are given but five extracts: a scene from Marlowe's "Faust," the famous soliloquy from "Hamlet," a scene from the "School for Scandal," and one from Byron's "Our Boys" (*I Nostri Bimbi*), of which the author says: "It was played in England for two years in succession and was also successful on the Italian stage." As the reader can easily see, there is a lack of proportion in the work, but on the whole it is very meritorious.

STEPHEN'S HISTORY OF THE CRIMINAL LAW OF ENGLAND.—II.

A History of the Criminal Law of England. By Sir James Fitzjames Stephen, a Judge of the High Court of Justice, Queen's Bench Division. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883. 3 vols.

Sir James Stephen is primarily a logician and controversialist; he is secondarily an historian and a legal antiquarian. His book reflects the character of its author. It is in the main a work on criminal jurisprudence; it is secondarily a history of criminal law. But though this is so, the originality and importance of Sir James Stephen's treatise lie in its historical character. The essays on jurisprudence which it contains are full of interest, but they neither exhibit a new side of their author's mind nor open a new field of thought: their merits are great, but among these merits can hardly be numbered originality. Of the historical portion of the book, one may speak in very different terms. There is (odd though the assertion sounds) real originality in the attempt to trace out the development of a province of English law. Sir James Stephen deserves in this matter the praise always due to a man who has broken fresh ground. The only English writer who has attempted much in the way of recording the history of English law is Reeves; and Reeves, who at the best was pedantic and unreadable, has been spoiled for the present generation by the pretentious editorship of Mr. Finlason. Indeed, Sir James Stephen's work has appeared but just in time to save Englishmen from the reproach that the legal history of their country excited more interest abroad than in England. Of the essential merits of M. Glasson's work, we are, we frankly admit, not yet in a position to speak decisively; but a mere glance at the 'Histoire du Droit et des Institutions politiques, civiles et judiciaires de l'Angleterre' proves that a French professor has, at any rate, attempted to gain a general view of the law of England which is not given by any Eng-

lish or American writer. As regards one large province of law, Sir James Stephen's labors have saved the English people on both sides the Atlantic from reproach. We may feel well assured that no foreigner has ever ventured on such a complete survey of English criminal law as has been undertaken and carried out by the English Judge.

Nor are the boldness and originality of his design by any means the sole or the greatest of Sir James Stephen's merits. His training, indeed, as a lawyer, and the fact that he approaches the history of law from the legal rather than from the historical side, does to a certain extent affect injuriously the flow of his narrative. To narrate with perfect clearness, to tell a story well, simple as the matter seems, is a gift possessed by very few among professed historians. Macaulay's eminence (as has been well pointed out by the best of his critics) lies in his strictly speaking "singular" talent for narration; and it is not to be expected that an author who takes up historical narrative as something like recreation from a quite different class of labors, should exhibit a skill in the art of story-telling which is not possessed by an historian of such preëminent literary ability as Motley or Froude. But if Sir James Stephen falls short in some of the acquirements which ought to be possessed by writers wholly devoted to historical composition, he may legitimately boast that he has, in more respects than one, revealed to the world aspects of English history which had escaped the scrutiny of regular historians. Our aim in this article is to direct the attention of our readers to a few among the many instances in which Sir James Stephen, while occupied in his proper task of tracking out the growth of legal institutions, doctrines, or practices, has thrown new light on the general course of English history.

What, for example, can be more instructive to an historian than the whole of Sir James Stephen's chapter on libel and kindred offences? The law of defamation reflects the different views held by different generations as to the relation between subjects and their rulers. If the sovereign of the state be looked upon as something essentially superior to the subject, censure of the Government is regarded as prima facie a crime only to be excused by very special and strong circumstances of defence. If, on the other hand, the Government be regarded as the servant of the people, the so-called subjects have, like any other masters, the right to criticise the so-called rulers, limited only by considerations of expediency or of justice to individuals. A perusal of the twenty-fourth chapter of the work before us will show any one how curiously the gradual change from one of these views to the other of the relation between people and king has been recorded in the equally gradual change of the law of libel.

"The main stages in the history [of the law of libel] are as follows. Under the Plantagenets the law of libel was comparatively unimportant, though the offence of libel, defined in the most general terms as a defamatory writing, was known to the law. Under the Tudors and Charles I., the law of libel became highly important and prominent. The definition of the offence was stringent though vague, and the law was administered by the Star Chamber, which decided both the law and the fact. During the latter part of the seventeenth century and into the eighteenth, the Court of King's Bench adopted the doctrines of the Court of Star Chamber, but as the mode of trial was by jury, efforts were made by very distinguished advocates—and especially, toward the end of the century, by Erskine—to get juries to adopt, for practical purposes, a definition of the offence of libel different from the one acted upon in earlier times. This caused the famous controversy finally ended by Fox's Libel Act, passed in 1792. The successors of Lord Mansfield and Mr. Justice Buller never gave up the view of the law which their predecessors had adopted, though they modified the practice in obedience to the directions of the Libel Act; but the change of public sentiment as to the free discussion of political affairs has practically rendered the law as to political libels unimportant, inasmuch as it has practically restricted prosecutions for libel to cases in which a libel amounts either to a direct incitement to crime, or to false imputations upon an individual of disgraceful conduct in relation to either public or private affairs. This history I now propose to relate in detail."

Now, this paragraph, which sums up in a few lines the results of pages, suggests at every turn reflections on the course of history. The stringency, for example, of the law under the Tudors and Charles I., emphasizes the extraordinary difference between the political sentiment of the sixteenth or seventeenth century and that of the eighteenth or nineteenth. The allusion to the adoption by the Queen's Bench of the doctrines of the Star Chamber recalls an often-forgotten fact—namely, that the jurisdiction of the Star Chamber was created, was tolerated, and was extended partly because the action of a court which has now become a byword for oppression was from some points of view beneficial, and met wants of the time which were not provided for by the common-law tribunals. The Star Chamber, it has been sometimes said, was a criminal court of equity. The dictum exaggerates the merits of an institution which fell amidst the universal execration of Englishmen, and one might with equal truth say that the courts of equity were in their origin little better than a civil Star Chamber. Still, a statement which is a one-sided apology for an indefensible institution does represent a forgotten side of a curious institution. The Star Chamber was destroyed because its tyranny was unbearable, but it obtained the power to tyrannize because the exercise of its authority was at one time beneficial.

The allusion, again, to the famous controversy which ended in Fox's Libel Act reminds us of the work done by the eighteenth century—namely, the carrying out of the transition from the ideas of the sixteenth and seventeenth to those of the nineteenth century. It recalls also the peculiarity of the mode in which this transition was achieved in England. A political controversy was fought out by legal methods, and the field of battle was the law courts. Mansfield and Erskine equally affected to maintain the established principles of the law; but the true point at issue between them was rather what the law ought to be than what it was. A revolutionary change was turned into a dispute over judgments and precedents. "The law," writes Sir James Stephen, "was modified, in the course of a long series of years, by changes which took place in public sentiment." We should ourselves prefer to say that the law was never really fixed, but represented the fluctuating and changing sentiment of the nation. But, whatever be the right way of stating the mode in which the law of England was modified, "with hardly any legislative interference," the fact of this modification by means of forensic conflicts is of supreme importance. There was but one country in Europe where revolution could thus have taken the disguise of conservatism; and if the kind of fiction under which changes were effected in England during the last century was, so to speak, the product of the soil, it is worth notice that the age was an age of fictions. The appeal to the law of nature abroad was neither more nor less an appeal to a fiction than were most of the theories, countenanced by Tories and Whigs alike, as to the rights whether of the people or the Crown under the English Constitution.

But we should greatly underestimate the historical value of Sir James Stephen's volumes if we let our readers suppose that the only way in which his book elucidates the annals of England is by throwing important light on the changes in the sentiments of the English people. The 'History of the Criminal Law,' at more than one point, directly suggests new solutions of very difficult historical problems. The readers of the *Nation* have more than once had their attention called to what may be termed the paradox of Puritanism. This paradox consists in a strange and, to a superficial view, incomprehensible combination of triumphant success, immediately followed by complete failure. From 1603 to 1660 the Puritan cause, to all outward appearance, triumphed over every obstacle; the Restoration of 1660 turned out to be not only a temporary defeat, but a complete overthrow of the whole forces of Puritanism. What is the explanation of a puzzle which most historians hardly attempt to solve? Its solution must probably be sought in several distinct causes; but we confess that we have never read any work which suggested so forcibly as does the one we are now considering, the existence of one cause which is almost sufficient of itself to account both for the victories and for the defeat of Puritanism. This cause is the dislike felt by the English people more than two centuries ago, as strongly as it is felt now, of clerical domination. No one who has not studied Sir James Stephen's account of the ecclesiastical courts under the Tudors can realize to himself the extent to which clergymen were then enabled to interfere with the domestic life of English laymen. These courts somewhat resembled the courts of modern police magistrates, with this difference, that the ecclesiastical tribunals "dealt with all sorts of irregularities as being sinful, whilst magistrates would punish, if at all, only on the ground of their being statutory offences." They had jurisdiction over all offences arising out of the relation of the sexes. Hence they were enabled to interfere with all the most private affairs of domestic life. The sanction, it is true, by which the ecclesiastical courts enforced their decrees was excommunication, but excommunication was much more than mere moral or spiritual censure. It might involve a variety of civil disabilities, and a refusal to submit to an enjoined penance led ultimately to imprisonment. The jurisdiction of these courts has, as Sir James Stephen well points out, a far more important place in general history than has usually been assigned to it. The difficulty at the present day is to understand how people submitted to it.

"It is difficult even to imagine a state of society in which, on the bare suggestion of some miserable domestic spy, any man or woman whatever might be convened before an archdeacon or his surrogate, and put upon his or her oath as to all the most private affairs of life: as to relations between husband and wife; as to relations between either and any woman or man with whom the name of either might be associated by scandal; as to contracts to marry; as to idle words; as to personal habits; and, in fact, as to anything whatever which happened to strike the ecclesiastical lawyer as immoral or irreligious."

Add to this the all-important consideration that, under the influence of Laud, the interference of the clergy and of the clerical courts was increased rather than diminished, just at the time when popular feeling was becoming more and more adverse to a system which had always been oppressive; and that the Stuarts mismanaged matters so much as to bring upon the Crown all the odium which was gradually accumulating against the clergy.

"There is no reason to believe that the activity of the ecclesiastical courts as instruments of moral correction was at all abated as the year 1640 approached. In the court of the Arch-

deacon of London, between the 27th of November, 1638, and the 28th of November, 1640, the Judge held thirty sittings, the number of entries of causes being more than 2,500. The number of persons prosecuted must have been considerably less, allowing that each person attended on two or three court days. The index, however, would show that about 1,800 persons were before the court in that year, three-fourths of whom, it may be calculated, were prosecuted for tippling during divine service, breaking the Sabbath, and non-observance of saints' days."

The last-mentioned offence is specially noticeable, for it must have involved the punishment of ardent Puritans for the refusal to comply with what seemed to them Papistical superstition. Note, also, that in the background stood the grand support of great and of petty tyranny —the Star Chamber. As one meditates upon these facts, one ceases to wonder at the hatred kindled among large masses of the people, in the first place against the clergy, and in the second place against the Crown, which had, for almost the only time in English history, identified itself with clerical domination. King James's doctrine, "No bishop, no king," was likely enough to lead to the practical conclusion that it was better not to be ruled by a king if this was the only condition on which the nation could escape the rule of the bishops. Now if, as seems highly probable, a growing hatred to clerical interference was at least one main cause of the unpopularity of the two first Stuarts, it is easy to perceive that the very sentiment which, in a measure, accounts for the fall of the monarchy, also, in a measure, accounts for the fall of the Commonwealth. The fall of the monarchy meant the fall of clerical despotism; the Restoration, whatever evils it entailed on the nation, meant the fall of Puritanic tyranny. The Restoration, moreover, did not restore either the Star Chamber or the system of Laud. The Revolution, while it freed the nation from all danger of royal despotism, did not restore that rule of the saints which, whatever was its true character, had impressed itself indelibly on the memory and the imagination of the people as the reign of hypocrisy. The people of England, in short, were, throughout all the political changes of the seventeenth century, consistent enough in their course of action: they wished to get rid of all interference, whether by clergy or by presbyters, in the affairs of domestic life. This end the English people attained. They cared little for the ecclesiastical and civil ideals either of Laud, of Milton, or of Cromwell; but they attained that kind of freedom from ecclesiastical despotism which Englishmen in all ages have felt to be an essential element in the comfort and happiness of life.

This, at least, is the reading of the history of the seventeenth century suggested by Sir James Stephen's investigation into the records of the criminal law. The suggestion is well worth consideration; it gives a new point to verses which, though they refer to the contests between England and Scotland, sum up roughly, but we suspect truly enough, the moral drawn at the time by the mass of Englishmen from the great conflict between Puritanism and the Stuarts:

> "He who considers well will find indeed,
> Till Holy Island parts us, not the Tweed,
> No other force could you from us seclude;
> No war was ever like a bishops' feud.
> All litanies in this have wanted faith:
> There's no 'deliver us from bishops' wrath.'"

SARMIENTO'S SPANISH AMERICA.

Conflicto y Harmonias de las Razas en América. Por D. F. Sarmiento, autor de Civilizacion y Barbarie. Vol. i. Buenos Ayres. 1883.

THIS volume is dedicated to Mrs. Horace Mann, an old acquaintance of the author; and a letter to that lady, signed on Christmas Eve, 1882, forms a "Prologue" to it. The septuagenarian ex President of the Argentine Republic recalls in his epistle his active career, largely devoted to the promotion of education, in which the late Horace Mann was his principal guide, and alludes to some of his former publications—'Civilizacion y Barbarie,' 'Vida de Abran Lincoln,' 'Las Escuelas de los Estados Unidos'—in which he set the men and institutions of the United States as shining examples before his countrymen. A strict imitation of the constitution of this country has been carried out in his, but it has not remedied the evils which it was expected to remove. These evils are not local, nor restricted to the Plata basin alone, nor even to all South America. They are common to Ecuador and Bolivia, Venezuela and Mexico. An immense material advance, it is true, has taken place in some parts; the aspect of the large cities has been wonderfully changed; palatial buildings, railways, steamers, telegraphs, new industries, have been created—partly in anticipation of the future—and presses, journals, colleges, and universities have been multiplied. But the political situation is perplexing and alarming, and demands serious consideration.

The new generation in the author's native republic, having been reared in peace, seems to be losing its way; there is dangerous retrogression; while the theory is excellent, the practice is wretched. Four thousand doctors of law have been created since the reorganization of the universities in 1853, and "in chambers and congresses, councils and cabinets, right is being more and more ignored. Lawgivers and executives vie with each other in violating the precepts which were sacred thirty years ago." Constitutional principles are learned in Spanish America as Hindoo children in India are taught by missionaries the doctrines of Christianity. The Hindoo pupil, at the examination, answers with the ready skill of a theologian. "Then follow these questions and answers: 'Are you a Christian?' 'No.' 'Do you want to be one?' 'No.'" Presidents of Venezuela, Ecuador, and other republics have themselves reinstalled again and again by servile tools, and a servile press lauds them as great men. Elections without a register of votes, majorities always given for those in power, insurrection deemed the only remedy of abuses, and servility here, revolution and anarchy there, corruption and insecurity everywhere—this is the general tableau. Add material stagnation or relapse in Peru, Bolivia, Paraguay, and Ecuador. The material advance made elsewhere, as at the mouth of the Plata and recently in Mexico, is mainly the result of foreign energy, while the resistance is native, constant, and general. The common roots of the evil lie deep. European prejudice finds them exclusively in the race peculiarities of the Spanish Americans. This view is both inadequate and injurious; a more comprehensive examination is required, and the aged statesman undertakes it—saddened by disappointments, but far from despairing, and invigorated by manly study. His historical survey is to embrace "both Americas," and set forth resemblances and contrasts, "conflicts and harmonies"; but his inquiring eye is mainly fixed on South America, and especially the Argentine Republic. The "Prologue" is followed by "Prolegomena," which open thus:

"We are going to ask ourselves, perhaps for the first time, who we were when we were called Americans, and who we are while we call ourselves Argentines.

"Are we Europeans?—So many copper-colored faces contradict our assumption.

"Are we aborigines?—Scornful smiles of our fair complexioned ladies give us the only answer.

"Mixed people?—Nobody likes to be thus classed, and there are thousands who dislike to be called either Americans or Argentines.

"Are we a nation—a nation not made up of accumulated materials, alloyed and cemented?

"Argentines?—How far, and since when? It is desirable to make this clear. . . .

"It is our purpose to descend to the depths of the social composition of our populations; and if examination should disclose the fact that we spring from distinct origins, scarcely fused into a common mass, we will penetrate upward to the remote heights whence the confluents have come down, in order to estimate their impelling power, the salubrity of the waters that formed them, and the nature of the sediments which they have dragged along."

This is the key to the book. After some wanderings through prehistoric ages and the airy domain of ancient myths, in which he indulges, with a strong inclination to demonstrate primeval connections between the two hemispheres of the globe, and the common origin of their primitive inhabitants, Señor Sarmiento passes over to a rather fugitive examination of the conditions in which the Spanish conquest found and left some of the principal native races of America, Quichuas, Guaranís, etc. Some of these pages are quotations from Don Juan de Ulloa or reproductions of characteristic old Spanish ordinances; a few of them are, unfortunately, twice inserted, and in part (like many of the foreign titles, citations from Latin authors, or English names, throughout the book) are shockingly misprinted. The barbarism that marked the subjugation and partial extermination of the aborigines is here brought into full relief. Our author, however, though unreservedly branding the iniquities of conquerors, rulers, and priests, is entirely free from maudlin sentimentality in favor of the victims. He detests the Christians who hunted the free Indians or worked the enslaved to death, but has no admiration for the savages who succumbed. (No Anglo-Saxon writer, free from all taint of both Spanish and American blood, could write with less bias toward either side.) He is especially hard on the Araucanians, and he quotes Ercilla, whose epic has immortalized them, and Molina, who describes them as a nation gifted with the noblest of virtues, only to sneer at those fantastic pictures. He admits that the modern Chilenos owe some of their bravery to the Araucanians, but only to those idealized in Ercilla's martial strains, whom they have not unsuccessfully striven to imitate—as in the late war with Peru, to which he applies these sonorous verses of the "Araucana":

> "Hubo allí escaramuzas sanguinosas,
> Ordinarios rebatos y emboscadas,
> Encuentros, y refriegas peligrosas,
> Asaltos, y batallas aplazadas,
> Raras estratajemas engañosas,
> Astucias y cautelas nunca usadas,
> Que aunque fueron en parte de provecho,
> Algunas nos pusieron en estrecho."

A slight irony seems to lurk in the last line of the quotation, and possibly Señor Sarmiento's remarks concerning the Araucanians have been accented with the intention of showing the trans-Andine neighbors of his republic that there is as little reason to boast of consanguinity with the western division of the "Arauco-Pampean" race, though improved by agricultural habits, as there is of consanguinity with the low eastern barbarians who roam over the Pampas of the Argentine Confederation.

Señor Sarmiento devotes some interesting pages to the grand Paraguayan enterprise of the Jesuits. "A religious association, animated by a wonderful spirit of activity, working under severe discipline and solely with the arms of persuasion possessed by the mentally superior white race, undertakes the task of organizing societies on a savage basis and a religious principle, with a theocratic government involving absolute spiritual tutelage. Such were the famous Missions of Paraguay, which for two centuries filled the world with their glory—produced, in fact, by eminent historians and pane-

gyrists of the order"—until the Spanish civil Government's jealousy caused the deportation of the *padres* to Europe, leaving, however, 60,000 Indians to be kept by the authorities imposed upon the Missions "in the picturesque towns adjoining the altars at which they were accustomed to pray and chant to the Holy Virgin rather than to God." The attempt involved a revolution more important than those proposed by Rousseau, Fourier, or Saint-Simon. The social experiment of the Jesuits was carried out in a blooming region and a placid clime, worthy of the paradise to be created. The work went on propitiously, but "when the artificial plant blossomed, it faded away and vanished from the face of the earth, as if broken by the southwest blast. . . . The support upon which it was leaning left it at the wrong time." The Jesuits bequeathed their lamentable Utopia and their system of administration to Doctor Francia, and Paraguay perished under Francia's second successor. The fatal blunder of the Jesuits, our author thinks, was community of possessions, which undermines every similar organization, and without which even the Mormons prosper, though building on a foundation of superstition resembling that of the Missions. In reality, however, the pretended community of property established by the learned missionaries was a sham. "The Indians were unsalaried laborers, fed and clothed out of common storehouses—baptized, cured, and interred, as every master's serfs are; and some had the honor of being called justice of the peace, *regidor*, or mayor, as supervisors of the works—of course under the tutelage of a Father Jesuit and the administrative auditorship of another, the two watching and spying each other, as the law of the order demanded." Satisfying the voracious appetite of the Indians was the most effective means of winning their hearts for Jesus Christ. But the sword which slays thousands was also used for getting neophytes. Surprises, massacres, transportation *en masse*, were not wanting.

Señor Sarmiento believes with Wilson, the historian of Mexico, that the destruction by the Spaniards of the forests of the plains was incomparably more fatal to the Indians than murderous fanaticism and the task-master's cruelty. Just as surely as the deer whom they hunted, the Indians were doomed to disappear with the forests, whose atmosphere was their life element. Few survived. Las Casas, in his ardor to save the Indians, misunderstood the conditions under which they could be saved. The importation of negroes to do their work was a misapplied remedy. The later missionaries learned the true remedy from longer experience. The "reduced" Indians were forced to labor, and those who did not succumb to the change and the exertion became the progenitors of a race of agriculturists, which is now repeopling Spanish America—degenerate, servile successors of indolent and coarse aborigines. "Be this as it may, the negro race entered as a cement into the metal out of which was to form itself the American people, breaking in its rise the barriers dividing populations into castes, as in India and Egypt, and perhaps also in the Empires of Mexico and Peru, . . . and proceeding, by right of numbers, to declare the general will by vote or otherwise." Meanwhile Spain, in which the fires of the Inquisition were burning out the traces and germs of new ideas, was jealously guarding its American dominions—and it did so for three centuries—against all contact with the non-Spanish world, prohibiting the entrance of a single free individual of non-Spanish origin. Thus the result was to be "a mixture of pure Spaniards as the European element with a sprinkling of the negro race, diluted together in an enormous mass of natives, prehistoric men of scanty intelligence"—three elements equally untrained to self-government. These races could produce no such homogeneous whole as did Gauls and Romans, Saxons and Normans, Iberians and Goths—peoples of one race, the Caucasian. There are all kinds and shades of mixture, all distinguishable, and apparently destined to relapse into more pronounced original types, instead of producing homogeneity. The prevailing types are marked by debility, lack of energy, and features devoid of character and expression.

Want of space prevents us from following the author in his extensive speculations on the Inquisition, the "Conquistadores," the Jews of Spain, the colonization of the territories now forming the United States, and a variety of other topics.

CELTIC BRITAIN.

Origines Celticæ (a Fragment), and Other Contributions to the History of Britain. By Edwin Guest, LL.D., D.C.L., F.R.S., late Master of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883. 2 vols. 8vo.

Early Britain: Celtic Britain. By J. Rhys, M.A., Professor of Celtic in the University of Oxford, etc. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co. 1882. 12mo.

THESE two books are testimonials to the strong interest felt at the present day in the history of the Celts of Britain and their relation to English history. Dr. Guest is placed by Mr. Freeman, along with Professor Stubbs, "at the head of living students of English history." Nevertheless, except for expressions like this from men whose judgment has weight, Dr. Guest would hardly be known outside of a small circle; for he was one of those men who accomplish great results in detail, but who lack the opportunity or the ambition to combine these results in a literary form. His 'English Rhythms'—philological rather than historical in its character—is his only considerable finished work. The present work contains complete papers, complete chapters, but no complete treatise.

The 'Origines Celticæ' occupies the first volume and about a hundred pages of the second; the rest of the work is taken up with "Historical Papers," thirteen in number, most of them read at the several meetings of the Archæological Institute. It is in these papers that Doctor Guest's great historical work was done, and it is upon them that his reputation will mainly rest. The main treatise is not only unfinished, but is on the whole of an unsatisfying and, we must say, disappointing character. The first volume is entirely introductory, consisting of twelve chapters, "The Kimmerioi and Cimbri," "The Iberes and Aquitani," and so on, ending with "The Belgæ." We are far from asserting that these chapters do not contain much valuable material, but they are made up for the most part of those investigations into primitive ethnology which are among the most fascinating of scholastic inquiries, yet at the same time are necessarily the most resultless. The man who once listens to the siren voices of Cimmerians, Pelasgians, and Tyrrhenians is lost; and this for the reason that, while there are not and never can be data for any positive conclusions, there is nevertheless enough material, at once seductive and exasperating in its fragmentary character, to keep him busy for his lifetime. The problem is even more hopeless than that of the ethnical affinities of the natives of America, because here we have the peoples themselves to study, while in primitive European ethnology we have only remote survivals and casual bits of observation made at a time when men had not learned to observe. One of the editors says (Prefatory Notice, p. xxvi.): "We have the links of his chain of argument, but the penetrating genius that would connect them and make them conclusive is withdrawn." For the reasons given above, we doubt whether this connective principle could ever have been added.

The four chapters in the second volume are devoted to the special subject of the work—"Britons, Scots, and Picts," "British Geography," "British Buildings and Weapons," and "The Itinerary of Antoninus." These are subjects calculated to call out the best powers of the author; unfortunately, they are even more fragmentary and unfinished than the earlier chapters. The papers which follow well deserve the praise given them in the preface (p. xvi.), as "these epoch-making discourses on the early history of our country, which have justly obtained for him the character, given by a great living authority, as 'the discoverer of early English history.'" Doctor Guest was, we believe, the first who brought the intimate knowledge of local topography to bear, in any thorough and systematic manner, upon the questions of early English history. It is not too much to say that his work alone rendered possible Mr. Green's best work, 'The Making of England.' As we have said, the original discoverer had not the time, or did not care, to embody his results in a continuous work: they have formed, however, the basis of all subsequent work, and in especial of that which we have indicated. We find in the preface an interesting description of Doctor Guest's method of investigation (p. x.):

"He used to undertake long walking expeditions to examine the face of the country, and trace out the remains of ancient occupation. On these expeditions he occasionally walked as much as forty miles a day. Often he went right ahead over hedges and ditches and through tangled copsewood, to follow the course of some faint vestiges of dyke or boundary, taking for guide sometimes a laborer from an adjoining village, sometimes one whom he shrewdly suspected to be a poacher, who knew every turn and cover of the surrounding country. 'Uncommonly clever fellows,' he sometimes found these guides, entering with intelligent interest into the object of his search, and beguiling the way by their graphic sketches and racy remarks on men and passing events. Very dirty and dusty, he was returning one day from an expedition of this kind, when, turning into the village, he met two clergymen. They recognized him, for Doctor Guest caught the look and tone of astonishment with which one exclaimed in an undertone, 'That's the master of Caius'—the quick glance round and the further remark, 'Yes, that's *he*.' 'No doubt they were astonished,' he said, 'seeing me in such a dirty condition, and in company, I have little doubt, of one of the black sheep of their flock.'"

We also have a graphic description (p. xvi.) of the appearance of Doctor Guest as he presented his views to the Archæological Institute—the "sonorous voice, . . . the kindling eye, the firm-set lip, the expressive gestures, while, as warming with his theme, he paced before his huge map, leading his hearers on step by step to the conclusion he had arrived at, and enabling them to realize it with the perfect conviction of a certain truth."

The special contributions of Doctor Guest to early English history are indicated by the titles of his principal papers. "The Early English Settlements in South Britain," "The English Conquest of the Severn Valley," "The Invasion of Britain by Julius Cæsar," "The Campaign of Aulus Plautius in Britain, A. D. 43," are perhaps the most important, but others speak in detail of the Belgian settlements, the Welsh boundaries, and the four "Roman Ways." All of these, it will be noticed, are concerned with southern Britain only, hardly, in fact, touching at all the

country north of the Thames. It may be said that Dr. Guest wholly reconstructed the early history of the kingdoms of Kent, Sussex, and Wessex, the account given by Freeman and Green being in the main that of the papers here given. It will be noticed, further, that most of this is *English*, not *Celtic* history. The most important portions of 'Origines Celticæ' are not those which are indicated by the title of the book. The second volume is illustrated by eight admirable maps, and there is a very complete index.

Professor Rhys is, we suppose, in his own field as high an authority as Doctor Guest in his. A brief statement from his pen, therefore, of the present condition of the Celtic question is a welcome contribution. It is, indeed, too brief. The author seems in some places embarrassed by the necessity of crowding so large a subject into such narrow limits. Perhaps the most interesting point brought out by this volume is that of the origin and history of the Kymry. This name, it is well known, is usually considered to be that of one of the two great branches of the Celtic race, and its obvious resemblance to *Cimbri* and *Kimmerioi* lies at the foundation of Doctor Guest's long-spun ethnological discussions. Professor Rhys cuts the foundation away from the theory by showing (p. 114) that Kymry is a national, not a racial name. It means "fel low-countrymen," and was appropriated by those Celts, consisting of members of both branches (Brythonic and Goidelic), who banded themselves together as a new nationality, in the face of the English invaders. It embraced Wales and Strathclyde, but it was, he thinks, "the fact of being [during the Roman occupation] under the charge of a single general, the Dux Britanniarum, that had the effect of marking off from the other Brythons those who gave themselves the name of Kymry, and first taught them, perhaps, in some measure to act together." This military organization, he thinks, was kept up in a degree after the withdrawal of the Roman troops in 410. As to the original territories of the new nationality, their boundaries can "only be guessed." The earliest known *Gwledig*, Cunedda—shortly after the above date—appears to have had his seat at Carlisle, from which point his authority extended over Wales and to the eastern coast of England. From this time we have a tolerably continuous history, with a succession of rulers who kept up the traditions of the Roman period. Chapter iv. treats of the annals of this dynasty—often, as might be expected, confused and wearisome, but possessing a real interest in the relations here sketched with the English kingdoms. The next chapter, "The Picts and the Scots," traces in the same way the history of the Celts of northern Britain. By *Pict*, as well as *Kymry*, Professor Rhys does not understand a racial distinction, as it included (p. 157) not only Brythons and Goidels, but also "non Celtic natives, to whom the term probably most strictly applied at all times." Both chapters carry the history down through the eleventh century, covering the Anglo-Saxon period.

Of special points, the author says in the preface that he "has accepted and employed the theory advanced by ethnologists, that the early inhabitants of this country were of Iberian origin." On page 135 we have an interesting theory as to the much controverted term "Bretwalda." He connects it with the Gwledig of the Kymry, and thinks it was "an exclusively Northumbrian title, assumed first by Eadwine after conquering the over-king of the Kymry in the person of Cadwalla." The leadership "of the four first kings in Bæda's list was exercised in Lower Britain as a continuation, probably, of the office of the Gwledig who succeeded the Count of the Saxon Shore, and there is no reason to think that it was ever known as that of Bretwalda or Brytenwealda: it survives, possibly, in the functionary called the Warden of the Cinque Ports."

AMOS'S SCIENCE OF POLITICS.

The Science of Politics. By Sheldon Amos. [International Scientific Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1883.

Mr. Amos's treatise is to be looked at less as an original attempt to define the nature and limits of politics as a science than as a résumé of the work already done in this field. He touches upon almost every question that has engaged the attention of political writers or statesmen from the days of Aristotle to our own times, and what he has to say is generally safe and sound. But his book is chiefly interesting to us, as it appears to have been to him in writing it, through the questions which it continually suggests, and indeed asks, yet leaves unanswered. Of these, of course, the main one is: What is meant by the Science of Politics? What are its laws? How far is it a science at all?

In one aspect, there seems to be no branch of study which is further removed from the scientific stage than politics. A science, as we generally understand it, is a department of human knowledge which is studied by those who are interested in it for its own sake, and not for any ulterior purpose, however good. Our idea of a mathematician, or an astronomer, or a physicist, is of a man to whom mathematics, astronomy, or physics is an end in itself; and among scientific people there is no one who is viewed with more distrust and suspicion than a savant who pursues science either to make money out of it, or to "popularize" it, or for the purpose of meeting a "long-felt want" of any kind. If the late Mr. Darwin had had an interest in putting new breeds of pigeons on the market, which his experiments in natural selection were intended to subserve, his enemies would, instead of foolishly arguing with him, which was what he wanted them to do, have probably pooh-poohed his claims to recognition as a scientific man, and referred to him with contempt as a "pigeon-fancier," or something of the sort—all of which would have been a severe blow to the new science. Now, politics would not have any existence at all except for practical objects. There are only two kinds of objects conceivable in politics—the private ends of people who take part in the government of a country, or the well-being of the community. One of the objects of all improvements in the art of government is to make these two ends coincide, so that those who have the machinery of government in their hands may best promote their own advancement and success in life by first considering the public welfare. An ideal government would be one in which it was generally recognized that the prizes of political ambition, great and small, could only be secured through honest service of the public. This is the real Utopia toward which the modern world is always consciously or unconsciously striving.

But the fact that government is carried on solely for practical objects, and these as often as not sinister private objects, makes the idea of a science of politics seem sometimes almost grotesque. A parliamentary or congressional debate, which is one of the means used in all free countries both to inquire into political facts and determine what is to be done about them, is about as unlike any known scientific method of inquiry as can well be conceived. The inquiry is conducted in common by men who are familiar with all the details of the subject and by men who know nothing about it whatever; by men who are utterly indifferent to it and by men who have a personal, or even sometimes a corrupt, interest in it; and, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, by men who were not chosen on account of their acquaintance with it at all. Of the "arguments" which are put forward in a legislative inquiry of this kind, fully half consist of a scathing exposure of the motives of opponents—the assumed motives of one side always being to destroy civilization, and of the other to establish a tyranny of some kind. The humor of Bret Harte's account of the proceedings of the Society of the Stanislaus lies not a little in its being a scientific debate conducted according to legislative methods, burlesqued.

Notwithstanding all this, there is a general agreement among those who have given much attention to the speculative, as distinguished from the practical side of politics, that it has distinct claims to a recognized position as a science, but at the same time that very little is known as to what are its laws. If prediction be taken as a test, there is probably no field of human knowledge in which it has proved less successful. For successful prediction as to the fate of nations, we have to go back to Cassandra in mythical times. Probably nine persons out of ten, at first blush, would say that this settled the matter; and if politics were a physical science, perhaps it would. Chemistry, for example, would fairly be thought a poor sort of science if it were impossible to tell in advance whether a given mixture of hydrogen and oxygen would produce water or an explosion; whether a given precipitate would be crystalline or not so. But politics, of course, must differ from any such science as chemistry, as has been often pointed out, by the fact that, in any given case, the causes in action are infinite; and though we may be able to foretell what results any one or more of them *tend* to produce, considered by themselves, we cannot be sure how far the result will be altered or reversed by other causes which are left out of view. Nothing short of omniscience would enable us to predict the resultant of all the moral and material forces acting in politics at a given time, or in a given country.

This very fact indicates in what direction the study of politics as a science must proceed, and always has proceeded—that of ascertaining, as far as possible, the tendencies and effects of different kinds of governments, laws, or administrative systems. Economists discover the laws of economical science by treating man as a wealth-producing animal, and leave out of view all the motives which determine his actions except the desire for wealth. In just the same way, it seems to us, the scientific student of politics must, to arrive at any results whatever, treat man as an animal capable of government—*i. e.*, as an animal upon whose motives laws act in certain definitely ascertainable ways. If this is not the postulate of political science, then there can be nothing in politics at all except guesswork, and government is merely the art of getting and keeping offices. At any rate, if we deny that laws can be framed so as to produce calculated results, then the "science" must be found in some other part of the field, and no one has yet been able to say where. But, as a matter of fact, it has never been questioned from the earliest times that it is possible to ascertain the effect of particular kinds of legislation. That an over-severe penal code, for instance, will not deter from crime has been acknowledged ever since the time of Draco by all writers on the subject. That the system of raising taxes by taking for the Government a certain portion of every body's property wherever it can be found will lead to concealment and evasion, and consequently yield less than the

Government wants, can be proved by Asia or the New England States to-day. That the independence of judges cannot be secured except by a secure tenure of office; that place-hunting must spring up in any country in which places are the prizes of elections—all this is as well known as that a dear currency cannot circulate side by side with a cheap one.

Now, how do we know these things? How is it that we are so certain, for instance, that "tax-dodging" in Massachusetts is the result of the antique system of taxation in force in that State, and not, as the assessors always insist, the result merely of the wickedness and want of patriotism of the rich, or some other of the many thousand causes that may have produced it? Chiefly from what we know of human nature and the feelings that arbitrary exactions produce in our own minds. This is, therefore, the only kind of prediction of which the science of politics seems at present capable—prediction as to the effects particular kinds of legislation must have on the motives and actions of those whom it affects. For the verification of the prediction we must rely on experience, and, in fact, the whole thing is a question of experience: in the first instance, our experience of the action of human motives; in the second, our experience of the effects of legislation. Prof. Amos does not seem to us to have altogether clearly distinguished in his treatise what he himself recognizes as the practical, from the scientific side of the subject; but the moment we come to details, it is sadly difficult to do so.

Fielding. By Austin Dobson. [English Men of Letters.] Harper & Brothers. 1883.

This volume is strictly a biography. Too frequently, in late years, when the facts in the life of a man of letters are scanty, obscure, or commonplace, his biographer leaves them undisturbed, and infers from the author's works the personality of the man by a mode of criticism at once the most difficult, most doubtful, and most licensed. Mr Dobson has made the actual records of Fieldiag's life his starting point, and by continual reference to the concrete, tangible, verifiable fact, has disentangled truth from error in the gossipy romance of Murphy, and has given orderly arrangement to the scattered and ineffective corrections of that original biography which have been made by Fielding's apologists. It would be hard to instance a better illustration of scientific method applied to literary ends than is this scholarly and witty work, in which the special qualities of the man of science—patience in inquiry, continual watchfulness in verification, careful regard for details—are so supplemented by the heart, humor, and touch of the man of letters that we do not have a book of annals, like the Forster biographies, but a truthful account of highly interesting character. Mr. Dobson's distinction is not so much in the new facts of his own discovery, in the dates he has corrected or ascertained, in the notices he has exhumed from old papers, or the like, as in this blending of the scientific spirit and the literary treatment, which has resulted in a portrait of Fielding both more accurate and more honorable than any hitherto drawn.

Doubtless Fielding in his youth was no better than he should have been, so far as the self-indulgent vices are concerned: the suppers at the Rose, the wassail at his own table during his brief squirehood, the pawned finery and other picturesque incidents of Grub Street life in the last century we may accept; and, now that Thackeray has touched them with the unfading light, we cannot yield the wet towel and inked ruffles of the shadowy small hours. Possibly the young comedian did write one scene on the wrappings of his "Virginia"; but for all that, as Mr. Dobson remarks, "it is not fair to speak of him as if his youth lasted forever," and, he concludes, "if we press for 'better assurance than Bardolph,' there is absolutely no good evidence that Fielding's career after his marriage differed from that of other men struggling for a livelihood, hampered with ill health, and exposed to all the shifts and humiliations of necessity." Hitherto Fielding, in consequence of that too common misleading subjective criticism to which we have referred, has been too much confused with Tom Jones, many of whose qualities he of course shared; but, without traversing the ground in which Mr. Dobson has shown the folly of this impression, it is a satisfaction to think that many estimable people, the development of whose minds in regard to certain subjects was arrested at the stage of adolescence, will now have an opportunity to know Fielding not only as the author of a book to be burned or at least excluded from the Boston Library, but also as "the energetic magistrate, the tender husband and father, the kindly host of his poorer friends, the practical philanthropist, the patient and magnanimous hero of the 'Voyage to Lisbon.'"

In his preface Mr. Dobson excuses himself from any criticism on Fielding's work on the ground that he had been forestalled by Mr. Leslie Stephen; but this disclaimer of the critic's office does not prevent him from occasionally exercising his judgment on the worth and place of Fielding's several productions, and indeed it seems rather an adroit way of releasing himself from writing a page when he could put all that is necessary into a sentence. There is excellent criticism on all the later pages that does not need to be supplemented by Mr. Stephen's essay; especially the emphatic commendation given to 'Jonathan Wild,' both for its intellectual interest and literary power, will be a pleasing surprise to admirers of Fielding. In nearly all he wrote of a serious nature, including the novels, this intellectual interest pure and simple has no small part; it gives to the later novels that body, in addition to their vivacity, which is one of their best distinctions, and makes them prized by strong and active minds. Besides bringing out Fielding's intellectuality, Mr. Dobson is also singular in making the reader understand how intimately Fielding's personality permeates his novels, how absolutely in his case the voice and manner of the narrator are an integral part of the story; and thus he shows most effectively, in analyzing the successive volumes, that Fielding, instead of being a rough Bohemian all his days, was a much-changing man. Both as criticism and as biography we think this Life, which was one of the most difficult to be written in the whole series, is also one of the most admirable in temper, in knowledge, and in the literary skill which has made a register of obscure and tedious facts entertaining, and has graced it with the delightful surprises, the humorous turns, the quick, sure strokes that we have hitherto looked for only in its author's verses.

Genera Plantarum ad Exemplaria imprimis in herbariis Kewensibus servata definita. Auctoribus G. Bentham et J. D. Hooker. Londini: Reeve & Co. 3 vols. imp. 8vo. 1852–1883.

The completion of this great work marks an era in systematic botany. As the senior author is nearly eighty-three years of age, we may say that, essentially, it brings to a worthy close the long course of scientific labors of the most accomplished, sagacious, and continuously industrious phytologist of our day, almost the only survivor of those who personally knew Antoine Laurent Jussieu, and were associated with the elder De Candolle; one whose line of authorship, begun in the year 1826 (antedated only by that of the venerable Roeper), comes down to the present year, apparently, in almost unabated vigor, and is as remarkable for sustained importance as it is unparalleled in length. Upon the junior author, who should not yet feel the burden of years, however weighted with official cares, and upon such specialists as can be mustered, may devolve the responsibility of such *addimenta* as may be needed to bring the earlier volumes up to the date of the last, and even to supplement the work from time to time, as the 'Genera Plantarum' of Linnæus was supplemented by successive editors. But it is not probable that the task which has now been happily accomplished will be undertaken again, still less executed, before the twentieth century is well entered upon. Useful compilations we may expect, and monographs which may here and there better represent advancing knowledge of particular groups; but a production like this, covering the whole field of phænogamous botany, ordinally and generically, and with the uniformity of treatment and scale thus secured by two close associates in one continuous work, cannot be looked for again for a long while.

It has few predecessors. The first 'Genera Plantarum' in fact (though not exactly in name) was that of Tournefort, published in the year 1700. Then and there, as Linnæus declared, genera of plants, in the sense of scientific botany, were first established. There would probably be more recognition of this *dictum* if the present work were to be planned anew, and the genera which Linnæus himself admitted as of Tournefort, along with those which modern botanists have restored, could have been attributed to this real founder, without thereby compromising the proper position to hold in respect to herbalistic and ancient names. The second 'Genera Plantarum' was that of Linnæus, in 1737, of which the last edition revised by the author himself was that of 1767. The third was that of Jussieu, "secundum ordines naturales disposita," which appeared in the year 1789. That of Endlicher—a monument of literary or bibliographical erudition rather than of botanical research—was brought out in the main between 1836 and 1843, at about the same time with the more unpretending synoptical compilation of Meisner. These were important in their way. But the 'Genera Plantarum' of Bentham and Hooker, which began to be issued in the year 1862 and was finished in the spring of the present year, is the lineal successor of the three classical works above mentioned, that of Tournefort representing the botany of the close of the seventeenth century; that of Linnæus the first half, and that of Jussieu the latter part, of the eighteenth century. The present work — increased from the one small octavo of Linnæus to three thick imperial octavo volumes of nearly 1,200 pages each—stands in like relation to the nineteenth century, and is based, like them, or even more than they, upon actual investigation, and upon the comparison of a vastly greater number of original types than was formerly possible.

Unlike its predecessors, however—and in this respect agreeing with the other great botanical work of the century, the 'Prodromus' of De Candolle—the whole of cryptogamic botany is omitted. This vast field must be left to specialists. Fries, of Upsala, who died a few years ago, at a ripe old age, was the last phænogamic botanist who was at the same time master of one or two cryptogamic orders; and now even the best of cryptogamists can hardly aspire to more than a general and superficial acquaintance with any other department than the one to which he devotes himself. This inevitable state of things

has its disadvantages. The reasons for it do not really apply to the ferns and their allies, and it was naturally expected, as it is much to be desired, that these should enter into the present work. May we hope that this still may be?

Some idea of the progressive enlargement of the field may be had by a comparison of the number of genera characterized in these successive works. The phænogamous genera of

Linnæus, 'Gen. Pl.,'	ed. 1,	A. D. 1737, were	887
" "	ed. 6,	A. D. 1764, "	1,189
Jussieu, "		A. D. 1789, "	1,707
Endlicher, "		A. D. 1843, " (about)	6,400
Bentham & Hooker, "		A. D. 1883, "	7,585

If the last had been elaborated upon the scale of Endlicher, or with the idea of genera which is still common if not prevalent, the number of genera would have amounted to at least ten thousand. An estimate of the number of known species of each genus and higher group has been made throughout the work—a rough approximation only, mentioning first the number in the books, and the number to which, in the opinion of the authors, these may probably be reduced by botanists who adhere to the Linnæan view of species; from which it appears that upon the very strictest estimate their number, as now known to botanists, is at least 95,620. In round numbers, it may fairly be said that about 100,000 species of phænogamous plants are in the hands of botanists. The five largest orders, as well for genera as for species, are the following, and in this rank: Compositæ, Leguminosæ, Orchideæ, Rubiaceæ, Gramineæ. The high standing of the orchid family in the list will be a surprise to many. Linnæus knew only a hundred species; five thousand is now a moderate estimate—about half as many as there are of Compositæ, which hold to their proportion of one-tenth of the whole. In both families every country and district is largely peculiar in its species and types. The far greater prominence of Compositæ over orchids is owing to the vast number of individuals in the former, their paucity in the latter.

Those who desire to know the respective parts which the two authors have taken in the elaboration of the 'Genera Plantarum' may be referred to a short article on the subject in a recent number of the Journal of the Linnean Society of London. Great thanks from all botanists are due to them both.

The Greek and Latin Inscriptions on the Obelisk-Crab at the Metropolitan Museum, New York. A Monograph. By Augustus C. Merriam, Ph.D., Adjunct Professor of Greek in Columbia College. Harper & Bros. 1883.

THE subject of this erudite monograph is neither a hard-shell nor a soft shell crustacean, and this is no romance of the sea. And yet a romance it is; and even those who, like Professor Jowett, have not much respect for the study of inscriptions, cannot fail to catch from the perusal of this monograph something of the enthusiasm with which Professor Merriam sets out on his Egyptian exploration. However one may be disposed to quarrel with the Professor at first for the numberless details of the quest, yet when the pamphlet is laid down the ingenuous reader forgives the list of the Rubrii who had nothing to do with our Rubrius, the extracts from the London *Times* that refer to the other obelisk, and even the concluding bit of sentimentality about Mæcenas and Horace, neither of whom suggests sentimentality the least in the world.

To tell the story after Professor Merriam is to spoil it, but as the monograph is the record of a piece of hard work faithfully performed, it would be a pity not to give the general public some notion of the process which Professor Merriam found necessary in order to establish the reading of six words of Greek and ten words of Latin. The inscriptions on the bronze crab found under the New York obelisk were published by Commander Gorringe in the following form:

L H ΚΑΙΣΑΡΟΣ	ANNO VIII
ΒΑΡΒΑΡΟΣ ΑΝΕΘΗΚΕ	AVGVSTI CAESARIS
ΑΡΧΙΤΕΚΤΟΝ ΟΥΝΤΟΣ	BARBARVS PRAEF
ΠΟΝΤΙΟΥ	AEGYPTI POSVIT
	ARCHITECTANTE PONTIO

Of course ΑΡΧΙΤΕΚΤΟΝ ΟΥΝΤΟΣ should not have been divorced in this rude way. The word is clearly ἀρχιτεκτονοῦντος, corresponding to the *architectante* of the Latin; and, without any further knowledge of the subject, one might readily conclude that the mysterious L stands for ANNO. But discrepancies had been observed, and Professor Merriam began to explore the claw of the crab, undismayed by "knobs" and undeterred by the "cuts" and "scratches" and "poundings" with which the surface had been marred. The Greek had suffered less than the Latin, and the only thing to be done at this stage was to get up the history of the interpretation of the mystic L which parades itself at the head of the Greek inscription. This L, after a long muster of authorities, is set down, not as a representative of the Greek λυκάβας (with Letronne), but as a conventional hieroglyphic for ἔτος (with Gardthausen). ΚΑΙΣΑΡΟΣ, standing as it does alone, is referred, in accordance with Letronne and Franz, to Augustus Cæsar, and, this decided, we can draw a long breath, and pass on to the burning question of the year. "Year eight" does not help us unless we have "year one" to begin with. The era here meant, it appears, was not the Actian Era (31 B. C.), nor the Augustan Era (27 B. C.), when Octavianus received the title Augustus. The Egyptians had an era of their own, beginning two years and some months before 27 B. C., and a New-Year's Day of their own, August 29. When no month is added (and no month is added in our inscription), we cannot tell whether the eighth year is 23 or 22 B. C.

The Latin inscription calls somebody Prefect, but at this stage BARBARVS, so confidently printed by Gorringe, was still an "inarticulate combination of letters and marks," and our careful scholar had to satisfy himself with the hope that the Greek name and the Latin name would prove to be the same. Now, what Barbarus was Prefect in 23–22? None. One Petronius occupied that office from at least 25–20 B. C., and "Barbarus could not have been Prefect in 23–22 by any possibility." These conclusions, based upon ancient authority, Professor Merriam found to be supported by Letronne, Franz, and Merivale. The Professor, for the first time, is greatly puzzled. "Archæology," he gravely reflects, "must go hand in hand with history; at least she must not, in a moment of frenzy, dash her brains out against a solid wall of established facts." As nothing was to be done with the historical facts, the archæological side had to be explored still more carefully. We cannot go into all the details—the "gratifying" discovery that a letter might be S, G, R, or B; the emergence of a ☤ in the upper left-hand corner of the Latin inscription; the tracing of an I before H in the Greek; the joyous welcome of the "key that had thus unexpectedly fallen into the hands" of the explorer; the search for the volume in which the confirmatory inscription is contained; the cleaning of the inscriptions; the revelation of the obscured Latin words and the crowning mercy of the establishment of that I which brings the date down from 23–22 to 13–12, when, as we learn from other sources, P. Rubrius Barbarus *was* Prefect of Egypt. We are no longer to read H, but IH; no longer VIII, but XVIII. Archæology and history kiss each other, and Professor Merriam has a right to be proud of this feat of reconciliation.

The interest flags after the discovery is settled. As was said before, we do not care much about the extraneous Rubrii and the extraneous Petronius. The concluding story of Pontius, the architect, is not without its charm; but however interesting the antiquarian detail may be to professed antiquarians, it has not the thrilling character of the hunt that resulted in the capture of the all-important *iota*. "The introduction behind the scenes, as it were," says Professor Merriam, "may dispel some of the illusion of stage-scenery, but may also win credit where doubt will be eager to fasten." It must be a very cold-blooded doubt that could fasten on anything in so glowing an atmosphere as Professor Merriam's "behind the scenes." The detailed record of such an investigation will do young students more good than the quiet statement of the most important results. Of course in a *Corpus Inscriptionum* every *iota* could not be magnified to this size, but once in a while it is well that an enthusiastic hunter should give a detailed account of his run.

Gettysburg to the Rapidan: The Army of the Potomac, July, 1863, to April, 1864. By A. A. Humphreys. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE contents of this book were intended as the opening chapters of General Humphreys's history of the campaign of 1864–5 in Virginia, but because of the length of that work are published separately. Compared with its predecessor, the present volume is very disappointing and unsatisfactory. The simple style, the clear statement of military movements, the absence of criticism found in the larger work are here also. But the narrative is too fragmentary, it assumes too much knowledge on the part of the reader, and there is a singular lack of all full returns of both armies. It is impossible to tell from this book the composition or strength of the forces which for nine months confronted each other in Virginia.

General Humphreys informs us on the first page that the effective infantry of the Federal army was but 47,000 men on July 5, 1863; but he does not say what this infantry was before the battle began. Had he given Meade's strength then (about 77,000 "enlisted" infantrymen), the difference between the figures would perhaps have suggested a satisfactory explanation of General Meade's slow pursuit, and the unwillingness of his corps commanders to engage Lee at Hagerstown. The latter part of the book is too much a defence of General Meade's operations in falling back to Centerville, in October, and of his subsequent abortive movement to Mine Run. Here again General Humphreys omits all full statements of numbers. With them before us, it is difficult to see why the Federal army, after flanking the Confederates (only half as strong) out of their well-entrenched lines on the Rapidan, should have retired, without fighting, from the hastily improvised field works along Mine Run. General Humphreys gives a fuller statement of the evidence in regard to the ferocious order of Colonel Dahlgren. Excellent maps accompany the text.

Lectures, Essays, and Sermons, by Samuel Johnson, Author of 'Oriental Religions.' With a Memoir by Samuel Longfellow. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883. 8vo, pp. 466.

SAMUEL JOHNSON was a man hardly known, even by name, outside of the little band of radicals and transcendentalists of which he was reckoned a member, although even here his aversion to any merging of his individuality in

a collective name, of which we shall speak presently, kept him from any very active fellowship. Students of the ethnic religions knew him from his works on the religions of India and China—much the most important contribution, we suppose, made by this country to the comparative study of religion. Certain of his hymns will always be favorites with lovers of religious poetry, and the collection compiled by him and Samuel Longfellow—'Book of Hymns,' afterward revised as 'Hymns of the Spirit'—ranks among the finest collections of devotional poetry. A few had the privilege of listening to his sermons, preached before a small society in a hall in Lynn. To these the half-dozen sermons contained in this volume will be a precious memorial.

The volume contains a memoir in 142 pages, and thirteen papers—lectures, essays, and sermons. The three that we should class as lectures bear the stamp of foreign travel—"Florence," "The Alps of the Ideal," etc., and "The Symbolism of the Sea." The essays are practical in their character: "Fulfilment of Functions" (bearing upon education), "Equal Opportunity for Woman," and "Labor Parties and Labor Reform." To these should be added, we suppose, the long paper upon Transcendentalism, which comes last in the volume. The sermons are strongly marked by an earnest spirituality. Mr. Longfellow says of his friend's preaching (p. 40): "There was never any mere rhetoric; always the note of entire sincerity, revealed in the very earnestness of his tones. These qualities marked his prayers likewise; they were the outpourings of a spirit reverently conscious of a Divine Presence, and communing directly with the Infinite Life and Light."

We have spoken of Mr. Johnson's unwillingness to identify himself with organizations; he was, says his biographer (p. 42), "always fearful of the tendency of organizations to hamper individual liberty." In the essay upon Transcendentalism we find what appears to be a justification, on the ground of reason, of this attitude (p. 440). He speaks here of "that eternal dissatisfaction of idealists with the superficial doings around them—with the eager fret and self-waste, the paltry propagandism of book, church, sect; their exacting demand on human nature, which makes them, as Emerson said, 'strike work, in order to act freely for something worthy to be done.' Whoso scoffs at their refusal to do special things that may seem to him imperative, may well consider whether, after all, the best doing is not *being*. Let him not call it unsocial. What society most wants is criticism by the courage to choose what one respects, and to renounce and reprove what this disdains. We reach civility when men recognize that one in earnest to be doing his proper work is more likely to know what this is than ten thousand other persons who would set him upon theirs." For men of his own marked individuality here is an adequate explanation of an attitude of isolation. But for the ten thousand that he speaks of, how little noble work would be accomplished without organization!

Mr. Johnson had not, we are told, the gift "to put things in a way to catch the popular ear." We find, however, sentences here and there worth quoting for their point and vigor. For instance, in the fine sermon on "Living by Faith" (p. 399): "The one-sidedness of the theological Jonah or pessimist is shown in this—that, while a sin is to him something infinitely wicked, it never occurs to him to call a good action infinitely good." And again: "It is always safer to hope for men than to despair of them—safer for one's own power, at least, which depends on his faith in good materials to work in." The portrait prefixed to the volume is excellent, representing an individuality intense, noble, spiritual, remarkable for self-poise, and with a possibility of willfulness in it. Mr. Johnson's death, February 19, 1882, was a serious loss to American letters and scholarship; but we are glad to learn from his memoir that the third and last volume of his 'Oriental Religions'—"I should call it *Iran* rather than *Persia*, but shall not"—is so far forward that we may probably look for its publication.

History and Uses of Limestones and Marbles. By S. M. Burnham. With 48 Chromo-lithographs. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co.

E F Bickford 192 24-84

Among the practical applications of geology, few present a greater interest or address a larger and more varied audience than those which relate to building and ornamental stones. To [illegible] a class which represents a formidably large [illegible] of the civilized world, these form practically the only geological specimens with which they come into familiar and daily contact. It would seem natural, therefore, that writers on popular science should have early turned their attention to this subject, and presented in a form intelligible to the untechnical reader a description of the rocks from which our buildings are constructed, and the ornamental stones which are used to decorate their interiors, of the sources from which they are obtained, and of the way in which they were formed. In point of fact, however, the literature of this subject, whether popular or scientific, is extremely meagre. On precious gems, which might properly come under the same head, there exist a number of small works, written, however, from the point of view of the dilettante or jeweller rather than that of the scientist. So far as we know, the only important work on this subject is that of Professor Edward Hull, Director of the Geological Survey of Ireland, on 'Building and Ornamental Stones,' published in 1872.

In spite of the fact that we are essentially a practical people, there has been, until of late years, an apparent reluctance on the part of our best scientific men to give a practical turn to their knowledge, and English geologists have, as a rule, been far more successful in popularizing geology in the true sense of the word. Among the many admirable investigations undertaken by the Tenth Census, that upon the quarry-stones of the United States, commenced by the late Dr. Geo. W. Hawes, Curator of the National Museum, would have supplied a great practical as well as scientific want. Unfortunately, his very zeal and devotion to his work proved fatal to it, as he was carried away by rapid consumption soon after the completion of he gathering of his material, and it will be almost impossible to find one so well fitted scientifically to carry out his plans. The volume before us, which is somewhat more limited in its scope, and less scientific in its mode of treatment than Hull's is or Hawes's would have been, is a carefully-compiled and well-written treatise, which does great credit to its author, especially if that author is, as we have reason to believe, a woman. It is a handsome octavo, of nearly 400 pages, adorned with 48 chromo-lithographs, illustrative of different varieties of marble and serpentine, the latter stone being not altogether inappropriately included under this head. Unfortunately, these illustrations are not directly referred to in the text, nor do their titles always appear in the index.

Although the author disclaims in her preface any intention of addressing scientific readers as such, her book will certainly be found of value to many scientific men, and that value might have been enhanced had she given a list of works consulted. It is essentially a compilation, but one that must have involved the laborious reading and critical digestion of voluminous material. The author evidently leans to the biological side of geology, devoting a chapter to the organic remains or fossils found in limestone, but making no mention of such investigations as Sorby's into its microscopical structure, and the evidence afforded thereby of its origin. Sixteen chapters, covering more than 230 pages, are devoted to what might be called descriptive geology, treating the subject by countries, and giving not only what is known of the limestones and marbles of the countries, but many other interesting geological details, so that they almost form an epitome of the geology of each country—at least of what is known of it, and we note no essential omission.

In looking over these chapters, it is interesting to observe how large a portion of the earth has been examined more or less closely by geologists. No known country of any importance is omitted, though the material is necessarily much more full in the civilized ones. Three chapters, for instance, are given to the United States, two to the rest of America, eight and part of a ninth to Europe, and one and a fraction to Asia, while one covers Japan, Australia, and Africa. These chapters, though necessarily crowded with facts, are yet written in a pleasant, discursive style, that sustains the interest of the reader without wearying him. The last four chapters, on antique stones and works of art, evidently a favorite study of the author, will be found full of interest by all cultivated readers. We might wish the index had been made by a more experienced hand, and the chromos as well, but where so much is well done, it would seem hypercritical, if not ungallant, to complain.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annual Register for 1882. London: Rivingtons.
Black, W. Yolande: a Novel. Harper & Bros.
Bothmer, Countess M. von. Aut Cæsar aut Nihil. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Brehms' Thierleben. Chromo edition. Parts 85–89.
Bush, J. S. More Words about the Bible. John R. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Carroll, H. Twelve Americans: Their Lives and Times. Harper & Bros.
Crandall, C. H. The Season: an Annual Record of Society, 1882–83. White, Stokes & Allen.
De Amicis, E. Jottings about London. Boston: Alfred Mudge & Son. 25 cents.
Everett, C. C. Religions Before Christianity: a Manual for Sunday-schools. Boston: Unitarian Sunday-school Society.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 26, 1883.

The Week.

THE strikes which in the last three weeks have put nearly 50,000 dissatisfied operatives, workmen, miners, etc., out of employment, have drawn renewed attention to the fact that capital is becoming extremely reluctant to take hold of new enterprises. For a good many months the feeling has been growing that further investments in factories, railroads, bridges, houses—in short, in almost every kind of construction—would be injudicious, because the need is already supplied. It is this feeling which lies at the bottom of the failure to market a vast amount of new railroad bonds which have been issued by corporations in furtherance of new railway construction. Some recent statistics from Paris and London show that the same feeling exists there in regard to excessive house-building, which has increased the unoccupied houses in the latter city 50 per cent. as compared with ten years ago, and our own great cities could tell a similar tale. The natural result of this is that money seeks employment in the loan market on security rather than in new enterprises, so that there is an unusual supply of money at low rates of interest on the safest securities, while the tendency is to advance the rates for mercantile discounts and depress the mortgage securities of new and unfinished railroads, into which, of course, enters the element of uncertainty. On the other hand, the prospects for this summer's crops continue to improve, and it is reasonably certain that we shall have more than the average exportable surplus of all our great staples this autumn. Accordingly it seems to be a foregone conclusion in London that the United States will draw considerable amounts of gold from Europe before the end of the year.

The suggestion made in many quarters that the telegraph strike should be stopped by a mandamus is the very strangest that the present troubles have brought out. It is made all the funnier by the fact that the papers which make it, calmly cite as a precedent the resort to a mandamus in the railroad troubles of last year. They have evidently forgotten the history of that application, and we therefore venture humbly to recall it to them. When the freight-handlers' strike began, the Attorney-General applied for a mandamus to compel the companies to receive and forward freight, and the companies replied that they could not do it because of the strike. When the matter came into court, Judge Haight decided that it could not be granted. Six months later the General Term of the Supreme Court decided that his decision was wrong, and that mandamus was a proper remedy in such a case. Of course, at that time the strike was all over. The idea of those who are in favor of a mandamus must be that under the decision of the General Term any judge at chambers would be compelled to mandamus the Western Union to receive and transmit messages. But, if he did so, how could he enforce his order in a strike extending all over the country? A New York mandamus is, no doubt, a mighty writ, but it does not run all over the United States. Proceedings even here would begin with a dispute over the facts, and this dispute would enable "counsel" to protract the litigation, probably until the strike was over.

The legal questions involved are supposed to be further complicated by the United States telegraph laws of 1866 and 1872, providing that any company which, "by its agents or employees," shall "refuse or neglect to transmit" Government messages shall be liable penally, for every despatch refused, in not less than $100 and not more than $1,000. It would, moreover, probably take from two to three years to get a final construction of the law. It ought not to be overlooked, either, by the jurists who are now turning their attention to this matter, that the mandamus decision of the General Term does not apply to the Western Union, unless that company is held to be a "common carrier" of messages, as a railroad is of passengers and freight. It will not do to assume this point. Taking one consideration with another, therefore, it seems hardly likely that a lawsuit would bring the troubles to an end. The validity of the notice which the company now attaches to its blanks, disclaiming all responsibility for delay, will probably have to be passed on by the courts; but this will be through private suits for damages, if any are caused. The question whether a telegraph company can exempt itself from liability for delay caused by a strike is an interesting point, which, we believe, has never been decided.

Secretary Folger has disposed of the question of the trade dollar, so far as the executive relations of the present Administration to it are concerned, and indeed, in the absence of legislation on the subject by Congress, the matter may be regarded as finally dismissed. On the 6th of July the *Evening Post* published a letter from Mr. James C. Hallock, jr., of Brooklyn, reviewing the legislative history of the trade dollar, contending that it was entitled to as much monetary consideration as the standard silver dollar, which contains seven grains and a half less bullion, and concluding that "the President of the United States has ample authority" to direct the Treasurer and Assistant Treasurers "to receive the trade dollars the same as the standard silver dollars, and, when so requested, to exchange them for silver certificates." Secretary Folger, in reply to Mr. Hallock, who forwarded to him a copy of the letter, directs his attention to a letter written by ex-Secretary Sherman, which is of interest, not because the facts and opinions which it presents are new or unfamiliar, but because it states very clearly the view of the trade dollar which has always prevailed in the Treasury and in Congress. Mr. Sherman shows that the coins at once went out of the country, and that it was never expected that they would go anywhere else; that when, upon the depreciation of silver, bullion dealers found it profitable to put trade dollars—which by classification with other silver coins had been made a legal tender to the amount of five dollars—in circulation on the Pacific coast, Mr. Randall introduced in the House of Representatives and Mr. Cox afterward reported a bill taking away the legal-tender quality, which was passed by both branches of Congress without any objection whatever; that up to this time the trade dollar had not circulated outside of the Pacific States, because it "cost more than a paper-currency dollar," but when upon the resumption of specie payments the paper dollars appreciated and the trade dollars depreciated relatively, the bullion dealers found profit in putting the latter in circulation in this part of the country. Thus, clearly, the Government had washed its hands of the trade dollar; had thoroughly discredited it as lawful money; had given notice in every possible way that it was not among the legal coins of the United States, long before the embarrassment now complained of began to be felt.

The rumor that efforts are being made to prevent the appointment of women to low-grade clerkships under the civil-service law revives the question what the true object of civil-service examinations is. It is not only to ascertain the mental capacity and acquirements of applicants for places, but also to exclude the element of personal or political favoritism from the exercise of the appointing power. Now, the accomplishment of the latter object would be of the highest importance even if the examinations were less reliable as tests of the fitness of candidates for public employment than they are. It is of especial importance with reference to the appointment of women, of whom a good many hundreds are employed in the various departments at Washington. They are mostly poor. Their salaries are all they have to live upon. Under the spoils system, as it always has been and always will be as long as it is permitted to exist, almost every one of those women owes her position—that is, her daily bread—to some one powerful man in public life. And every one of them knows that if that one man withdraws his favor from her, she will lose her place and her living, and, as is the case in many instances, be cast helpless upon the world. Now and then rumors of social scandals having a direct connection with relations thus established flit about the city of Washington, and now and then they get into the papers. We will not inquire whether such rumors tell the whole story. At any rate, considering the nature of the case, it is astonishing that there should be so few of them. The scarcity of these scandals is the most magnificent testimonial to the character of the women employed in the public offices that can be imagined. But surely a system which puts the living of every woman in the public service at the mercy of some one powerful man is an abomination. It is a disgrace to the Ameri-

can republic. Every American woman who respects the character of her sex must necessarily become a civil-service reformer as soon as she understands the case.

The Attorney-General, it seems, is not inclined to attach much importance to the story of the "reign of terror" in Texas, which is put forward as the explanation of Judge Haughn's murder. To the *Times's* Washington correspondent, to whose energy and enterprise is due the exposure of the plans of the Texas Kuklux, this is a serious matter, and he accounts for Mr. Brewster's indifference by suggesting that he has probably "not read all the correspondence on that subject" on file in the Department of Justice. If he had, he would have known that District-Attorney Guthridge had been writing letters full of "appealing language" and "calls for troops." What excuse Mr. Brewster can give for not reading such letters, or denying their existence when they are accessible to newspaper correspondents, we cannot imagine, but what he says with regard to Judge Haughn's murder is worth attention. As to this event there are two theories—first, that the Judge was killed in order to prevent his testifying in some "election cases"; second, that his death was an ordinary domestic homicide, the career of the Judge having made it necessary that he should be slain. The first theory is supported solely by the fact that he was expected to be a witness in these cases. The second is supported by the fact that the Judge's wife positively declares that his murder was an act of private revenge, caused by his abandoned life. We are, therefore, able to speculate with regard to this event to our hearts' content. From what we know of Democrats in the South may we infer that the Judge came to his end because they were determined that he should never expose their crimes? On the other hand, from what we know of wives, should we infer that a wife would or would not be likely to invent an explanation of her husband's death much to his discredit? Then, again, from what we know of Democrats and wives together, may we infer, first, that when any murder takes place in the South a "reign of terror" exists; second, that the reign of terror so affects the minds of the family of the murdered man that his wife will rather cover his name with infamy than put herself in danger from the terrible Kuklux? These are not easy questions to answer. Some will answer them one way and some another. Mr. Brewster contents himself with remarking that murder is a crime against the laws of Texas, and if the Texans do not punish Judge Haughn's murderers, he has nothing to do with the matter.

There are some who think that whenever an Indian makes mischief, there must necessarily be some white man in authority to blame for it. The raid recently made by a band of Apache marauders upon a settlement on Mexican territory is thus unhesitatingly charged upon General Crook. When he had brought the Indians captured on his expedition through the Sierra Madre mountains to the San Carlos reservation, he expressed the opinion that those not yet captured would probably soon come in and give themselves up. The fact that they have not done so proves, at most, that even so excellent an Indian fighter, and a man so well acquainted with the Indian character, is liable to commit an error of judgment as to what certain individual Indians are likely to do under certain circumstances. It does not prove by any means that General Crook's campaign was not, all things considered, a great success, or that its success could have been greater had he conducted it differently. Moreover, it is very doubtful whether those Indians who are again robbing and plundering in Mexico after General Crook's departure, will cross the border again into Arizona, where they would find him ready to meet them.

The proceedings in Boston against the captain of the English bark *Eme*, for "landing" a Chinese laborer, are of as much interest to ship captains as to Chinamen. The Act of 1882 provides that any one who shall "land, or aid, or abet the landing" in the United States of any Chinaman not authorized to enter the United States, shall be fined $100, and imprisoned for not more than one year. The word "laborer" is by the terms of the Act made to cover both "skilled and unskilled laborers" (Sec. 15). The facts agreed to by both sides in the case of Ah Chung are as follows: That Ah Chung shipped on the *Eme* as ship-carpenter; that he never intended to leave the bark at Boston, but to finish his voyage; that at Boston, however, he left of his own accord, alleging cruel treatment by the mate; that he requested the master to discharge him, which the latter refused to do; that he compelled the payment of his wages by means of a threatened libel of the vessel; that the captain, after paying him, requested him to return to the vessel and continue the voyage, which he, however, refused to do. There are a number of other points in the case, but these facts seem sufficient to show that the captain, however much in sympathy he may be with the desire of Chinamen in general to come to the United States, had no desire to land Ah Chung here at all, and that his act is therefore hardly within the spirit of the statute. On the other hand, the promoters of the statute would probably say that to punish a captain for the desertion of a Chinaman when in an American port would no doubt have a very deterrent effect on captains in general, and show them that we "mean business." Captains with Chinamen aboard would, on learning what our laws were, put them in irons on nearing the American coast, and we should thus in future be saved the trouble and expense of returning the wretches to their native country under Section 12 of the Act.

If Governor Butler has not been misrepresented in regard to his motives in entering upon the Tewksbury inquiry, he will be well pleased with the majority report of the Legislative Committee. It is quite probable that the report, somewhere in the fourteen columns which it fills, presents, to those who have patience to read it, a refutation of the Governor's charges; but that refutation, submitted briefly and compactly, would have been far more effective than any quantity of "scathing review" of the Governor's purposes and methods. General Butler has invited criticism for so many years, so many persons have tried their hands at it, there is so large a body of specimens to draw upon, that it was easy enough for any moderately clever committeeman to say any number of sharp things about him. The majority might have remembered that attacking Butler has lost its effect upon the public through familiarity, while, so far as he is concerned, it ought to be tolerably well known that the "scathing" process not only occasions him no inconvenience, but has become a part of his stock in trade. Some passages of the report are singularly weak. For example, the majority lament that "the people of this proud commonwealth" have been exposed to "shame and humiliation" by the Governor. This is childish. The reputation of Massachusetts is too secure to be affected by any charges that are false. To save the State from "shame and humiliation" it was only necessary to disprove the charges, as the majority were enabled to do by abundant evidence. Their mistake is in overloading the case with matter which directly plays into Butler's hands by joining issue with him in a personal and political wrangle, instead of meeting his charges with a brief, calm, and dignified refutation. The Governor will be further helped to turn the controversy to partisan account by the fact that the majority and minority are divided on strict party grounds—a division which he has managed to bring about with characteristic adroitness.

Another of those curious New England reunions—a family convention, this time that of the Boynton family—is to be held in Massachusetts next month, and has already begun to attract the attention of the press, which has shown a tendency of late years to treat these meetings with levity. It is evident that the family convention cannot long hold its own if the newspapers ridicule it. No family, however mighty or distinguished, can magnify its own fame by a festive celebration unless the general public takes the celebration seriously, and it is impossible to get the public to take anything seriously which the press treats lightly. The reported proceedings at these conventions are so strange that it is often difficult to make out how far they actually take place and how far they are the works of "reportorial" fancy. The *Times* had an account the other day of a convention of the Smiths, in which a member of that eminent family made a speech reported as having caused great delight among the assembled tribesmen. In this he traced the Smiths back to Adam and Eve Smith, "pointed with pride" to the blameless though short life of their son Abel Smith, acknowledged with regret that a bloody stain had been left on the family escutcheon by Cain Smith, traced the line down to the distinguished man who in modern times had thrown so much lustre on the name—John Smith—repudiated all connection with that snobbish branch of the family that had brought the

name into discredit by spelling it Smyth or Smythe, and "claimed" on behalf of the family as a whole, what was perfectly true, that from the earliest to the latest times the Smiths have played a most important part in the history of the world.

Mere family affection will not account for these meetings. The actual family unit, at its largest, is represented by such meetings as take place at Christmas or Thanksgiving, and these are only large enough to fill a room, or at most a house. A convention such as those that get together in New England, large enough to fill all the hotels and boarding-houses in a good-sized town, is not what any member of it really means when he speaks in ordinary conversation of his "family," beyond the limits of which family affection does not extend. Indeed, it may be doubted whether the sentiment felt in modern times for relatives and connections outside of this little circle—even in cases where they can be put to some use, in the way of hospitality or pecuniary assistance—is not one of dislike and suspicion; the poorer members of the family looking upon the richer as having got a share of the world's goods to which their intrinsic merits by no means entitle them; the richer looking upon the poorer with apprehension, as being likely to take unfair advantage of the family tie to intrude themselves into their society or to make unfounded boasts of a non-existent intimacy with them. On the other hand, the magnification of the fame of the family by means of a convention is by no means an easy task, partly because the public is sure in the long run to resent the use of such means. The repute accorded to any family, however distinguished, is, like the fame of individuals, the result of what they actually do—not of what they say about themselves, or even of the publicity which they give their own great deeds. They may by holding meetings undoubtedly increase their notoriety; but notoriety in this field will never do as a substitute for fame.

One of the counsel for the contestants in the Hammersley will case gave a reporter last week an interesting account of the history of the property which is to be fought for. It deserves the attention at least of all rich men about to make wills. It seems that it is now some forty-four years since any one knew positively who owned this property. It once belonged to a gentleman named Mason, who made the mistake of trying to dispose of it by will. His will was broken by his heirs, after a contest lasting thirteen years; but, meantime, to guard against the possibility of a contrary decision, the property was transferred by deeds, absolute on their face, and ultimately came to the late Mr. Hammersley. He died, leaving a will, and the lawyers now say in the first place that his will is good for nothing; in the second place, that, whether it is or not, the original transfers were void; or, if valid, that they had an entirely different effect from what has hitherto been supposed; and nothing, it seems, but a great number of very expensive and vexatious lawsuits can possibly determine who the owner is. Ten years, probably, is the shortest period that counsel can allow to settle the question. The difficulty about the settlement of any question of property in New York is always in the direct ratio of the size of the estate—a curious legal phenomenon unknown in other countries, and even in communities as near by as Massachusetts.

The Legislature of Georgia, which is now holding its adjourned session, is on the eve of considering the report of a committee appointed at the regular session last winter to inquire into the advisability of establishing a State school of technology. The members of the Committee are, as we judge from their published interviews, clear-headed men, alive to the needs of their State, and willing to learn from any competent instructor. They have, during vacation, examined the schools of Worcester, Hoboken, Boston, and New York, and the result is an earnest advocacy by them of the establishment of similar schools in Georgia. The press of the State, it is gratifying to observe, has warmly coöperated with them, though there is some difference among the leading journals about the grade of school which should be at first supported—whether, for instance, one conducted upon the general plan of those visited by the Committee, or one resembling the recently established school in Chicago. But they all heartily favor "the new departure" in education.

It was to be expected that Georgia would be among the foremost of the Southern States to take into consideration this question of technical training, and it is safe to predict that prompt favorable action will follow—if not on the part of the State, at any rate, of its enterprising citizens. Great progress has been made there in the last few years in agriculture. The intelligent system adopted by Furman has proved of such palpable benefit that there has been an utter abandonment (theoretically, at least) of the old system by all who have come within his influence. It is not improbable that the skilled labor which it seems now the intention of Georgia to possess, will secure even greater blessings to the State than the adoption of new systems of farming. The same may be said of the South generally. Already the young men from that section are to be found in the machine shops and technological schools of the North. Some of them are working at Altoona and elsewhere, having completed their academic studies at Southern universities, and having turned their backs upon positions once eagerly grasped by the class to which they belong. These are awaiting the change which is to come over the South, and which the report of the Georgia Committee, and the agitation which it will cause, whether or not it secures a legislative appropriation, will hasten.

The latest news from England shows the deep impression made by the success of the Parnellites in Monaghan, followed as it has been by the success of another of them in Wexford, where the O'Connor Don, one of the oldest and hitherto one of the most respected of the Catholic and Celtic gentry, who ran as a Liberal, was not only badly beaten at the polls, but was hooted through the streets by the mob. The reason why the Monaghan election has made so much stir is, as is now well known, that Monaghan is an Ulster County—that is, a county in the Scotch and Protestant district, in which the Nationalist or Separatist feeling has hitherto obtained but little support. The triumph of the Parnellites does not, however, indicate that the Nationalist cause is making positive progress in Ulster, because they did not put it forward in their canvass; but it does indicate that the Ulster voters are getting over their hostility to the Nationalists, and are willing to work with them and through them on the land question. The danger is that if they get into the habit of working with them and through them on the land question, they will get into the way of working with them on other questions, and finally on the greatest question of all, the political relations of the two islands. At all events, it has made a Parnellite force of seventy or seventy-five, which has hitherto seemed a vague possibility, a very palpable and very near probability.

An Irish vote of this size in the House of Commons, acting together and following out the Parnellite policy of treating every question as subordinate to Irish questions, and all Cabinets as worthy of overthrow on any question which did not accept Parnellite views about Ireland, would, of course, make the transaction of business in Parliament under the present system of attack and defence impossible. There is talk already of some understanding between the Ministry and the Opposition, with a view to preventing the Irish vote from affecting the game as now played; but it is difficult to see how any arrangement could be made which would accomplish this object. Suppose, for instance, that they were to agree that the Irish vote should not count so as to compel the resignation of a ministry; the adoption of such a plan would introduce a very startling and very dangerous innovation into the working of the Government. It would, in the first place, be a partial disfranchisement by the majority of an obnoxious minority, and it could not be prevented from forming a precedent which would reach other minorities besides the Irish. It would, in fact, be a new and extra-constitutional weapon in the hands of any majority made up of a combination between the Ministry and the Opposition. Moreover, it would be nearly as flagrant a disregard of Constitutional usage to say that the votes of a portion of the House should not count for the overthrow of a ministry as to say that they should not count for the defeat of a bill. It is not as well settled, but it is nearly as well settled, that a minister shall resign when there is a considerable majority against him on one or at least two or three important measures, as that a bill shall not become a law when it does not obtain a majority on three readings. If he refused to do so, he would be carrying Parliament to the Tudor régime, which now prevails in Prussia, where the minister stays in office as long as the King thinks proper, no matter how small his following in the Chamber. But the English people would never tolerate this.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 18, to TUESDAY, July 24, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

A STRIKE of the Telegraphers' Brotherhood was expected throughout the country on Wednesday, but it was postponed, evidently with the aim of giving the Executive Committee of the Western Union Company an opportunity to meet and consider the demands of the Brotherhood. The Committee met on Wednesday afternoon and ignored the Brotherhood, but appointed a sub-committee "to inquire into complaints of inequalities of compensation or conditions of service of employees of this company, if any, and report to this committee." The action of the Western Union Committee aroused the Brotherhood to final action. It is said that the members were notified at midnight of Wednesday by despatches sent all over the country that the strike was to begin the next day. At 12 o'clock noon, Washington time, on Thursday 473 men and women were quietly at work in the operators' rooms of the Western Union central office in this city. Suddenly some one blew a shrill whistle, and instantly nearly every key was deserted, and with cheers the operators walked in an orderly manner out of the building. Not one hundred of their fellows remained at work. A similar scene was enacted in all the large offices of the country at the same moment of Washington time. About 12,000 operators quit work. From no point was disorder or unlawful action reported. The strike extended to all companies whose operators were members of the Brotherhood. The press associations having leased lines were not interfered with, and the cable service was continued at full speed and efficiency, but in every other branch of business the result was noticeable. The New York Produce Exchange suddenly ceased to transact its accustomed business; all commercial messages were received for transmission with a proviso that no damages should be claimed on account of delay. Business was everywhere delayed for hours.

In this city the work of reorganizing a force of operators was immediately begun at the various company offices. There were many volunteer and inexperienced hands, and by Friday the Western Union central office claimed to have half the usual number of operators at work. The strikers asserted that there were not more than a score of skilled men in that number. Reports of a more or less encouraging nature were telegraphed from many cities during the day, but business seemed to be transacted with great delay. Operators were called in from country offices which were closed. Both employers and strikers were firm and confident. Mr. Jay Gould said on Friday: "We do not propose to recognize any committee of the Brotherhood, and if the employees of the company persist in their present action they will not get a cent." The strikers were greatly encouraged on Saturday by additions to their ranks, and held general enthusiastic meetings in this city. The situation remained practically unchanged on Tuesday, except that the operators were more confident than usual of success. There were well-founded reports of negotiations on the part of the American Rapid and Baltimore and Ohio Companies in this city for a compromise with the strikers. They however refused to carry on the negotiations, it is said, through the Brotherhood. The Western Union denied that it had made any advances toward a settlement. The Brotherhood assert that the railroad operators will strike whenever they are so ordered by the Society.

Ten thousand persons in this city, previously employed in cigar-making, were on Thursday out of employment. The doors of fifteen large shops were not opened, in accordance with the manufacturers' threats of a lock-out unless the 250 Progressive Union men formerly employed by S. Ottenberg & Brothers, in East Twenty-third Street, returned to work before Wednesday evening. The strikers positively refused to return to work while there remained in the shop the twenty-six International Union men who declined to strike against a change of the end of the pay week from Friday night to Thursday night. On Tuesday the workmen declined an overture from their former employers.

The first stage of the settlement of the question of priority of invention of the several parts of the telephone was reached on Saturday, when the Examiner of Interferences in the Patent Office promulgated his decision in "the speaking-telephone interference cases." Among other points decided, priority of invention is awarded to Bell for the art by which oral conversation or sounds of any description can be telegraphically transmitted; also for the improvement in the art of transmitting vocal sounds or spoken words telegraphically. Priority of invention is awarded to Edison, although he did not claim it, for the transmitter, consisting of the combination in an electric circuit of a diaphragm and a liquid or equivalent substance of high resistance, whereby the vibrations of the diaphragm cause variations in the resistance of the electric current.

In the Criminal Court, Washington, on Wednesday morning, Judge Wylie delivered an opinion upon the pleas in abatement by the defence and the demurrer entered by the Government in the case of the United States against William Pitt Kellogg, charged with illegally receiving money while a United States Senator for his action in connection with the expedition of certain Star-routes. He said the matter was entirely within the power of the Court to determine. All the pleas were overruled.

Thirty-one prominent citizens of Chicago have presented Gen. Phil Sheridan with a house in Washington, in view of his early departure for that city from Chicago to assume the position of General of the Army.

President Arthur arrived at Cape May on Monday from Washington in the steamer *Despatch*. He gave a public reception there, and left for New York near midnight, where he arrived on Tuesday.

The decision of the Secretary of the Interior in regard to the claim of the Southern Pacific Railroad Company to the unearned land grant of the extinct Texas Pacific Company has been postponed until September.

According to a recent estimate about $300,000,000 of the national debt, or less than 20 per cent., is held in Europe.

It is probable that Supervising Architect Hill will resign if the investigation now in progress finds him not guilty of any corrupt act. He says that he will not resign under fire.

Captain Payne, of Oklahoma fame, and his attorney, Colonel Waters, of Topeka, made application on Monday at Keokuk, Ia., to Judge McCrary for an injunction to restrain General Pope from interfering with the settlement of Indian Territory.

The Senatorial contest in New Hampshire was continued throughout the week. On Wednesday Mr. Chandler received 74 votes, and Mr. H. Bingham 116. The situation remained practically unchanged on Tuesday.

The Republican State Central Committee of Virginia met on Thursday, and elected John F. Dezendorf Chairman. Resolutions were adopted approving the course of Mr. Dezendorf in his defence of Republicans, and saying "that among the many able men whose names are being connected with the candidacy for the next President of the United States, James G. Blaine is the preference of the Republicans of Virginia."

The lower house of the Georgia Legislature on Friday passed, by 105 to 41, a bill taxing all railroads in the State in each county through which they pass.

The Tewksbury Almshouse Investigating Committee reports were submitted to the Massachusetts House on Friday. All the Republican members sign the majority report and all the Democrats the minority report. The majority report reviews at great length the evidence given before the Investigating Committee, and concludes by finding the main charges of Governor Butler "groundless and cruel." The report of the minority holds that by the technical rules of law adopted by the Committee of Investigation much important testimony was excluded, but that the evidence submitted leads them to believe that three of the trustees, Nourse, Elliott, and Spaulding, have been unfaithful to their trust, and that the retention of Marsh in his place all these years has been simply a crime, for which the trustees are mainly responsible. The minority are also of the opinion that the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity cannot evade responsibility in the matter.

The Niagara Park Commission, at a meeting in this city on Friday, authorized the State Engineer to proceed to make a map of the proposed park, the expense not to exceed $1,000, and to be paid out of the funds of the Commission.

A pool embracing all the railroads Eastbound out of Chicago which supply business to the trunk lines was completed on Friday. It supersedes the old pool and includes the three new lines—the Chicago and Atlantic, the Chicago, St. Louis and Pittsburgh, and the Nickel Plate. It is to be in effect for five years from July 1. Commissioner Fink is to determine the percentages on the division of business.

General Swaim is quoted as saying that if Stephen W Dorsey can produce any letter to show that he was ever offered a Cabinet position, he owes it to General Garfield to do so. He says that while Garfield appreciated Dorsey's services as a politician, he had said to him (Swaim) that Dorsey had "a screw loose in his moral make-up."

Severe storms prevailed in Minnesota, Illinois, and Ontario on Saturday, doing much damage to crops and property.

Hanlan, the Canadian oarsman, defeated Wallace Ross at Ogdensburg, N. Y., on the St. Lawrence, on Wednesday evening, in a boat race (four miles with a turn) by almost a quarter of a mile. Time, 27:57½, beating the best previous record.

General E. O. C. Ord, of the United States Army, died of yellow fever at Havana on Sunday. He was sixty-five years of age. From January to June, 1865, he was in command of the Department of Virginia, engaging in the siege of Petersburg and the pursuit and capture of Lee. After the close of the war he commanded the Departments of California, the Platte, and Texas. He was made Brigadier-General in the regular army July 26, 1866.

Commodore William N. Jeffers, of the United States Navy, died in Washington on Monday evening. He entered the navy in 1840, and served with credit in the Mexican war and the rebellion. He was prominent in the Ordnance Department, and was at one time its chief. He was the author of a number of technical books.

Martin Millmore, the sculptor, died in Boston on Saturday afternoon at the age of thirty-eight. His last work was the bust of Daniel Webster for the State House at Concord, N. H.

Mr. Richard L. Dugdale, author of 'The Jukes' and a contributor to various magazines in this country and Europe upon social science, died in this city on Monday of heart disease, at the age of forty-two years.

Ginery Twichell died in Brookline, Mass., on Monday, aged seventy-two. He was a prominent railroad man, and a member of the Forty-first and Forty-second Congresses.

Captain Webb, the champion swimmer of England, lost his life on Tuesday in an at-

tempt to swim down the rapids of Niagara. He disappeared in the whirlpool.

A terrible calamity occurred at North Point, Tivoli, an excursion resort on the Patapsco River, ten miles from Baltimore, about 10 o'clock on Monday night, by which many lives were lost, the number being estimated between sixty and seventy. The accident was occasioned by the giving way of the outer portion of a pier on which several hundred persons were congregated, awaiting the boat to return to the city. They were an excursion party from a Catholic church of Baltimore. More than one hundred were precipitated into the water when the pier gave way. Many were rescued. Those drowned were mostly young girls and children. Sixty-five bodies were brought to Baltimore on Tuesday, and most of them were identified.

FOREIGN.

On Friday it was announced that Sir Charles Rivers-Wilson had gone as a representative of the British Government to interview M. de Lesseps in Paris on the Suez Canal affair. He asked that the number of British directors of the Suez Canal Company be increased from three to five; that the number of British members on the Committee of Finances be increased to three, and that the company have an office in London; also that the surplus profits of the Suez Canal Company be shared by stockholders and shipowners when the dividend reaches 21 per cent. On Saturday it was announced that the mission had been successfully accomplished, that M. de Lesseps had modified the agreement, and Sir Charles Rivers-Wilson had returned to England.

Mr. Gladstone, however, announced in the House of Commons on Monday afternoon that he would not ask Parliament at this session to sanction the agreement in regard to the Suez Canal, made with M. de Lesseps. The announcement was received with cheers by the Opposition. The agreement will be referred to a special committee. Mr. Gladstone also said that the consideration of the agreement had been dropped, owing to the general objection to the scheme and because more time had been asked for by some of the members. He declined to express his opinion relative to the bold idea in favor of an international committee to control the Canal, although he admitted that the Canal would be made to benefit all. England, Mr. Gladstone said, would not use her temporary exceptional position in Egypt to invade rights which had been lawfully acquired. M. de Lesseps had informed Sir Charles Rivers-Wilson, in their negotiations in Paris, that he considered that the Government was not in any way bound to press the agreement on Parliament. But whatever might be done a second canal would be constructed as rapidly as possible.

On Tuesday Sir Stafford Northcote gave notice in the House of Commons that he would soon move an address to the Queen, praying that in any negotiations relative to the Suez Canal she would decline to recognize any claim of the Suez Canal Company to such a monopoly as would exclude other undertakings designed for the purpose of opening a way between the Mediterranean and Red Seas.

A letter from M. de Lesseps to Mr. Gladstone, dated July 20, has been published in London. He points out that the agreement gives such just rights as are permitted by the obligations of a company which enjoys an exclusive monopoly for ninety-nine years. He fears that the unpleasant discussion which has arisen in England with reference to the agreement may prejudice friendly sentiments between the English and French peoples. He begs Mr. Gladstone, in the interest of general peace and of the Franco-English alliance, not to consider himself bound by the agreement. If it is suspended, or even withdrawn, he says, the Suez Canal Company, while it will immediately proceed with the construction of the second canal, will enforce reductions of dues as stipulated in the agreement. Mr. Gladstone has replied to M. de Lesseps, thanking him for his letter.

M. Waddington's appointment as French ambassador to England is considered throughout Europe as a pacific act. On Friday the London *Times* asserted that there was every appearance that the difference between France and England arising from the Tamatave affair would be easily settled.

Queen Victoria on Tuesday went to Osborne.

The great rifle match at Wimbledon, England, between the teams of British and American militia, began on Friday. Twelve men constituted each team. The shooting was done in rounds, seven at each distance. The highest possible score for each man in seven rounds was 35. The shooting began at noon in a light rain. The scores during the first day's shooting were as follows: American team at 200 yards 352, 500 yards 366, 600 yards 360; total, 1,078. British team at same distances, 340, 376, 354; total, 1,070. The Americans were therefore 8 ahead on the first day's work, and were elated and confident on account of their success. The second day was one of alternate rain and sunshine, with a wind unfavorable for great scores. The Americans increased their lead at 800, scoring 16 points more than the British; at 900 yards the British gained 34 points, giving them a lead of 10 points, which they increased to 45 at 1,000 yards. The scores for the second day were as follows: American team, 800 yards 346, 900 yards 263, 1,000 yards 219; British team at same distances, 330, 297, 254. Total for two days: British, 1,951; American, 1,906; British win by 45 points. The Americans were treated with great cordiality by the English. They were entertained at luncheon by the Lord Mayor of London on Tuesday.

The shooting for the Kolapore Cup took place at Wimbledon, England, on Wednesday. It was won by the English team, Canada, Jersey, Guernsey, and India also competing.

A memorial has been forwarded to the Earl of Derby by the Executive Council of Queensland urging the British Government to reconsider their decision to forbid the annexation of New Guinea to that province, and inviting them to take steps to provide a federal government for Australia.

Sir Charles Michael Wolseley, Baronet, was married on Thursday in the pro-cathedral at Kensington, England, to Miss Anita Theresa Murphy, daughter of Mr. D. T. Murphy, of San Francisco, Cal. The ceremony was performed by Cardinal Manning.

Sir Augustus Paget has been appointed British Ambassador at Vienna.

At a recent meeting of the International Literary Association, in London, the draft of an international copyright convention, which is to be presented at the conference to be held in Berne in September, was read.

Lord Penzance, Dean of the Court of Arches, has sentenced the Rev. Mr. Mackonochie, the well-known English Ritualist, to deprivation of his ecclesiastical preferment, with costs.

The steamer *Daphne* was floated near Glasgow on Thursday, and a great many more bodies recovered. The total number so far recovered is 123.

The London *Times*, in its crop report of Monday, says the area of wheat planted in the United Kingdom is from 10 to 15 per cent. below that of last year, and the yield will be below the average. Reports from the Continent are similar in their conclusions.

The South Dublin (Ireland) Union has given its consent to the emigration to Canada of eighty workhouse inmates.

Business in Alexandria, Egypt, is entirely suspended on account of the cholera. It was announced on Friday that the disease had ceased at Port Said. The European Powers increased their precautions against cholera during the week. A correspondent at Cairo asserts that unless the English authorities promptly take the direction of affairs, the checking of the disease will be hopeless. Quarantine was abolished on Saturday throughout Egypt, except in Alexandria and the Province of Fayum, where it is retained at the request of the British Consul-General. Two hundred and forty-two deaths occurred at Cairo on Friday, and about five hundred on Monday. The disease has appeared at Suez.

M. Challemel-Lacour, French Minister of Foreign Affairs, in the Senate on Saturday said that France had not declared war against Anam. There was no thought as yet, he said, of establishing a blockade in Anamese waters, but France would certainly do so if any other Power should supply Anam with arms and ammunition. Tuduc had not declared war against France; on the contrary, he had avowed respect for the existing treaties between France and Anam. M. Challemel-Lacour believed it to be untrue that the Tuduc had asked assistance of China. In conclusion, the Foreign Minister said: "Although there is not open war, yet all the acts and language of the Tuduc, and likewise of China and her ambassadors, have been such that we must consider ourselves at war with Anam."

The French Senate on Friday voted urgency for the Judicial Reform Bill, and decided by a vote of 169 to 114 to pass to the discussion of its clauses.

The harvest in Prussia promises well, especially in the northeastern provinces. It will be less in Pomerania and Brandenburg. Wheat in the former is below the average. In Schleswig-Holstein, Westphalia, and Rhenish Prussia drought has done much damage.

The court at Nyiregyhaza, Hungary, which is trying several Jews charged with the murder of Esther Solymosi, went to Tisza Ezlar on July 17, when the boy witness, Moritz Scharf, was compelled to look through the key-hole in the door of the synagogue, through which he alleges that he saw the murder committed. It was conclusively proved that it was impossible to see a group of persons, as he swore he did. A constable on Thursday testified that he had been compelled to torture one of the Jewish prisoners.

A clew to a Nihilist plot has been discovered at Tula, capital of the Government of that name in Russia.

The rebellion in the lower end of the State of Tamaulipas, in Mexico, is said to be gaining strength daily. It is reported that more than 400 men, headed by young Cortinas, attacked and defeated the Government forces. This is the first engagement which has taken place.

It was reported from Mexico on Wednesday that the Rev. Mr. Shaw, Acting American Consul at Monterey, had been attacked and beaten almost to death by a mob of Mexicans. The furniture and papers belonging to the Consulate were destroyed. On Monday news was received that the affair was an ordinary robbery.

The revolutionists remain in undisturbed possession of Miragoane, Hayti. Although the Government troops number 9,000 men, they apparently fight only when attacked.

A letter was published on Thursday in Lima, Peru, from Colonel Gorostiaga to General Lynch, dated Huanachaca Heights, July 10, in which he said: "After two days' cannonade and firing, the division under my command engaged the united forces of Caceres, Rocobarren, Elias, and other chiefs, obtaining a complete victory and entirely dispersing them. All their artillery is in our possession." Caceres had 4,000 men, six Krupp cannon, and an abundant supply of rifles, while Colonel Gorostiaga had only 1,600 men. It is calculated that Caceres lost 1,000 killed on the Heights.

THE PUBLIC AND THE STRIKERS.

THERE is one fact in the telegraphic troubles that is full of suggestions touching any attempt which may be made to provide a legislative remedy for such cases, and that is, the avowal made by the strikers that they chose this period of the year for the strike because it is that in which there is most telegraphing; or, in other words, because it is that in which the strike will cause most business and social inconvenience. It is the season at which most city men are away from their places of business, or separated from their families, and in which there are most travellers by land and sea, and, therefore, that in which the loss of the telegraph will cause most confusion and annoyance—not to the companies, be it remembered, but to the innocent public, which has never done either of the parties to the dispute the slightest wrong. It apparently has not occurred to the strikers that they have any duty to the public whatever, or that they are not at perfect liberty to inflict on it any loss or damage which will help them in their war with their employers.

This is certainly a queer state of mind for a large body of intelligent men, but it is not an unnatural state of mind in view of the public hostility toward all the great corporations for some years past. Every malcontent now thinks that if he cannot command the public ear on any other subject, he can at least command it on the tyranny of monopolists, and that if he cannot secure public sympathy in any other way, he can do it by telling a story of wrong done him by a railroad or telegraph company. The employees of the great corporations, therefore, take it for granted that when they strike, the public will be on their side, and that it will visit on the corporation whatever loss or annoyance the strike may occasion. It is not surprising that, holding this view, they should seek to make the loss and annoyance as great as possible. They are strengthened in this position, too, by the attitude of the courts toward common carriers. The law has always been very strict with common carriers, and rightly so. It takes no excuse, or almost none, for their failure to perform their contracts, except what it calls "act of God," or war or rebellion—that is, overwhelming necessity. It appeared, too, from the decisions in the suits arising out of the freight-handlers' strikes, a year ago, that the courts were not willing to consider a general strike of employees as a good excuse for nonfulfilment of a contract, on the ground that the companies could have all the freight-handlers they wanted by paying the wages demanded. Of course, strikers could not want a better weapon than this against an employer charged, like a railroad or a telegraph company, with a great public service. Under it, all they have to do in order to bring the employers to terms is to throw the machinery out of gear even for a few days. How readily this doctrine is applied to the telegraph companies, we see in the present case.

Now we are as desirous as anybody of seeing corporations compelled to do their duty and kept in their proper place. But there are the seeds of much confusion and disaster in the notion that they must and will be made to bear the blame of all loss or inconvenience arising out of disputes between them and their servants. Whatever fresh legislation may be needed now or hereafter to make them do their duty to the public, must therefore take cognizance of the duty of their employees also. The doctrine of the common law with regard to common carriers grew up at a period when a carrier who employed twenty men was a very great carrier indeed. In fact, the original common carrier, around whom the early judicial decisions cluster, was a man who carried on his business with one wagon or a few packhorses. When the excuses for non-delivery first took shape in the judicial and legislative head, the thought of a common carrier employing an army of twenty or forty thousand men had never entered it. Consequently a general strike was never thought of as one of the contingencies which ought to excuse failure in performance. And yet, with such organizations as modern corporations are, charged with the maintenance of communication and transportation over vast and thickly-peopled areas, a strike may be just as great an impediment to the discharge of their duty as a foreign invasion, a rebellion, or flood, or earthquake. Of course, they can end a strike by conceding everything demanded; but supposing that such a concession would destroy discipline, or make it impossible to conduct their business except at a loss, would not asking them to make it be asking them the equivalent of an impossibility? All mercantile corporations exist for the purpose of making profits; to impose on them conditions incompatible with profits is to convert them, against the will of the members, into philanthropic associations—something which neither law nor public opinion has any right to do.

We say all this without meaning to express any opinion whatever of the merits of the controversy now pending between the telegraph companies and their operators. No matter which of the parties is in the right, the use of the public loss, inconvenience, and annoyance by either of them to bring the other to terms is something which the law ought not to tolerate. Any legislation enacted for the regulation and control of corporations, therefore—that is, for the purpose of making them discharge their duty to the public, whether through commissions or otherwise—must hereafter take cognizance of differences with their employees. We cannot treat strikes as always justifiable on the part of the servants and preventable on the part of the employers. Sometimes one side is right and sometimes the other. More frequently still, each is half right and half wrong. There ought to be a tribunal for the decision of such controversies, which seriously touch the public interest and convenience, and, the decision once rendered, general strikes in defiance or evasion of it should be punishable in some manner.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN PARLIAMENT.

IT is now more than twenty years since woman suffrage was mooted in England. At first it was received with ridicule, and even the respected name of John Stuart Mill barely sufficed to procure a fair hearing for it. Then by degrees people became familiarized with it. Some were attracted by the abstract justice which appeared to underlie it. Some thought that Mr. Mill was right in believing it would enrich and elevate the lives of women, and make them fitter companions for men. Some looked to see certain legal injustices from which women suffered removed more quickly when the political rights of women had been recognized. In 1870, when the Education Act was passed, women received the right of voting at the elections of school boards, and even of being themselves chosen members of school boards; and soon afterward they were also empowered to vote at municipal elections. In both cases, the suffrage was extended only to spinsters or widows paying rates, so that the number enfranchised was not very great—less than twenty per cent. of the whole number of voters. Since this change, which, strange to say, was made without debate or opposition, and indeed passed almost unnoticed, the position of the advocates of female suffrage has been greatly strengthened. They are now able to use two new arguments. They can appeal to the fact that women already exercise the school-board and municipal franchise, and that no evil results have followed. They can ask what reason there is why, when the same standard of qualification, viz., the payment of rates (local taxes), is applied to men and women as regards the election of local councils and officers, the identical standard of qualification under which men receive the Parliamentary franchise should not confer that franchise upon women also.

Thus the movement advanced sensibly during the first few years after 1870. Some able and eminent men became converts to it, and one in particular, Lord Beaconsfield, carried a good many disciples in his train. It was, however, shrewdly surmised that his adhesion was due to his believing that the extension of the suffrage to women would greatly strengthen the Conservative party, and this belief has, perhaps, checked the ardor of some Liberals, who think that Lord Beaconsfield was likely to be right. A few years ago there seemed to be a slight reaction against the idea, and it is very hard to say whether or no it is gaining ground at this moment. It seems to spread among the women themselves. Although the great majority of women in the United Kingdom have, of course, never heard of it at all, and, even in the upper and educated classes, would not care about it if they had heard, still, it cannot be doubted that the number of female adherents grows, not perhaps rapidly, but steadily. The education of women has made great strides in England by the establishment of girls' high schools and colleges; and the number of women who have larger ideas than their mothers, with more eagerness to join in the pursuits and interests of men, is always larger. Politics themselves have been hotter during the last seven years than they had been for some time before, and are more talked about by women or in their presence. Nor is it by any means what are called masculine women that now support the agitation. Many ladies, not merely of high social position, but of cultivation and refine-

ment, perfectly feminine in their ideas and habits, take part in it, and bring their personal influence to bear on their husbands, fathers, brothers, sons, cousins, "well-wishers," and friends generally. Nevertheless, the progress of the cause among men is not rapid. Two distinguished persons who at one time favored it, Mr. John Bright and Mr. Goldwin Smith, not only withdrew, but have, the latter especially, expressed themselves decidedly against it. Other statesmen of scarcely less eminence have privately declared that although they had formerly voted for it, they would never do so again. Recruits continue among the younger politicians, but the weight of authority for it can hardly be said to be any greater (if so great) now than it was ten years ago.

It must be remembered that the form which the proposal takes in England differs widely from what we are familiar with in this country. There exists in the English boroughs a franchise which, although greatly widened by the Reform Act of 1867, is still far removed from universal or manhood suffrage. It is enjoyed (omitting minor details) only by ratepayers or lodgers paying a certain rent, and residing in the same house for a certain length of time, and practically gives constituencies not more than half as large in proportion to the population as they would be on our system. In the counties the suffrage is much more limited. Now, the proposition hitherto made by the woman suffragists, and advocated this year by Mr. Hugh Mason, in whose hands their case was placed, is to extend the Parliamentary franchise only to women who possess such qualifications as would give it them if they were men—that is to say, who pay their own rates. Married women, sisters who live with their brothers, daughters who live with their fathers, would therefore not be admitted, because the house is usually in the man's name and he pays the rates. Hence the addition to the number of voters would not be very large—perhaps from twelve to sixteen per cent. of the present voters—and thus the proposal seems a far less momentous one than it would be in a country where universal suffrage prevailed.

However, the advocates of Mr. Mason's motion were not altogether agreed on the subject. Some insisted that they were asking votes for single women only, and even admitted that the gift of the right to married women might be mischievous, as tending to endanger the peace of families; while some added that it was unnecessary, because the wife is, in a sense, represented through her husband. Others, however, felt that this position is one hard to maintain logically. Why, they say, should a wife be represented only through and by a husband who is perhaps inferior to her intellectually and morally, who may be opposed to her in politics, who may be living on her money? Why should marriage operate to disfranchise a woman who had enjoyed political rights before? She may be even more fit to exercise them as she grows older and learns politics in the society of her husband and other men. Moreover, by an act of the last session, woman at last enjoys the full ownership of whatever property comes to her by bequest or is acquired by her own exertions; so that, if property be taken as a basis, she would seem no less entitled, where she has it, than her husband. Naturally, to give the Parliamentary franchise to married women seems to most Englishmen a far bolder thing than to confine it to spinsters and widows; and the sense that it would be hard to find a logical stopping place if it was once conferred on the latter, with the knowledge that the present agitation would be resumed for the purpose of obtaining the further boon, doubtless operated to repel some who might otherwise have supported the proposal in the limited form which it actually took.

The division, which took place on the 6th of July, showed 116 members voting for woman suffrage and 132 against it, the numbers from various causes being smaller than had been expected. The majority, likewise, by which the motion was rejected was much smaller than any one would have dreamed of twenty years ago, and if the prospects of the cause were to be measured by the change between 1863 and 1883, they would seem brilliant indeed. But it may be doubted whether ultimate success is near. The Conservative party did not generally follow the lead of Lord Beaconsfield, and gave the motion only a scanty support. The support among Liberal members was, of course, far larger, but most of the leaders either voted against it, like Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright, or else, like Mr. Chamberlain, stayed away. However, the past history of the movement is such as may well discourage prophecy; but no one can doubt that whether women are fit or not for the franchise, they are fitter now than they were when Mill wrote, and are daily becoming more interested in and better judges of political affairs.

THE NEW SUEZ CANAL PROJECT.

LONDON, July 14, 1883.

THE most sudden and startling sensation of this session, otherwise, happily, much duller and flatter than that of 1882, has just fallen upon England in the proposals of the Government relating to the construction of a new Suez Canal. They were stated to Parliament two days ago, and since then nobody has talked of anything else. Although you will have learned long before these lines reach you how English opinion has expressed itself, still a contemporary reflection of the first impressions which the public has experienced may have some interest for your readers, who have perhaps scarcely realized the extent to which the topic has begun to occupy us.

For some months past, and especially of course since the pacification of Egypt, which followed the victory of last September, there has been a growing discontent with the management and state of the Canal. Its dimensions are unequal to the vast and always growing traffic which passes through it; vessels have to encounter great delays, and disputes arise in consequence. The dues are heavy, and the administration is said to be in many ways vexatious, giving the minor officials, who are, of course, mostly French, opportunities for making unreasonable exactions, even in excess of the heavy tolls and extravagantly heavy pilotage charges. Some three years ago the profits on the trade through the Canal increased rapidly, and in consequence the number and tonnage of vessels passing through has very largely grown, while as the greater competition for freights has reduced the profits, the pressure of the Canal tolls and charges is more severely felt. Four-fifths of the tonnage is British, so that British shipowners are more interested than those of any other country in procuring a lightening of the tolls and an improvement of the facilities for speedy and secure navigation. Early in the present year the complaints of the shipowners began to take shape, and while memorials have been addressed to the Government, meetings have been held at which projects were discussed for making another water way from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea. Three plans were put forward. One was a second canal through the Isthmus of Suez, generally parallel to the present one. Another was the construction of a canal from Alexandria, or some other point near it, to Suez, an enterprise which would cost, perhaps, twice as much as a canal along the existing line. A third was to make a deep cutting from the Bay of Acre across the Plain of Esdraelon to the Sea of Galilee, and thus to let the waters of the Mediterranean into the Jordan Valley, which, as everybody knows, is much below the level of the ocean. The result would be to submerge the Sea of Galilee, the whole line of the Jordan, the Dead Sea, and the deep depression which runs away south from it from Zoar toward Akabah, at the head of the easternmost arm of the Red Sea. This depression, however, the southern part of which goes by the name of the Wadi el Araba, is not continuous, but rises at one point some hundreds of feet above the level of the Red Sea; so that a deep cutting of many miles would have to be executed, at an enormous cost, to complete the water connection between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. Hence the project cannot be seriously entertained, and the choice lies between the two other courses, the former of which, a canal parallel to the present one, is obviously the easier and cheaper. Here, however, comes in a new difficulty. The existing Suez Canal Company claims that it has an exclusive right, under the concessions made by the Khedive of Egypt, to the line of communication across the Isthmus of Suez; and it naturally refuses to permit any new company to step in and lower the value of its property by constructing a new, competing canal.

When the British Government, at the instance of those who complained that British commerce suffered by the inadequacy of the present canal and the high tolls charged, took the matter into consideration, their first step was to ascertain whether the claim of the existing company to a monopoly was well founded. Their law officers appear to have advised them that it was. They were therefore driven to the conclusion that the existing company were masters of the situation; that no rival canal could be made across the Isthmus; and that the only way to remove the grievances complained of was by amicable arrangements with the existing company. Negotiations were accordingly set on foot with M. de Lesseps, and the preliminary heads of agreement settled whose publication has excited such a clamor. The terms are already familiar to your readers, and the criticisms made upon them by our shipowners, merchants, and politicians no less so. It is alleged, firstly, that the arrangement is financially unfavorable to England, because she lends money to the company at 3¼ per cent. which could not have been raised in open market for less than 5 per cent., and, secondly, that the advantages gained in return for this boon are altogether inadequate, the reduction of tolls being too small and too long deferred, while the share in the control and administration of the Canal conceded to Englishmen is slight, and not such as to afford due protection to British interests,

whether commercial or political. (There are those who disapprove of the whole thing, and especially of the proposed loan of eight millions to the company for the execution of the new canal, on the ground that we are thereby committing ourselves more deeply, and indeed irretrievably, to future interference in Egypt which must lead to annexation; but this view is scarcely heard for the present among the complaints levelled against the particular terms of the agreement.)

These criticisms and complaints have not been primarily the result of any party feeling against Mr. Gladstone's Government. They proceed just as much from Liberals as from Conservatives, although no doubt Conservatives make them with more satisfaction, because they see in the affair a means of damaging the Ministry. When the Chancellor of the Exchequer read the heads of agreement out to the House of Commons on the 11th of July, the anniversary of the bombardment of the forts at Alexandria, the reception given them was ominously cold. Next morning the city of London, and the great commercial centres, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Newcastle, were all agog over the proposals; and since then the newspapers have been full of the reports of meetings of chambers of commerce and other mercantile bodies at which the matter has been warmly discussed, resolutions passed, and memorials to the Government adopted, all, so far as shown, condemning the preliminary agreement, and insisting that better terms must be obtained. The Opposition in Parliament are not slow to profit by this feeling, and Sir Stafford Northcote promptly gave notice that when the plan was submitted to Parliament he would move its rejection. It is not too much to say that one finds in general society no one who approves or relishes it; those who wish to support the Government merely pleading for delay till we know their case more fully, and alleging that the present ebullition of opinion is transient and unreasonable in not allowing for the difficulties which the Government had to confront.

The Government itself, as represented by Mr. Gladstone's answers in the House of Commons and Mr. Childers's speech to a deputation which approached him from the associated chambers of commerce, does not defend the agreement as good in itself (though Mr. Childers insists that it will sensibly diminish the canal dues, and so abate the chief grievance complained of), but argues that it is the best which could be obtained under the circumstances. The French company, they say, had an impregnable legal position. It could make its own terms. It altogether refused to transfer its domicile (*siége social*) to England, to admit English directors in preponderating numbers, to reduce the tolls at any earlier times or to any greater extent. There was therefore nothing for it but to get not all that was desired but as much as could be got, or else to allow all the existing mischiefs to continue. If English opinion prefers the latter course, well and good; the negotiations will be dropped, and those who like may try some scheme for making a canal along a line which will not interfere with the rights of the present company over the isthmus. And besides all this, it is hinted that the Government, finding our political relations with France somewhat strained, desired to avoid so far as possible any further grounds of jealousy, and therefore gave the company better terms than it might otherwise have obtained.

There is obvious force in the way the Government put their case, and it is not yet clear what will be the line of criticism upon it and reply to it which the opponents of the scheme—at present overwhelmingly numerous, but likely to differ much among themselves—will adopt. Several lines may be suggested. Some will probably deny that the French company's monopoly is good in law, and will argue either that the Khedive's concession did not actually, if properly interpreted, confer a permanent exclusive right, or that he had no power to confer any such right. Others may perhaps go so far as to say that, admitting his legal title, the interests of the civilized world ought to prevail over legality, and that the monopoly of the company must be disregarded. Others, again, declare that, even admitting and respecting the company's rights, the Government might, if it had realized and represented to the French the strength of British opinion on the matter, have extorted better terms; others, that if no better terms could be now had it would have been wiser to break off negotiations, and allow the company to be frightened by the prospect of a competing canal along some other line.

As the agreement is expressed to be made subject to the approval of Parliament, it will drop if Parliament declines to confirm it. Some weeks may perhaps elapse before a debate takes place, and before then there will probably be fluctuations in public opinion, some reaction from the present chorus of disapproval, some suggestions of possible modifications, and a full discussion of the legal question which underlies the whole matter. Moreover, our political relations with France may affect the question. The high-handed behavior of the French admiral at Tamatave, in Madagascar, as telegraphed here three days ago, produced a painful impression. Unless apologies are tendered, there will be much irritation against France, and a less amicable disposition toward the Suez Canal Company; while on the other hand it is possible that the existence of the canal difficulty may incline the French Government to disavow the offences of its admiral, and give explanations which will soothe English feeling. Y.

NOTES ON THE RELATION BETWEEN HOME RULE AND ENGLISH POLITICS.

LONDON, July 7, 1883.

1. No change can be made in the legal relations between England and Ireland without the free consent thereto of the electors of Great Britain. No one who understands the present state of the world, hopes or fears that Irish local or national independence can be extorted from Great Britain either by armed rebellion or by means of foreign intervention. The triumph of 1780, the rising of 1798 are alike out of date. The system on which Ireland is to be governed must be determined in the Parliament at Westminster, and this determination must depend on the will of the representatives of England and Scotland. On this matter a score more of Home-Rule or Nationalist victories such as Mr. Healy's election for Monaghan can have no direct effect whatever. Suppose that at the next election Mr. Parnell could come back to Parliament supported by the whole of the Irish representation. No one can deny the moral effect which such a demonstration of Irish wishes would have, and ought to have, upon the resolutions of the English people; but the fact would still remain that, even under this extreme supposition, Mr. Parnell's followers would number not a sixth of the House of Commons. On the more probable supposition that they may, after the end of this Parliament, amount to about seventy-five members, they would number not an eighth of the House. The Irish representatives of the demand for Home Rule must, in short, be, under all circumstances, a comparatively small Parliamentary minority. The question at issue must be fought out in Parliament, and by Parliamentary methods. This is known to Mr. Parnell as well as to any English politician; his claim to statesmanship rests on his skill in Parliamentary manœuvres, but by no device can a minority gain or usurp the power of a majority. If Mr. Parnell ever succeeds in attaining his objects, he must do so with the consent of the representatives of England and Scotland—that is, in the long run, with the consent of the majority of the English electorate. The Irish party may, of course, it will be suggested, ally itself with a large English minority, and thus obtain a temporary majority in the House of Commons. This is, of course, quite possible as regards isolated questions; but an observer must have studied modern English politics very ill who believes that English or Scotch M.P.'s have the virtues or the vices of men who resist the pressure of public opinion. If the majority of the English electors proved themselves opposed to the demands of Mr. Parnell, and therefore opposed to any alliance between the Home-Rulers and English politicians, one may feel well assured that in one way or another the will of the English people would soon make itself decisively felt in Parliament. No one (it may be said) disputes the fact that no constitutional change, whether bad or good, can be carried through Parliament which is opposed to the deliberate wish of the electors of England and Scotland. But what no one disputes many people forget, and I conceive that in England, with which I am well acquainted, and probably in Ireland, with which I am not well acquainted, many persons fail to realize all the importance for good and bad of the supremacy in Parliament of the British electors. The electoral successes of the Home-Rulers in Ireland are in many ways most important, but their direct effect in enabling Mr. Parnell to force his policy on English governments is liable to a good deal of exaggeration.

2. There is no patent reason why the people of Great Britain should not, if they see fit, be able to maintain the present connection between England and Ireland. I do not assert or deny the justice or the expediency of maintaining the terms of union unaltered. My whole point is, that there is nothing in the circumstances of the time to make it specially difficult for the people of England to resist Irish demands for Home Rule, for the repeal of the Union, or for national independence. Foreign complications do not threaten the country with danger; the population of Great Britain are more united than at any other period of history; there is scarcely such a thing as a large discontented class to be found among Englishmen. Fifty years of reform have produced their legitimate effect; they have created national harmony, which is another word for national force. The strength, moreover, of government has, in England as in other countries, greatly increased—one might say alarmingly increased—during the course of the last hundred, and still more during the course of the last thirty, years. Any one deceives himself who draws inferences as to the present day from the memories of 1780, of 1798, of 1828, or even of 1848. The delusion that a popular insurrection is irresistible is now known to be a delusion. The worst-trained army is stronger than the best-armed mob. Add to this, that systematic insurrection is admittedly out of the question. I do not for a moment believe that the conscience of England would tolerate measures such as those which suppressed or followed the rebellion of '98. But there is no reason to suppose that a modern Premier can be reduced to that dilemma between civil war and concession which compelled Wellington to carry Catholic emancipation; and the experience of the last six months shows that it is possible by a vigorous effort to enforce the rule of law by the

use of legal methods. It is also well worth remark that there exists one circumstance which may make the English electors feel a doubt whether, even with a view to conciliating Irish good-will, or rather to lessening Irish discontent, it is necessary to yield to the demand for Home Rule. The success of the Land-Leaguers has been as conspicuous as the failure of the Home-Rulers. No agitation for any form of independence has evoked anything like that unmistakable popular response which has answered every appeal made to the tenants of Ireland to get and retain a grip on the land. Ireland is clearly in the midst of an agrarian revolution. The thought may, at any rate, fairly occur to thousands of Englishmen, that agrarian troubles are to be met rather by social than by political changes. The French peasants ceased to be Jacobins when they became secure of their position as landowners. The conclusions which this fact may suggest to English democrats are obvious, though they may, I admit, be found inapplicable to Ireland.

3. A large, a compact, and a zealous party of Home-Rulers, counting (say) seventy-five or eighty votes in the House of Commons, could not of themselves carry through any policy opposed to the will of the English people. The existence, however, of such a party would undoubtedly for a time immensely embarrass the action of parliamentary government in England. The idea that English electors would consent to get rid of these embarrassments by abolishing representative government in Ireland is, as it seems to me, monstrous. I should call the idea a palpable absurdity were it not for the eminence of one, at least, of the persons by whom this mode of suppressing what is, grotesquely enough, called the conspiracy of the vote, is advocated. Still less can any calm observer of modern English life believe that English electors would tolerate the permanent, or perhaps even the transitory, establishment of martial law in one part of the United Kingdom. Humanity and a sense of justice would, one may hope, make it impossible for the English democracy to tolerate courses of action which would be repudiated by the very advisers who now recommend them, the moment when the actual results of such courses became visible to all observers. The men who attacked and attempted to prosecute Governor Eyre would assuredly not tolerate in Dublin acts which they found unbearable in Jamaica. But in this matter we need not trust to the uncertain force of humanity or of justice: the commonest feeling of self-preservation would be sufficient to make the democracy of England resist the open suspension of the constitutional rights of the Irish people. Ordinary sense tells us that you cannot in the long run maintain democratic institutions in England side by side with despotism, however benevolent, in Ireland. Make the attempt, and the thought would soon occur to men, say, like Mr. Bright and Mr. Chamberlain, that the national independence of Ireland would be a far less evil to the English democracy than would be the maintenance in a European country, by a democratic Parliament, of a system opposed to every principle of popular government. Nor, if the electors of England were determined at once to avoid all schemes for ruling Ireland by unconstitutional methods, and at the same time to prevent parliamentary government from being rendered ineffective in England, need there be any substantial difficulty in their obtaining their wish. The strength of a "third party" like that of the Home-Rulers depends upon the existence of something like an equality between the two great parties which divide the field of English politics. As long as this equality or anything like it exists, a compact minority, with objects foreign alike to English Liberals and to English Conservatives, may exert an influence disproportioned to its numbers by holding the balance between the two great Parliamentary groups. There is nothing whatever in the character or antecedents of many notorious politicians to make us suppose that they would refuse to purchase a party success at the price of sacrificing the interests of the country. An Opposition which exists to oppose cannot be nice in the means taken to carry out the objects of its existence. But if the electors of Great Britain should become convinced that the Home-Rulers are obtaining undue influence by playing off one English party against the other, they have the remedy in their own hands. To return to Parliament a crushing Liberal or a crushing Conservative majority would be to reduce the Irish minority to Parliamentary impotence, and a majority elected to insure the energetic working of Parliament would soon find means of effectively checking obstruction. Some thought of this kind was, I take it, in the mind of Mr. Bright when he denounced, whether wisely or not, the tacit alliance or coöperation of Conservatives with the "rebel party." A denunciation aimed not at the manœuvres of the Home-Rulers, which from their own point of view are hardly blameworthy, but at the unscrupulosity of their allies, was much more than a piece of invective: it was, in fact, a warning to the English people. The admonition will not pass unheeded. Nothing is more likely than that an increase in Mr. Parnell's following may produce the complete though alternating predominance in Parliament of the Conservative or Liberal party.

4. The strength of the Home Rule position, which I have not the least wish to underrate, does not wholly depend on a possible alliance with unscrupulous factions. Englishmen of the most undoubted public spirit and soundest judgment are, it must be confessed, quite at sea about Irish affairs. Nothing shows this more than the constant attempt made by English Liberals to substicute what is termed "local government," "county government," or "self-government" for Home Rule or Federalism, and to persuade themselves that the extension of the powers of local government in Ireland may turn out a concession which may meet Irish demands and yet be in conformity with the principles of ordinary English Radicalism. Yet this notion appears to rest upon more than one confusion of ideas. "Local government," in the sense in which the term is generally used in England, has no connection at all with such Federalism as was advocated by Mr. Butt. If an Austrian statesman had proposed before 1866 to meet the wishes of Hungary or of Italy half way, by increasing the powers of Hungarian or Italian municipalities, any English Liberal would have seen through the futility of the proposal. It is difficult to see why a similar scheme for meeting the views of Irish Federalists should not be held equally futile. But one may go further than this. An English statesman who increases the powers of Irish local bodies—say, county boards or corporations—may be right or may be wrong in his belief that parochialism (which does not always appear such an admirable thing in England) possesses in reality all the merits ascribed to it by De Tocqueville and others, under the pleasing, if delusive, name of self-government. But however this may be, he is certainly contravening the essential principle implied in every form of Home Rule, of letting Ireland decide all matters of primarily Irish concern for herself; for the Imperial Parliament, in extending the sphere of local government in Ireland, is deciding that a decentralized, rather than a centralized, form of administration meets the needs of the Irish people. But the question whether this be so or not is one which, in an Irish Parliament, whether provincial or national, could hardly be decided without long debate. To a disinterested student there is certainly much in the known facts about Ireland to suggest that, were the country self-governed, it would create a form of administration more like that of France than of England. Meanwhile, English Liberals who show speculative leanings toward extending local government in Ireland do not exhibit any desire to leave local Irish questions, when they come before the Imperial Parliament, to the decision of Irish members. In any scheme of the most limited Home Rule, the poor-law, education, the police would assuredly be left to the Irish legislature for determination. I doubt whether there are twenty English Radicals in Parliament who would allow any one of these matters to be settled by the votes of the representatives of Ireland. Nor are these Radicals without valid reasons for refusing even this amount of concession to the Home-Rule principle. The members of the Home-Rule party are, for the most part, men in whom English politicians find it impossible to place any trust whatever. The very statements of fact used in a recent debate to support a demand made by Irish members for an extension of out-door relief were, I have been told by a person who certainly knew what he was speaking about, not trustworthy, and in fact untrue. Many English Liberals, however, between a genuine desire to give due weight to the wishes of Irishmen with regard to the government of Ireland, and an equally genuine wish to rule Ireland on what they themselves believe to be sound economical and political principles, are, as I have said, totally at sea. There is no denying the fact that this condition of feeling gives, and rightly gives, a chance of Parliamentary success to the Home-Rulers which they would not otherwise possess. A minority who know their own minds, and aim steadily at their own objects, may, as history has shown again and again, defeat or outmanœuvre a disunited and confused majority, consisting of well-meaning persons who do not know exactly what it is they would be at.

5. The action of English politicians will, however, as already pointed out, ultimately depend on the will of the electors. If the English constituencies care as much, or even half as much, to maintain the present constitution of the United Kingdom as did the Northern States of America to maintain the Union, the Imperial Parliament will certainly resist every form of Home Rule as strenuously as Congress opposed Secession. But the question whether the mass of the English electors do or do not look upon the maintenance of the present connection between Great Britain and Ireland as of vital importance is a point on which no one is really in a position to give a decisive opinion. It is, however, hardly necessary to remind you that, unless we were grossly misinformed in England, many politicians throughout the United States fancied, up to the very day the cannon was fired at Fort Sumter, that the citizens of the Northern States were prepared to acquiesce in disunion.

These notes have been written since Mr. Healy's election for Monaghan. Their substance, however, has been long in my thoughts, and I do not know that that election, striking though it be as a demonstration of popular sentiment, has caused me to write a word which I should not have written the day before he was returned at the head of the poll. What may be the value of my observations, the readers of the *Nation* can judge more fairly than I can myself. They point, however, in my mind, to this conclusion. The electors of Great Britain can, if they are so

inclined, maintain the present union with Ireland in the face of any conceivable success on Mr. Parnell's part in enlisting Irish support. What is the inclination of the British electorate is to a great extent a matter of conjecture. Whoever can ascertain it will have solved one, at least, of the problems of English politics.

A. V. DICEY.

JOUBERT AND HIS FRIENDS.

PARIS, June 6, 1883.

THE philosopher Joubert has a limited notoriety. His works have not been read out of a small and distinguished circle. In the 'Monde où l'on s'ennuie,' Pailleron makes the young wife of the sub-prefect quote "le philosophe Joubert," and his pleasantries have perhaps done more for the glory of Joubert than Sainte-Beuve's articles. Joubert published some 'Pensées'; but I do not agree with the author of 'Les Correspondants de Joubert,' M. Paul de Raynal, when he says, in this recent work, that these 'Pensées' have as much title to glory as those of La Rochefoucauld, of La Bruyère, of Pascal. It is something to come first, to create a literary form; and even Vauvenargues is only placed on a second line behind these great writers.

The work of M. Paul de Raynal has this merit, that it shows us the society of Joubert, and his society was perhaps more interesting than he was himself. He was born in Périgord in 1754, and came to Paris in 1778, at the age of twenty-four years. He was a type of the period which preceded the French Revolution. He was fond of good society, sociable in the extreme; he was carried for a little while into the great philosophical current of the time; but, as he was an idealist at heart, he was not long under the influence of Diderot. Sainte-Beuve says of him: "Diderot has a singular pupil in Joubert, a Platonist and a Christian in the end, fond of the finest and holiest ideal, studying and adoring piety, chastity, and finding for the expression of noble subjects no form sufficiently ethereal." Joubert was married during the revolutionary period to a Mlle. de Bussy, at Villeneuve-sur-Yonne, and settled there, making the acquaintance of Mme. de Beaumont, who became his intimate friend.

Mme. de Beaumont is known as the great friend of Chateaubriand. She was the daughter of the Count de Montmorin, who was Ambassador to Madrid and afterward Minister of the Interior under Louis XVI. from the opening of the States-General to the end of the Constituant Assembly. Pauline de Montmorin had been married at the age of eighteen years to the Count de Beaumont, the nephew of the Archbishop of Paris, who was himself only seventeen years old. The marriage was not a happy one; she was abandoned by her husband, and retired to her father's house. In the month of August, 1792, M. de Montmorin was arrested and imprisoned at the Abbaye, and perished during the massacres of September. His wife, Mme. de Montmorin, retired with her two daughters—Mme. de Beaumont and Mme. de la Luzerne—and her son to a country house between Sens and Villeneuve, belonging to a M. de Sérilly. This gentleman was arrested, and some time afterward all the inmates of the house were arrested, with the exception of Mme. de Beaumont, who had probably been forgotten. The château was closed, and Mme. de Beaumont, having no asylum, received the hospitality of the Jouberts. M. de Sérilly and his brother, and M. de Montmorin's son, ascended the revolutionary scaffold on the 10th of May, 1794, with the sister of Louis XVI. and eighteen other victims; Mme. de la Luzerne died shortly afterward at the Hospital of the Archevêché, where she was imprisoned. Mme. de Sérilly was in the family way, and her execution having been postponed in consequence, she was saved by the reaction of the Ninth Thermidor. Her *acte de décès* was already made out, and she was able to show it at the trial of Fouquier-Tinville when she was called as a witness.

Mme. de Beaumont was left almost alone in the world. She returned to Paris in 1794. She wrote to Joubert: "I am afraid to see this city, tainted with the blood of all that was dearest to me." She was a good friend of Mme. de Staël, whom she had first seen when Necker was the colleague of M. de Montmorin, her father. Mme. de Beaumont and Joubert exchanged letters constantly; the philosopher had become her intellectual guide, her literary director; he made her read La Bruyère, Pascal, Tasso in the original, Malebranche, even Plato. Mme. de Beaumont had a serious mind, and was not afraid of a little philosophy. Joubert was a little intolerant; he liked nothing of Voltaire except his letters. "Voltaire," he says, "is like a monkey: he has charming movements and hideous features." In another place, when Mme. de Beaumont offers him a complete edition of Voltaire, he says: "May God preserve me from ever having a complete edition of Voltaire!" They were both great admirers of Mme. de Staël. Joubert writes of her: "Of all the women who have printed anything, I like only her and Mme. de Sévigné."

Mme. de Beaumont had always been very delicate; she became consumptive in October, 1797. After the revolutionary *coup d'état* of Fructidor she writes to Joubert: "Everybody is uncertain, and preparing to run away; we have now the terror of deportation, as we had before the terror of the guillotine. I am awaiting my destiny rather firmly, perhaps only because I believe myself invulnerable, as I escaped a fate which seemed inevitable. However, I have no illusions, I have prepared for all possible journeys, and the journey from which there is no return is the one which I should not make with the least pleasure." The letters of Mme. de Beaumont to Joubert are very charming. She struggles constantly against her natural melancholy: "We ought to laugh before we are happy, because we might otherwise die without having laughed." She read much; she delighted in Voltaire's correspondence: "I confess that one must have much leisure in order to find charm in it; but then it takes the place of society, and of a lively, animated, spirited society. Voltaire has long been a very good man; he is often still so in his old age. He, and Tasso, whom I read with difficulty in Italian, and yourself, prevent me from becoming heavy and pedantic."

The law of 1792 had established divorce, and in 1800 Mme. de Beaumont was divorced from her husband. She did not intend to marry again, but she had the strongest reasons for keeping her independence. Her salon in Paris became one of the centres of society. Her intimate friends were Joubert, Fontanes, Bonald, Pasquier, Molé, Chênedollé, Mme. de Krüdener, the Duchesses of Duras and of Lévis; but the God of the Temple became soon Chateaubriand. The "young savage," as Joubert called him, was almost unknown: he had not yet published his 'Genius of Christianity.' In 1801 he published 'Atala,' an episode of his great work, and from that day he became famous. Mme. de Beaumont had Chateaubriand for a little while at her country-place at Savigny, and it was there that he gave the last touches to the 'Genius of Christianity.' In 1803 Mme. de Beaumont fell more ill, and was sent to Mont Dore, a watering-place in Auvergne. The journey was then a rather difficult one: "I would not advise a tyrant to exile himself to this place." The waters did her no good, and she resolved to go to Italy. Chateaubriand took her from Milan to Rome; she was so weak that she could hardly walk a few steps each day. She took a drive, but soon she became so feeble that she was confined to her room. Chateaubriand was with her in her last moments; he always worshipped her memory. He had a little monument built for her at the Church of Saint Louis des Français, near the tombs of the La Trémouilles and the Mortemarts. Mme. de Beaumont is seen recumbent, and round her are the medallions of the parents whom she lost during the Terror, with the inscription, "Quia non sunt." Joubert was never consoled for the death of this young woman, who "lived only to suffer all the evils of life."

A common friendship is a great tie: Joubert and Chateaubriand felt as if they were brothers. Their relations lasted from 1800 to 1824, the year in which Joubert died. Joubert became very intimate also with Mme. de Chateaubriand. This lady was married at the age of seventeen, at Saint-Malo, to Chateaubriand, at the time when he came back from America. He describes her in this way in his 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe': "She was white, delicate, thin, and very pretty. She had, like a child, long curly hair, which was left hanging. I knew her from a distance, on the shore, by her pink pelisse, her white gown, and her blonde hair flying in the wind." Mlle. de Lavigne had a fortune of 500,000 francs. The religious marriage was celebrated in secret by a priest who was not *assermenté*, as all *assermentés* were looked upon as heretics by the Catholics. After four months of marriage Chateaubriand was obliged to leave his wife, and he joined the army of the Princes. He has told us the history of his years of emigration; in his absence his wife was imprisoned at Rennes. She remained there till the 9th Thermidor, and showed a courage and an energy remarkable in so frail a body. We do not know why Chateaubriand on his return lived apart from his wife from 1801 till 1804. She never seemed to resent this long separation: she was devoted to him, she admired his genius; she fully approved his course when he made his protest against the execution of the Duke d'Enghien and resigned his functions of Minister of the French Republic.

Mme. de Chateaubriand made the acquaintance of the Joubert family in 1804, and became very intimate with them. She valued extremely the delicate qualities of Joubert. She had a very high appreciation of all intellectual matters. "I doubt," says Chateaubriand, "if there was ever a finer intelligence than my wife's; she reads the thought and the coming word on the forehead and on the lips of the person to whom she talks." Many of her letters to Joubert are found in the 'Correspondants de Joubert.' The correspondence begins in 1806, when Chateaubriand left for Greece. His wife accompanied him to Venice, but he would not allow her to go further, on account of her health. She writes to Joubert: "He has feared the fatigue of the journey for me. Everybody says here that this journey is not dangerous; but

"'Ego quid sit ater
Hadriæ novi sinus et quid albus
Peccet Iapyx.'"

Mme. de Chateaubriand knew Horace; and I make this citation in order to show what education was given to a girl in Saint-Malo at the beginning of this century. She had an odd turn of mind: "I am smitten by the departure of M. de Chateaubriand and by the sirocco. This wind cuts arms and feet. When it blows, an Italian can say nothing but 'Sirocco, sirocco,' and you answer, 'Sirocco, sirocco.' With this word, in summer at Venice, you know quite as

much Italian as is needed." Bollanche, the good Bollanche, took Mme. de Chateaubriand back to France.

This little volume has, besides many letters of Mme. de Beaumont's and of Mme. de Chateaubriand's, letters from M. de Fontanes, M. Molé, Mlle. de Chastenay, from an Englishman, Mr. Frisell, who lived always in France and was half a Frenchman, and was completely adopted by the best French society. There is not much unity in such a volume; it shows, however, some interesting traits of a society which was coming out of the horrors of the Terror and reviving again; it shows also a sort of intellectual *renaissance* which preceded the great romantic movement of the Restoration. Strange to say, politics plays little part in all these letters; it seems as if all these minds were tired of it. The French Revolution and the wars of the Empire had exhausted curiosity. Literature had become a solace and a consolation. Joubert was an idealist, and made idealists of his friends.

Correspondence.

BURNING AT THE STAKE IN NEW ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of July 19 Mr. James H. Crosby asks the following questions:

"Was any one ever burned at the stake in New England by public authority? If so, who was it?"

Two notable cases of burning "at the stake" have been recorded by our historians. "The first to suffer such a death in New England was a negro woman who burnt two houses at Roxbury, in one of which a child was burnt to death. The negro woman was burnt to death on the 22d of September, 1681, in Boston." The lines here quoted are gathered from Increase Mather's diary. Cotton Mather ('Pillars of Salt—An History of some Criminals Executed in this Land,' p. 71) says "the Negro was *Burnt* to *Death* at the Stake, for *Burning* her Masters House, with some that were in it."

The second and last instance of execution by burning in New England is recorded by Professor Winthrop in the words following: "September 18, 1755. A terrible spectacle in Cambridge: two negroes belonging to Capt. Codman of Charlestown, executed for petit treason, for murdering their said master by poison. They were drawn upon a sled to the place of execution, and Mark, a fellow about 30, was hanged; and Phillis, an old creature, was burnt to death." Another account says that Phillis was "burned at a stake about ten yards distant from the gallows. . . . After the execution, the body of Mark was brought down to Charlestown Common, and hanged in chains on a gibbet erected there for that purpose." L.

THE UNITED STATES FROM A CHILEAN POINT OF VIEW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The prevalent idea of Chile in the United States seems to be that she is a semi-civilized but pugnacious little republic, spoiling for a fight with our great but peaceful country. The intemperate and bombastic tone of our own newspapers, after the collapse of Mr. Blaine's "spirited foreign policy," many of which declared that we had been "slapped in the face by a third-rate South American republic," gave rise to this very incorrect view of Chilean feeling toward us, which I believe still generally exists.

The estimation in which we are held by a small Power like Chile is, of course, a matter of considerable indifference to the large majority of Americans; and if they ever think of her at all, it is with a kind of half-amused irritation that the United States should have permitted such a bantam of a nation to face her down and crow over her; but the same indifference toward us does not obtain in Chile. It is frequently a matter of surprise to Americans here, to find how closely intelligent Chileans have followed our political course. Our prosperity is a frequent theme of discussion in their journals, and any recognition of their own good qualities by us causes them lively satisfaction. An instance of this occurred, a short time ago, in the reprinting of the *Nation's* review of Markham's history of the still existing war between Chile and Peru. This criticism was first copied into one of the leading dailies of Santiago, under the title of "Important Opinion of Chile," and was thence copied by several of the provincial papers, not so much for the value of the review as a review, but because of the complimentary comparison drawn by the writer between the peoples and governments of Peru and Chile.

Before the war with Peru and Bolivia, which at this present writing seems at last to be in a fair way of definitive settlement, the popular feeling toward the Americans was extremely cordial, and the good offices of our representatives, who aided in the last adjustment of the boundary question with the Argentine Republic, as late as 1881, were gratefully received, and were believed to have prevented an appeal to arms. In Valparaiso, it is true, unpleasant recollections of the red-shirted forty-niners, who used to stop in that city on their way to the "diggings" in California, still survived with some of the old residents, and they had believed so long that these rough adventurers were fair representatives of "North Americans," that they have never been able to quite bring themselves to like their fellow countrymen. But the opinions of this small section of Chilean society did not greatly affect the general good feeling toward us.

When Blaine's emissaries interfered in the South American war, and Hurlbut intimated to the Peruvians that the United States would not permit Chile to annex any part of Peru, a strong and very general feeling of indignation arose at what was considered an unjust and unwarranted interference with the rights of Chile. Many of the fire-eaters of the Chilean army and navy, flushed with their triumph over Peru and Bolivia, were amazed that Chile did not at once and effectually chastise the impudent "Yankees," for attempting to deprive her of the well-deserved reward of her hard-earned victories. Among the ignorant at home, as well, this surprise at their country's forbearance was widely shared. The intelligent and leading men in Chile, however, never entertained any serious idea that such a war would be possible, and, although they shared the irritation of the aforesaid fire-eaters, and looked upon the action of the United States as a piece of bullying, they knew that, if their withdrawal from Peru and Bolivia should be insisted upon, they would be compelled to submit to the inevitable, and retire from those countries. Such resentful feelings as these were by no means inexcusable, for Chile had suffered severely in blood and money, and an extension of territory northward, to give room for her increasing population, which cannot spread laterally, was felt to be a national need, therefore a national right, and only a just reward for her courage and energy.

A deep and general unfriendly sentiment, based upon such substantial grounds as the Chileans thought they had, does not of course die out at once, although the reason for it may no longer exist; and it cannot be said that the old feeling toward us has entirely returned. The not altogether unfounded opinion held by the best informed Chileans, that the false hopes held out by Hurlbut to the Peruvians have been a potent factor in prolonging their resistance to the terms of peace offered by Chile, still keeps alive the remembrance of Blaine's unwelcome interference; and the old lurking dread of American filibustering propensities, which was always exaggerated in South America, was reawakened by that gentleman's diplomatic methods. The feeling, however, never takes an active, or even unpleasantly passive form, and if we "Yankees," who are in Chile, can judge by the social recognition we enjoy (not altogether a bad test), we are rapidly regaining our position in their good books.

Notwithstanding the intimate commercial relations of Chile with France, England, and Germany, she is strongly attached to the Monroe Doctrine, and looks upon the United States as the foremost and strongest champion of the non-interference policy. This is creditable to the intelligence of the Chileans, who, if they judged from the only evidences of our power they see—I mean our antique little war-junks—would feel some contempt for our assumption of the leadership of American republics; but their interest in and study of our affairs prevent their coming to any such hasty conclusion. At the time of the blockade of the nitre ports in Bolivia by the Chilean fleet, in the early part of the war, considerable pressure was brought to bear upon Chile, unofficially, by the Europeans who had business interests in those ports, to induce the Government to raise the blockade, and there was some apprehension felt at that time that the French and English Governments would take overt measures to protect the interests of their citizens. This apprehension would have been very much greater if the opinion had not been almost universal that the United States would not permit forcible interference by any of the European Powers, and that she was prepared to make such interference a *casus belli*.

Even at the height of our unpopularity with Chile, the dislike of the "Yankees" was never so great as to check the slow but steady growth of American commerce. Although our imports into Chile are still insignificant, American manufactured goods, particularly machinery and agricultural tools, are steadily growing in favor here. The new railroad from Santiago to Valparaiso is to be equipped with American rolling stock, and the English stock, on the existing Government railroad, between the same two cities, is soon to be replaced by a new outfit of American locomotives and cars. American street-cars run in the streets of Santiago and Valparaiso, American sewing-machines and pianos are found in almost every house, and our productions generally are considered by the Chileans to combine the strength of the English with the lightness and beauty of the French.

Geo. Arthur.

Valparaiso, Chile, June 17, 1883.

SCIENCE AND SECTARIANISM IN OUR COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: All that has been said in the *Nation* editorially and by correspondents during the last few weeks upon some unfortunate aspects of our higher education is, in the main, true. As to prospective professors, there is hardly a denominational college in the country that will not inquire about a candidate's religious preferences before any other qualification. Within the period of a comparatively brief experience I have seen, perhaps, a score of letters to college

presidents asking for information in this order; often, it is true, adding a quasi apology for the circumstances that made such a query necessary. And yet, unfortunate as is this state of affairs, I question whether its effects are as mischievous as those resulting from the breeding-in system practised, with hardly an exception, by some of our oldest colleges. In the larger denominations there may generally be found men fairly competent in any department of instruction who possess the requisite religious qualifications; but this cannot be said of the graduates of a single college when the choice is further restricted for doctrinal reasons.

Mischievous as the effects of this policy are in the selection of professors, they are less so than the close watch that in many institutions is kept upon the orthodoxy of incumbents. A few years ago a professor of geology, a man of considerable eminence, in a prominent denominational college, fell under suspicion of heterodoxy in regard to the unity of the human race. He took considerable pains to explain that his views were in entire accordance with the Book of Genesis. The trustees, having in view, what is almost always the case, only the populousness of their institution, decided that his teaching was hurtful to its interests, and requested him to retract them. Refusing, he was expelled from his chair. Here the trustees assumed one of two things: either that they were more competent to decide a scientific question than a specialist, or that the truth or falsity of his views was of little import when weighed against what they regarded the prosperity of the college. This is an extreme case, but others nearly as bad might be cited, to say nothing of the many instances where professors are dropped for causes which the public can only conjecture. Not long ago the trustees of a Western college were reported to have passed a resolution to employ no teacher who should be obliged to prepare his lessons before recitation; on the ground, doubtless, that an incumbent could serve the college better in other ways than by sitting in his study. Ridiculous as this is, it is hardly more so than the common practice of electing a professor in one department to an entirely unrelated one, expecting him to "study up" during the few months to intervene before he enters upon his work

The most discouraging feature of the situation is that expediency candidates are about as likely to be chosen east of the Alleghanies as west of them. Even in that enlightened region the candidate who is an honor to his department stands next to no chance against him who is believed to be able to serve in a general way the interests of the institution to which he may be elected. It would be unjust, however, to charge trustees of denominational colleges with dishonesty or ignorance in laying so much stress upon the religious qualifications of college teachers. Most of them are men of high character, and some are men of much more than average intelligence. One does not need to be very familiar with the history of education in England to know that its affairs are generally managed with quite as narrow a spirit, and that there is less excuse for it. But neither English nor American colleges were founded in the interests of science. Their primary object was to instruct the young in the principles of morality and religion; and morality gets little credit with most church members unless practised within the pale of some orthodox sect. In the eyes of a good many worthy people, a moral non-churchgoer's chances for heaven are a good deal less than those of a bad man who may some time be brought within the fold. Nearly all the money that has hitherto been contributed for the endowment of colleges under ecclesiastical control was given for an avowedly religious purpose. It was given by church members for the good of the church to which they belonged, rarely by men who had any special interest in the advancement of science. It is being used strictly in accordance with the terms of the trust. This being the case, we have no right to blame the denominational colleges for their course in matters of religion; nor is it reasonable to expect any material deviation in the future.

In spite of the many discouragements, I do not regard the cause of science as a lost one in our higher institutions. While knowledge for its own sake may receive little encouragement in the majority of them, the State colleges and universities are trammelled by no conditions. Public opinion will, perhaps, never permit them to be irreligious or unreligious, but this will only affect their general management. The religious qualifications of the teachers will not be considered the chief criterion of fitness. The recent unprecedentedly large grants of money made by several of the State Legislatures are an encouraging sign of the growth of public opinion. I do not wish to draw conclusions more favorable to State universities than the premises will allow. I do not claim that they are now conducted wholly in the interests of knowledge; such is, perhaps, the case in rare instances. Often there are influences patent in their management quite as mischievous in their effects as over-zeal in matters of religion. But these are not traditional nor statutory. The public is rapidly learning that trustees are generally incompetent to select professors, and this duty virtually devolves upon the faculties. Their relative cheapness, taken together with the ease of supplementary study abroad, is putting them more and more on an equal footing with the older colleges, as the prestige of these grows weaker in the traditions and affections of the pioneer settlers. It is safe to predict a better time coming for the specialist in the professor's chair, though it may be too early to say that it is almost here.

While I incline to a hopeful view of the situation at home, I am compelled to believe that the German professor's path to promotion is not so plain and direct as it may appear to the casual observer. I have listened to not a few expressions of surprise at the inscrutable decrees that operate for the advancement of some men over the heads of the more deserving. It is only a few years since the flagrant abuses growing out of degrees conferred *in absentia* were rendered impossible in Prussia; and they are still possible in the rest of Germany. The friends of the lamented Grein were justly indignant that, notwithstanding his exceptional acquirements in Anglo-Saxon, he never got anything better than a subordinate professorship in a little university. The distinguished author of the 'Synonymik der Griechischen Sprache' reiterates the complaint, in the successive volumes of that work, that, in spite of his utmost effort, he has never been able to gain a position where his work would be in his chosen department, but that, on the contrary, he has been obliged to teach a great deal outside of it for the sake of making a living. Here we have obstacles precisely like those in the way of many an American professor. Where the appliances for securing the appointment of the right man are as good as they are in Germany, there is far less excuse for a mistake on the part of the appointing power than with us. That mistakes are, nevertheless, so frequently made, and injustice done to deserving scholars, only shows that the German governments, like the trustees of our denominational colleges, have rather often other ends to serve than the advancement of science.

PROFESSOR.

ATHENS, O., July 17, 1883.

THE GERMAN PROFESSOR AND HIS PAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The controversy carried on in your journal in regard to professorial salaries has not failed to attract considerable attention in Germany, and especially the comparisons instituted between the financial condition of American and that of German professors. As some wrong ideas seem to prevail in America on the subject of the remuneration of university professors in this country, I should like to call attention to the real state of affairs.

In the first place, it must be understood that a man who is elected to fill a chair at some German university is not expected to act merely as a teacher. His abilities as an instructor are, as a rule, regarded as a matter of minor importance, if they are at all taken into consideration on his appointment. But he is required to advance science; and, to enable him to fulfil the expectations entertained of him, the Government feels bound to make him financially independent. A grand laboratory or observatory or clinic is placed at his disposal, enormous sums are voted to defray the expenses of the most costly scientific experiments, and, in order to allow him to devote himself exclusively to the advancement of his science, a large salary insures him against the necessity of undertaking extraneous labor.

The salary of an "ordinary professor" amounts to 15,000, often 20,000 or 25,000 marks ($3,500 to $5,000) per annum. Besides his regular pay he receives the fees paid him by those who attend his lectures. At large universities, like those of Berlin, Breslau, Munich, and Vienna, these fees may reach extraordinary amounts. At Berlin, Reichert, the Professor of Anatomy, is paid 120 marks ($30) by each student for the lecture on anatomy and the concomitant dissecting exercises, during the winter term alone. There were over 400 students, and the sum thus received by one professor amounts to over 48,000 marks. A professor of law or philosophy generally gets 20 marks from each student for a course of lectures extending over one term, and delivered three or four hours a week. As a professor usually delivers more than one course of lectures a term, and as his lectures, especially at a very large university, may be attended by about 150 or 200 students, the emoluments which he enjoys besides his salary may be considered as affording him quite a respectable income. Added to this, the "ordinary" professor holds his position during good behavior. Should he choose to resign in his old age, he has claims to a good pension. Socially the professors rank as high as officers, which signifies the respect in which the devotees of science are held in this military country. Professor Esmarch, of Kiel, is allied by marriage to the Imperial family of Germany.

This care which the German people takes of its savants, in absolving them from the necessity of engaging in the "madding strife" for existence, is the main secret of the success of the German university system and German scientific triumphs. When the brain-power of the American nation shall be concentrated under such favorable conditions at a few grand seats of learning, and the drudgery of the pedagogue be exchanged for the fruitful labor of the independent scientist, then the youth of America will no longer be compelled to seek opportunities for intellectual development in Europe alone.

L. N.

STRASSBURG, July 8, 1883.

Notes.

THE two latest additions to D. Appleton & Co.'s "Parchment Library" are 'Shakspere,' volumes vi. and vii., embracing together "Henry V.," "Henry VI.," "Richard III.," and "Henry VIII." To say more of this charming edition is unnecessary.

The same firm have issued a cheap but even elegant edition of Mr. Bunce's 'Bachelor Bluff: His Opinions, Sentiments, and Disputations,' which originally appeared a couple of years ago. This, too, has a limp parchment cover.

Under the title of 'Old World Idylls, and Other Selected Verses,' Mr. Austin Dobson will publish in England, in October next, a selection from his 'Vignettes in Rhyme' (1873) and 'Proverbs in Porcelain' (1877). It will not differ materially from the American edition of 'Vignettes in Rhyme' (1880), introduced by Mr. Stedman. Within a year Mr. Dobson will also issue a new volume of verse, containing the poems written since 1880. He had engaged to edit Cowper's letters for the "Parchment Library," but he abandoned this when told that Mr. Benham had an edition nearly ready in the "Golden Treasury" series. Instead he has edited the 'Vicar of Wakefield' for the "Parchment Library," having been fortunate enough to find a mass of new material available in notes. Mr. Dobson is also engaged in preparing a volume of 'Selections from Steele,' by the request of the Delegates of the Clarendon Press, besides preparing for the "Golden Treasury" series a selection from Horace Walpole's letters.

A new edition of Ward's 'English Poets' is in preparation, carefully revised throughout and augmented by extracts from three poets who have died since the original issue of the work. Mr. Pater will introduce the selections from Rossetti, Mr. Edmund W. Gosse those from Arthur O'Shaughnessy, and Mr. Philip Bourke Marston those from James Thompson, the little-known author of "The City of Dreadful Night."

Mr. Gosse has prepared a volume of 'Seventeenth Century Studies' on the novel plan of selecting a typical figure for each decade. The ten worthies he has chosen to treat are, in chronological order: Lodge, Webster, Rowlands, Randolph, Herrick, Crashaw, Cowley, Mrs. Philips (the "Matchless Orinda"), Etheredge, and Otway. The chapters on Etheredge and Otway are especially rich in new material. The book will be published in this country by James R. Osgood & Co.

Miss Christina G. Rossetti, whose address is 30 Torrington Square, London, has in mind a memoir of Mrs. Radcliffe, provided there is any store of private information available in addition to what has already appeared in print concerning that novelist.

Thomas Whittaker announces 'Sermons on Future Punishment,' by Randolph H. McKim, D.D.; 'Notes on the late Revision of the New Testament,' by Daniel R. Goodwin, D.D.; and 'Pauline Charity,' by Joseph Cross, D.D., being a series of discourses on St. Paul's definition of charity.

John Wiley & Sons have published Ruskin's "carefully revised reprint of the second volume of 'Modern Painters,'" interesting both for the alterations made (which are scrupulously indicated), and especially for the autobiographical addendum, describing the conditions under which this volume was first composed. Mr. Ruskin's retrospective criticism of the product of his new birth in art and his conceit and presumption (as he acknowledges) is very readable and instructive. He concludes with satisfaction that "The public estimate of me, so far as it is wise at all, and not grounded merely on my manner of writing, is, I think, chiefly as an illustrator of natural beauty."

'A College Fetich' is the title of Charles Francis Adams, jr.'s Phi Beta Kappa address in its pamphlet form (Boston: Lee & Shepard).

In Mr. Charles F. Williams's 'The Tariff Laws of the United States' (Boston: Soule & Bugbee) the compiler has with infinite labor, but with much ingenuity and clearness, effected a comparison of the present tariff with its predecessor, adding notes incorporating the rulings of the Treasury Department and the decisions of courts in contested cases. An appendix gives the rates of tare; the act of January 9, 1883, concerning the importation of Canadian grain to be ground on this side of the border; the act of March 2, prohibiting the importation of adulterated teas; the text of the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty; and the statutes relating to drawback.

Dumanoir and Lafargue's 'Le Gentilhomme Pauvre,' a two-act comedy, is fourth in the "Théâtre Contemporain" published in this city by William R. Jenkins.

The ninth volume, 1880–82, of the Wisconsin Historical Collections possesses a chiefly local interest, and yet so much of its contents relates to Indian relics (like the famous animal-shaped mounds described by the Rev. S. D. Peet), Indian customs (as in Mrs. S. H. Baird's paper), and Indian experiences (as in Capt. Thomas G. Anderson's personal narrative), that the history of the aborigines of the Continent and of the settlement of the Northwest is largely involved. Among the longer obituary notices are those of the late Governor C. C. Washburn, who died while President of the Wisconsin History Society. His portrait accompanies the present volume. The library still prospers, and now numbers upward of 46,000 volumes, besides a larger number of pamphlets, documents, etc. The bound newspaper collection, carefully fostered, is probably unsurpassed in the country. It contains 65 volumes of the 17th century; 470 of the 18th; 3,237 of the 19th.

A pamphlet report on 'The Great Flood in the Ohio' last February, issued by the Cincinnati Relief Committee, will be valued hereafter as a record of a very memorable and (within the historic period) unprecedented inundation in the Ohio Valley. Full details of the Committee's operations, lists of donors and donations, and a summary history of former overflows, give a more than transient interest to this report. It is highly creditable to Cincinnati that more than $40,000 received from without was wholly and of set purpose expended in relieving distress beyond the city limits. As a manual of well-organized charity this report deserves to be read and preserved wherever a like emergency may arise.

B. Westermann & Co. send us the second issue of the 'Annuaire Diplomatique et Consulaire,' supplementary to the 'Almanach de Gotha.' The enterprise has met with the success which the publisher hoped for, and will probably henceforth enjoy a prosperity parallel with that of the indispensable 'Almanach.' The plates of national flags are repeated in the present edition, which in other respects has of course been altered in accordance with the changes in the diplomatic and consular *personnel*.

The July number of the *Studio* begins a second volume, and gives the first of a series of etchings which will hereafter form a regular feature of this interesting journal, in addition to reproductions from pen-drawings, etc. The publication office is at 128 Broadway.

The Chicago Railway Exposition is a proof of the enormous growth of the interest there represented. It is thought the time has now come also for an *American Journal of Railway Appliances*, of which the first number lies before us (New York, 67 William Street). It gives promise of being a very practical medium in a field which offers unlimited opportunities for inventive and constructive genius.

T. Fisher Unwin, 17 Holborn Viaduct, London, announces a limited *édition de luxe* (quarto) of Miss Helen Zimmern's 'The Epic of Kings' (Shah Nameh). It will be illustrated with etchings by Alma Tadema, and Mr. E. W. Gosse will furnish a prefatory poem.

Strange news we find in the London *Academy* (July 7), how that the Government of the United States has ordered a copy of Mr. Bosworth Smith's 'Life of Lord Lawrence' "placed not only in the library of every ship in the navy"—quite possible—"but also in every public library throughout the country"—quite impossible, were it merely so much as a single public library instead of every one.

Apropos of Mrs. Henry Pott's 'Promus of Formularies,' Dr. Eduard Engel has written a lively pamphlet, which he calls a contribution to the history of hallucinations, entitled 'Hat Francis Bacon die Dramen William Shakespeare's geschrieben?' (Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich). He expresses grave doubts as to the sanity of this lady, and shows how untrustworthy is her own account of her prodigious "careful" examination of a host of authors of the 16th and 17th centuries. Dr. Engel has begun issuing through the same publisher a 'Geschichte der Englischen Litteratur,' which will devote an appendix to American literature. Part one (out of an estimated eight or nine) has appeared, and in sixty-four octavo pages brings the subject down to Chaucer and his 'Canterbury Tales.'

'Rom und römisches Leben' is the title of a popular treatise on Roman private antiquities by Professor Hermann Bender, of the Gymnasium at Tübingen. It seems to meet a want not met by the dry systematic treatise of Marquardt, or Becker's 'Gallus,' which attempts to make the subject entertaining by putting it in the form of a story. It cannot compete with Friedländer's great work, as a complete and vivid presentation of ancient life at a particular epoch; on the other hand, it is not limited, as that is, to a particular epoch. It is in thirteen chapters, written in an interesting style, and contains nine full-page illustrations, besides a number of woodcuts in the text.

In tearing down a wall in the Schloss Pallaus near Brixen, in the Tyrol, a large number of theological pamphlets of the time of the Reformation were found. From the marginal notes it appears that the former possessor belonged to the Lutheran persuasion and hid them for fear of confiscation and punishment.

M. Joseph Demarteau has published a pamphlet on Théroigne de Méricourt (as the Parisians rendered her real Walloon name, Terwagne of Marcourt), "la belle Liégeoise," one of the beauties and one of the problematical characters of the Revolution. His work relates rather to her imprisonment in the Tyrol, where she was carried from Liége, when she fled thither to avoid the consequences of having taken part in the capture of the Bastille, than to the determination of her character, which in the accounts of her contemporaries vacillates between that of a prude and that of a light-o'-love.

—It is doubtful whether Colonel George Meade's pamphlet, 'Did General Meade desire to retreat at the battle of Gettysburg?' (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates) will promote the laudable purpose which inspired its preparation. General Meade's character and fame needed no defence against an author whose writings are perhaps more celebrated for what they lack than for what they contain. General Doubleday's narrowness of view and inaccuracy of statement are such as would seriously impair the worth of any author;

while his ill-temper and violent prejudices destroy altogether the value of his writings for historical purposes. An attack by General Doubleday on the superior who had removed him from command was, therefore, not greatly to be feared. But, guided by a natural feeling, Colonel Meade in his defence has overshot the mark. He has claimed for his father at Gettysburg more than is necessary to the vindication of the fair fame of a soldier whose modesty was as conspicuous as his merit, and whose courage and character are far beyond all question—more too, we think, than the evidence will fairly warrant. That General Meade had selected, not Gettysburg, but the line of Pipe Creek for his battlefield, is clear from his order of July 1. The unexpected attack of that day upon his two advanced corps, and the report of Hancock in favor of fighting at Gettysburg, led Meade to concentrate his army there on the night of the 1st. He then used every effort so to place his army on that field as to stem effectually the Confederate advance. That while doing this an officer who had been in command but a few days, and was now on a field unknown to him, where on the preceding afternoon two corps of his army had been badly defeated, should have directed the preparation of an order for retreat to the line of Pipe Creek, so that in case of necessity there might be no delay or confusion, is nothing incredible or derogatory. General Meade's denial in regard to this order is not so explicit as Colonel Meade seems to think. At any rate, Generals Gibbon and Williams as well as General Butterfield testify distinctly, under oath, to its existence. Nor is there anything derogatory to General Meade in his calling a council of war on the night of July 2, to determine whether or not the army should retreat. The calling of the council at all, the principal question proposed to it, as well as General Meade's testimony, in which he states his losses before the night of the 2d at 20,000 men, all show the doubt and anxiety which weighed upon him. Another day like the 1st and 2d meant defeat to the Federal army. General Meade was not willing to risk this without the distinct approval of his principal subordinates. He was cautious in his temperament, and at Gettysburg, as afterward at Hagerstown and at Mine Run, he relied much, at critical periods, upon the judgment of his corps commanders.

—Mr. W. S. Ward, formerly connected with the United States Mint at New York, and now Manager of the Morning and Evening Star Mines at Leadville, recently founded a fellowship in connection with the scientific department of Princeton College, the conditions of which were that the recipient should spend the summer in the scientific study of some important mine or mines. The first fruit of this most practical and useful endowment has just appeared as a handsome quarto pamphlet by Mr. Louis D. Ricketts, B.S., on the ores of Leadville, and their modes of occurrence, as illustrated in the Morning and Evening Star mines. Mr. Ricketts had already obtained a fellowship in chemistry, and the chemical ability thus demonstrated has stood him in good stead in the study of these ore deposits. He had, moreover, the advantage of a correct knowledge of the geological structure of the region, obtained from an abstract of a report on the geology of this district, published by Mr. S. F. Emmons, and the further advantage of working in Mr. Ward's own mines, where he naturally had exceptional facilities for study. All these advantages have combined to render his paper not merely an uncommonly able thesis, but a memoir containing a valuable contribution to the study of ore deposits, and one which may prove of practical advantage to the miners in the region in question. His detailed studies, made two years after the completion of the field work of the United States Geological Survey under Mr. Emmons, and when mining operations had reached much greater depths, furnish a most flattering confirmation of the conclusions arrived at by that expert. Mr. Ricketts's little pamphlet may be considered to mark a new era in the history of mining engineering in this country, and not only redounds to the credit of Mr. Ward, through whose liberality it has been published, but also proves the wisdom and far-sightedness of the policy instituted by Mr. King, first Director of the Geological Survey, in devoting the principal force of the new organization to the practical application of geology to mining, which had hitherto been almost entirely neglected by our Government surveys.

—Mr. J. Alfred Gotch has undertaken in the *Building News* to show what male attire should be; female garments he gives up as beyond reform. The figures that he presents look comfortable: a coat, buttoning high to protect the chest; knee breeches or knickerbockers and stockings; shoes or boots *ad libitum*, but in either case broad enough for the natural expanse of the foot; and any hat but the chimney-pot. For summer, a flannel shirt or jersey, a light soft coat with short sleeves showing the jersey below, a broad band rather than suspenders, the rest as before. Next, an indoor costume of white flannel, with loose coat, short trousers, black stockings, and belt and slippers. All these are more graceful and more comfortable than most of our present fashions, notably in dispensing with what campers contemptuously call "biled shirts," with their starched wristbands and collars, the latter the most uncomfortable part of male dress in hot weather. The evening dress would give more pause; the others looked practical, business-like; this looks theatrical, affected, "æsthetic." There is no waistcoat; for the starched shirt a soft white jersey is substituted, for trousers knee-breeches and silk stockings; a sash conceals the juncture of the trousers and the jersey, and gives a chance to enliven the costume with a bit of bright color. A full sleeve is comfortable and graceful, and stopping at the elbow it allows the curves of the forearm to show under the jersey. Mr. Gotch is too wise to expect any sudden adoption of his plan; but when one remembers how much male costume has changed for the better in the last fifteen years it does not seem too much to hope for the very moderate improvements which he suggests.

—The late Sir Edward Sabine, known in science chiefly by his pendulum-observations and researches in magnetism, was born in Dublin only five years short of a century ago, coming of an old family said to be of Italian origin, which settled early in Normandy. He had his early education at the Royal Military Colleges of Marlow and Woolwich, received his captaincy at the age of twenty-six, was elected a member of the Royal Society at thirty, and at about the same time was appointed astronomer of the expedition under command of Sir John Ross, which left England in search of the Northwest Passage. He received the Copley medal of the Royal Society when only thirty-three. While his published papers deal largely with the subject of terrestrial magnetism, many other branches of science are included, his earliest contributions relating to the birds of Greenland, the swinging of pendulums for determining the true figure of the earth, deep-sea temperatures, barometric measurement of heights, ocean currents, and the volcanoes of the Sandwich Islands. In 1835, in conjunction with Lloyd, Humphrey, and J. C. Ross, he contributed to the Reports of the British Association (of which he was General Secretary for twenty-one years) an account of the terrestrial magnetic force in Ireland, followed the next year by his own investigation in a similar manner for Scotland. In 1838, Sabine had so conclusively demonstrated the importance of magnetic observations being made in every part of the globe, that Captain James Ross was sent with the *Erebus* and *Terror* to make a magnetic survey of the Antarctic regions, Sabine accompanying the expedition. The establishment of magnetic and meteorological observatories at St. Helena, the Cape, and Van Diemen's Land was due entirely to his influence, and a general magnetic survey of the globe was begun by him, under the direction of the Admiralty. In 1846, he discussed the winter storms of the United States and the cause of the mild winters which sometimes occur in Great Britain; and later he gave an account of a magnetic survey of a considerable portion of the North American continent, and of the southern hemisphere between the meridians of 0° and 125° East, and parallels of latitude 20° and 70° South, followed in 1849 by a map of the magnetic declination for 1840 in the Atlantic Ocean, between the parallels of 60° North and 60° South latitude. This same year he was awarded the Royal Medal of the Royal Society. In 1853 he was the President of the British Association, at Belfast; and this year marks the beginning of his investigations relating to the moon's influence on terrestrial magnetism. In 1861, at the request of the General Committee of the British Association, he prepared a report on the repetition of the magnetic survey of England, and the year following he became the President of the Royal Society, which office he filled for ten years. In 1862, he entered into a discussion concerning the cosmical origin of terrestrial magnetism. His last contribution appeared in 1872, and consisted of a magnetic survey of the North Polar regions, to serve as a companion to his survey of the South Polar regions, which had already appeared. Sabine's scientific papers are nearly a hundred in number, beginning with the date of his election to the Royal Society, and ranging thus over a period of fifty-four years. A good part of them are to be found in the 'Philosophical Transactions.' In addition to his other well-earned honors, he had been made K.C.B. in 1869, and possessed the Prussian order *pour le mérite*, and was either an honorary or corresponding member of many foreign societies.

—The highly commendable tendency toward useful book-making which in these United States takes the form of compiling indexes, in France is rather more prone to satisfy itself with the equally laborious putting together of bibliographies. There is now scarcely one of the great writers of France who has not been honored with one, and many of the writers of secondary rank have received the same compliment. The latest is the 'Bibliographie des Œuvres de Beaumarchais,' prepared by M. Henri Cordier and published by Quantin (New York: J. W. Bouton). It contains a fine portrait, after Cochin, and the description of more than 500 books and editions of books by and against and about Beaumarchais. A careful examination of its pages shows that there is as yet no absolutely complete edition of all Beaumarchais's writings. M. Cordier has sought to include most foreign imitations and translations of Beaumarchais, and he has made due use of the invaluable catalogue of the British Museum, but he has not thought to utilize American sources of information. The 'American Catalogue' would have added a little to his list, and Poole's Index would have added much; especially Mr. John Bigelow's important paper on Beaumarchais's dealings with our Government. We note the omission of the English

adaptations of the "Barbier de Séville" and the "Mariage de Figaro," published by S. French & Son, of Brachvogel's harmless novel, and of the curious play in which "Monk" Lewis made use of "Tarare." It is a pity that M. Cordier did not attempt a list of the newspapers bearing the name of *Figaro*—we can recall at least four in New York in the past twenty years.

—In 1867 A. Jal published a 'Dictionnaire Critique de Biographie et d'Histoire, Errata et Supplément pour tous les dictionnaires historiques,' a thick work of over 1,300 pages, in which he pointed out a great many mistakes and, no doubt, incurred the enmity of scores of biographers and of descendants of noteworthy men. The next year Bordier published some 'Rectifications à l'Errata,' and Jal's conclusions have been controverted from time to time in various periodicals like *l'Intermédiaire* and *Polybiblion;* for besides other reasons it is always a pleasure to see the engineer hoist with (or even without) his own petard. Lately MM. Guiffrey and Campardon in the *Courrier de l'Art* have noted one slip whose discovery must have given great satisfaction to some of the discontented. M. Jal had made a long article on *cérographie*, a word which they say does not occur anywhere else. It is, however, to be found both in Littré, published four years before Jal, and in Poitevin, published eleven years before Jal, but in both instances without any quotation. M. Jal founds his article on a patent of Henri IV. to Philippe Danfrye père, the engraver, in which the King mentions his "belles inventions de cirgrafie." This last word Jal thinks must have been meant for *cérographie*. His two critics, however, point out that both here and in another text which they have found the word is *géographie*, the letter *g* of the period having some resemblance to a *c*, so that Jal's long dissertation on wax engraving and encaustic is waste learning. But if MM. Guiffrey and Campardon's assertion that the word is not found in any text is true, Jal can plead that at least he was not the first to insert it in French word books.

THE COMTE DE PARIS'S HISTORY OF THE CIVIL WAR.—I.

History of the Civil War in America. By the Comte de Paris. Published by special arrangement with the author. Vol. iii. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

It is more than eight years since the first volumes of the Comte de Paris's 'History of the Civil War' made their appearance. Nearly three years ago it was announced that the fifth and sixth volumes of the French edition were about to be published, and then it was stated that their publication was postponed, in consequence of the discovery of fresh material which would cause the author entirely to revise them. They have at last appeared, and simultaneously with them the English translation, which in one volume (number three) comprises the whole of the fifth and sixth volumes of the French edition. This long delay has not been without its fruits, for every page of the present volume bears evidence of the most careful study, the most painstaking examination of voluminous data, and the most impartial judgment. This volume more than sustains the reputation achieved by its predecessors, and the whole work is unrivalled among the military histories of the war for clearness of statement, fulness of detail, and soundness of criticism.

The events covered by this third volume are those of the year 1863 (omitting the operations around Chattanooga, which are reserved for a part of the next volume), *i. e.*, the great battles of Chancellorsville and Gettysburg in the East, and the campaigns of Grant and Banks on the Mississippi, together with a host of minor operations which really had little or no bearing on the final result, and have been almost forgotten. They are here narrated with conscientious fidelity, and serve the purpose, if no other, of recalling how far-reaching was the conflict and how vast its area. The description of the battle of Chancellorsville is divided into two parts, the first comprising all the events as far as the rout of the Eleventh Corps and the wounding of Jackson on the night of May 2; the second, the remainder of the battle and the return of Hooker's army across the river. To the first the author gives the name of Dowdall's Tavern, after the house at the intersection of the plank and turnpike roads where Jackson gained his greatest success and received his death-wound. This nomenclature is an innovation, for we believe the entire battle has hitherto been known by the name of Chancellorsville; but it is not inaccurate, though possibly the name of Wilderness Church, which is at a short distance only from the tavern, would have conveyed a more distinct meaning to the generality of readers. In describing this battle the Comte de Paris gives to Hooker the credit which is justly his due for the reforms and discipline which he had introduced into the army during the three months that he had commanded it, and for the general excellence of his plan of battle. His first mistake was in sending off his cavalry on a separate expedition at the very time it was most needed to assist the movements of the rest of his army, and his second and irretrievably fatal error was in withdrawing, on May 1, from the open ground near Salem Church back into the thickets of the Wilderness.

"Hooker, after making such excellent combinations and carrying out so successfully the first part of the plan of his campaign, seemed to have forgotten that the point the possession of which was to decide the fate of the enemy's army was not to be found in the forest of the Wilderness, but on the heights of Salem Church, which command Banks's Ford. Instead of hastening to take possession of this point with that zeal which had animated him when, as a simple division commander, he led his soldiers against the enemy, one would have supposed that he desired to allow the latter sufficient time to come to attack him among the entangled masses of the copsewood, whose thickness was so unfavorable to the largest army and the best provided with artillery. . . . The Federal generals were preparing to maintain the struggle when they suddenly received an order to fall back, each on the position he had quitted in the morning. Most of them would not believe at first that such an order had been issued. . . . Couch himself, a cold and reserved man, little disposed to assume any responsibility, implored his chief to recall such fatal instructions. It was all in vain; the General was determined. The soldiers shared the astonishment of their leaders when they saw that, after the first engagements of this offensive campaign, they were being brought back into the dismal forest of which they had believed themselves so happily rid; and the confidence which had animated them since the passage of the Rappahannock was considerably shaken. . . . The 1st of May, which might have produced decisive results in Hooker's favor, was lost through the order to retreat which he had so unfortunately issued. His most tried friends—and the author thinks he may count himself among the number—have never been able to understand the motives which prompted that fatal order."

No allusion whatever is made to the explanation, widely credited, which found the cause of this order in Hooker's intemperate habits, the author evidently deeming it beneath his dignity to descend to anything which might have the appearance of scandal.

On the following day Jackson made his ever-famous flank march, and crushed the Federal right wing; on the third day Hooker fought with three-fifths of his army cooped up in the narrow clearing around the Chancellor house, leaving two fifths of it idle. "The wound which he receives does not allow us to comment upon his conduct on this occasion as it deserves." Lee, with barely half his numbers, drove Hooker back, and was about to complete his total defeat when, during the afternoon, he found it necessary to execute a movement "more daring, perhaps, than that which the day previous had brought Jackson upon the flank of the enemy." Leaving a mere curtain of men in front of Hooker's large force paralyzed at Chancellorsville, he moved rapidly to attack Sedgwick, who was advancing from Fredericksburg. He checked Sedgwick's advance on that day, and on the next day, while Hooker remained perfectly idle, he forced Sedgwick across the river. Hooker then withdrew to the north bank of the river and slowly returned to Falmouth. No battle of the war was so brilliantly begun and so miserably ended for the Northern army. Of Jackson's flank march, it is stated that

"Jackson directed in person the minutest details of this decisive movement. When everything was ready, he was seen to enter his tent, the last he was to occupy, and kneel to offer a fervent prayer to the God of battles. . . . On the 10th of May he passed away like a soldier and a Christian, breathing the names of his brave lieutenants in his last humble prayers. He died in the zenith of his fame, after having seen his most brilliant operations secure a splendid victory to the Army of Northern Virginia, and, unfortunately for that army, the last victory it was destined to achieve in an open country. The battle of Chancellorsville is probably the most interesting to study of all those that were fought in Virginia, for the two adversaries depended upon complicated and boldly-conceived manœuvres for success. The Confederates prevailed over their enemies by reason of the greater mobility of their troops, the energy they displayed in the attack, the far-sightedness and decision of their leaders, and, finally, by reason of the errors of their adversaries."

After describing Chancellorsville, the author devotes a chapter to minor operations in the East, principally in the vicinity of Suffolk, and to the naval operations at Charleston and elsewhere on the coast. The destruction of the *Nashville* by Worden, the capture of the *Atlanta* by Rodgers, and the sinking of the *Hatteras* by Semmes, are all set forth in the most lucid manner. He then turns to the West, and describes the operations on the Mississippi ending with the fall of Vicksburg and Port Hudson. The account of these, although generally excellent, is hardly equal in merit to his description of Chancellorsville and Gettysburg. We believe that the Comte de Paris never visited the Western armies or the Western country, and hence he lacks that personal familiarity with the general traits of both which his service on McClellan's staff gave him in regard to Virginia and the Army of the Potomac. The various operations in the bayous in which the spring was passed, in tedious and fruitless efforts to get in rear of Vicksburg, are sketched somewhat rapidly, and then the final campaign of going below Vicksburg and operating in its rear is explained. "This was a bold plan, especially with an army possessing so few of the elements of mobility. All his generals represented to him the danger to be incurred, . . . but Grant's determination was not to be shaken." Porter, therefore, ran past the batteries with his fleet at night, and the transports, with more or less damage, soon followed. Grant's army was speedily ferried across the river, and at once attacked and overwhelmed, at Port Gibson, the detachment which Pemberton sent to oppose him.

"Thenceforth, Grant was firmly established on the left bank of the river. After four months of effort and labor he had at last turned the positions of Vicksburg; the real campaign was about to commence in earnest. . . . From this moment Grant's resolution was irrevocably formed. His plan was based upon a new conception peculiar to the American war. . . . His sagacious mind had perfectly understood that what was not feasible in Virginia, a coun-

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try impoverished by the culture of tobacco and with armies of a hundred thousand men moving slowly through it, might be undertaken in the State of Mississippi, a country rich in cattle, by an army of from thirty to forty thousand, which, being more easily put in motion, covered at the same time a wider area of ground. He, therefore, took Grand Gulf, not as a base of operations, but simply as a point of departure, and determined to throw himself into the enemy's country in order to place himself between Vicksburg, which he desired to reduce, and the rest of the Confederacy. In this way he would compel Pemberton either to come out of his fortifications to fight him in the open country, thus sacrificing all the advantages of his position, or to shut himself up in Vicksburg and allow himself to be invested."

The campaign on this plan was quickly put into operation, one blow following another in such rapid succession as to throw dismay and confusion among his adversaries. Johnston was overwhelmed at Raymond and Jackson (though the author gives Johnston great credit for his skill in withdrawing from the latter place), and Pemberton, refusing to obey Johnston's orders, was routed at Champion's Hill, "the most complete defeat the Confederates had sustained since the commencement of the war." While Johnston was left to recover his scattered forces near Jackson and vainly endeavor to unite with Pemberton, the troops of the latter were again defeated at the Big Black Bridge, and hastened back to the shelter of their fortifications at Vicksburg, a disorganized, demoralized mass of fugitives. Grant was close at their heels, and, having failed to carry the place by a *coup de main* on his arrival, he resolved at once upon a regular and determined assault. This assault is criticised by the author as being "bloody and fruitless," though his language is somewhat contradictory. In one place he says: "The ease with which they [the Federals] had carried the intrenchments at the Big Black River Bridge made it almost a duty on their part to try and carry these by assault, the success of which the discouragement of the enemy rendered possible, thereby sparing the army the labors and fatigues of a long siege." This perfectly accurate reasoning is, however, contradicted by an after-criticism which says:

"This bloody and fruitless conflict cost the Federals three thousand men, among whom was an unusual proportion of killed. The Confederates had only eight hundred disabled. The check which Grant had just experienced was complete and decisive. . . . This severe lesson taught Grant that it would require some other means to reduce the place. It did not, however, set him permanently against this system of simultaneous attacks against positions too strong to be carried by assault; for, as we shall see shortly, he tried the same thing again, although with another army, in the disastrous battle of Cold Harbor, which was an exact repetition of the assault on Vicksburg."

So far from Cold Harbor being an "exact repetition of the assault on Vicksburg," the conditions in the two cases were wholly dissimilar. At Vicksburg Grant was pursuing an army actually in flight, which had been completely demoralized by the most crushing defeats within the previous seven days, and which there was no reason to suppose would show the obstinate courage which it did show under cover of its works. His own army was flushed with victory, full of belief in its own invincibility, and anxious for the assault, concerning the advisability of which it entertained no doubts. No active commander has ever, under such circumstances, sat down to a siege without first trying what he could do in a vigorous assault. Had Grant done so, his army and the country would very properly have accused him of timidity. At Cold Harbor, on the other hand, the two armies had been engaged in the most deadly conflicts for more than a month, and, although Grant had constantly moved forward by manœuvring beyond Lee's flank, in not one of them had Lee been defeated. Grant's losses had been enormous, and his troops were already dispirited by the terrible slaughter which never led to actual victory. But for the facts that both were assaults and both unsuccessful, it is impossible to find any resemblance between Cold Harbor and Vicksburg, and to class them as "the same thing" is a fundamental error of judgment—the only one, we hasten to add, on so capital a question which, in our opinion, this book contains.

Having learned by actual trial—and there was no other way to learn it—that the works could not be stormed, a siege was naturally in order, and it was pursued to its termination in surrender on July 4. During its progress Johnston was receiving reinforcements and trying to form a relieving army, but Grant also brought troops from Memphis, with which he formed an offensive army under Sherman which reduced Johnston's efforts to nothing. In commenting upon this campaign, the author says that the responsibility for the disaster must be divided between President Davis and General Pemberton. He praises General Johnston as an "illustrious chieftain" who "had not the necessary forces to take the initiative, as was his wont," and whose advice, if followed, would have given a different turn to events; and, beyond the recital of the brilliant events themselves, he says but little in commendation of Grant and his able subordinates, Sherman, McPherson, Logan, Blair, and Ord. This omission is the more noticeable in view of the lavish eulogies interspersed throughout the rest of the book upon all the chief officers of the Army of the Potomac. As previously stated, this difference is doubtless due to the fact that the author did not have the same personal acquaintance and warm friendships with the officers of the Army of the Tennessee that he had with those of the Army of the Potomac. We also believe that a thorough examination of all the despatches which passed between Johnston and the Confederate Government, and of the returns of troops under the former's command, would modify the opinion that it was Johnston's "wont to take the initiative," or that his course in Mississippi was altogether wise or vigorous. Here, too, it is evident that Johnston's services in Virginia had brought him nearer to the author than the officers in far-off Mississippi.

LORD RONALD GOWER'S REMINISCENCES.

My Reminiscences. By Lord Ronald Gower, F.S.A. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1883. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 422, 384.

Lord Ronald Gower belongs to a family notable for wealth and ancient descent. His grandfather, the first Duke of Sutherland, after inheriting the vast estates of the great Duke of Bridgewater, who opened the first navigable canal in England, was one of the richest men in the world. His mother was the celebrated Duchess of Sutherland, for twenty years the close friend of Queen Victoria, and no less famed for her great beauty than for the countenance she showed to the anti-slavery movement and to all philanthropic undertakings, as well as to literature and art. She is described correctly in the first chapter of 'Lothair.' Of the thirty dukes in the British peerage, about half-a-dozen or so are more or less nearly his relations or connections. Besides those already named, the Dukes of Argyll, of Westminster, and of Leinster are his brothers-in-law, the Duke of Devonshire was his mother's uncle, the Duke of Norfolk (Disraeli's Lothair) is his cousin. Of lesser peers who are his kin the name is legion, and it will be enough to add that the Marquis of Lorne is his nephew. Nor are literary laurels lacking, for Lord Morpeth and Lord Ellesmere were his uncles.

Lord Ronald Gower is a cultivated man of literary and artistic temperament, who has dabbled in journalism and done considerable work as a sculptor. In several respects he is a departure from the traditional Englishman of the highest rank. He thinks poorly of the sport of riding to hounds, takes little interest in horse-racing, and the only game of cards he knows is "Beggar-my-Neighbor." Although only thirty-seven years old, he has come in contact with kings and queens, statesmen, poets, painters, and all manner of distinguished personages in all parts of the world. In spite of all this, however, his 800 pages of reminiscences possess but moderate interest—at least for American readers. There are some good descriptions of fine houses and picture galleries, and a few pretty anecdotes of noted people, all of which might well enough have furnished forth a readable book of one-third the size of this one.

What strikes the reader at first is the enormous wealth and splendor of the English aristocracy. Of course the general impression of this every one has received from a score of books, but it is here set down in detail. Thus, when we read in 'Lothair'—

"His Grace was accustomed to say that he had only one misfortune, and it was a great one: he had no home. His family had married so many heiresses, and he, consequently, possessed so many halls and castles, at all of which, periodically, he wished to reside, that there was no sacred spot identified with his life in which his heart, in the bustle and tumult of existence, could take refuge," etc.,

we are apt to dismiss the passage as one of Mr. Disraeli's rhetorical nosegays. But what the novelist says is literally true, and the Duke referred to is the father of Lord Ronald Gower. In fact, the first four chapters are devoted to a description of the various houses and castles of the Leveson-Gower family. Stafford House, in London, is the most splendid of them, and the Queen, on making one of her visits to it, said to her hostess: "I have come from my house to your palace." Rogers, the banker poet, said that, although he had seen all the palaces of Europe, he preferred Stafford House to any of them. Among its art treasures are two Murillos, of which Spain was plundered by Marshal Soult, who got nearly fifty thousand pounds for them and another Murillo, which is in the Louvre; also, two portraits by Vandyck, besides a host of paintings by the greatest masters, whose mere names fill a page of the book. Perhaps the most picturesque possession of this family is the Castle of Dunrobin, in Scotland, the oldest inhabited building in the British islands, and for eight hundred years the property of the Thanes of Sutherland, who claim descent from the royal houses of Bruce and Tudor. In an account of a drive from London to York the young Lord describes a great number of country houses filled with pictures and statuary, among others Althorpe Park, Lord Spencer's place, which contains the finest private library in the world, and a very splendid collection of paintings of nearly every school. Thirteen rooms are filled with books, to the number of 45,000 volumes; those in one little narrow room have been valued at £60,000. Here is the famous 'Decameron' which was bought at an auction sale for £2,600:

"What was of much greater interest to me at Althorpe than seeing the backs of those thousands of volumes in their locked-up cases were the glorious Sir Joshuas in which the place abounds. Nearly every room boasts one or more. All the family seem to have been painted by our greatest portrait painter when at his

best. Many of those portraits have been exhibited, and many engraved. Every one knows the full length of the beautiful Georgiana Spencer, Duchess of Devonshire, which hangs on the staircase of this, her old home. Almost equally beautiful is the full-length of this same Duchess by Gainsborough, facing that of Reynolds.

"Besides family portraits, Althorpe is rich in pictures by old masters. In the drawing-room is a full-length portrait, by Vandyck, of Rubens. In the same room is a charming half-length, by Rubens, of his daughter. Here is also a fine Murillo, the portrait of an Infanta. Also, a Holy Family by Raphael, and some good Dutch works. Even the bed-rooms are rich in pictures. In one hangs a good Sir Joshua, his own likeness; Watteau, by himself, and many other artists' portraits, male and female, by themselves. You think you must have seen all the pictures in the place when you find yourself in a long gallery, full from floor to ceiling, of portraits. This is the picture-gallery which Horace Walpole, when here, in 1760, called 'a gallery of all one's acquaintances by Vandyck and Lely.'"

It will be seen that the fine arts are a hobby of Lord Ronald. He comes by it honestly. His grandfather was the first president of the British Institution, and presented to the nation the finest Rubens in the National Gallery, after purchasing it from the Doria Palace at Genoa for £3,000. The literary tastes of our author come probably from his father's brother, Lord Ellesmere, who translated "Faust" and "Hernani," and published some original poems, and from his mother's brother, Lord Morpeth. The natural inclination was confirmed by the frequent visits of literary magnates at the various paternal mansions. Thus, in May, 1863, Tennyson paid a visit to the Duchess, reading in the evenings aloud his "Idylls of the King" and his then unpublished poem "Enoch Arden." Motley, Prescott, and Charles Sumner were among the American visitors; and in Ticknor's 'Life of Prescott' there is a description of Trentham, one of the Sutherland residences. In politics the family were on the Liberal side, but both Disraeli and Gladstone were frequent guests, and the oldest son of the latter married a niece of Lord Ronald. A great occasion was the reception at Stafford House of Garibaldi, in April, 1864, which was attended with great enthusiasm on the part of the Londoners. Garibaldi remained for ten days holding daily levées, which began at six in the morning.

Lord Ronald was sent to Eton and to Cambridge, but left the university without a degree in order to enter the House of Commons at the age of twenty-three. He sat for six years, but only made a single speech, when it was actually incumbent on him to do so, since it was proposed to abolish the borough for which he was member. He describes as follows the admission of his nephew:

"Lorne had been elected member for Argyleshire on March 3, and took his seat on the 5th. Charles Howard, his great-uncle, and I were his introducers on that solemn occasion. After the swearing-in had been gone through, the Speaker told him that, just before he (Lorne) entered the House, a member, who had been making a speech about tramways, had quoted a passage from Lorne's book relating to his travels in America, and that the opinion quoted from that book had turned the scale against the bill which was then under discussion. . . ."

Like everybody else, our author paid a visit to this country. He expresses much admiration for the American people in general and for the inevitable Sam Ward in particular. He speaks rather lightly, however, of one or two of our great men. Paying a visit in London, in 1868, to the American Minister, he says: "Adams is a short, bald, gentlemanlike man, with a pleasing manner, and with but little twang." Again, a few years later, he calls on M. Thiers, and says: "More visitors were announced, the American Minister among others, Mr. Washbourn [*sic*], and 'his lady,' a pert little Americaness, who rattled away to Mme. Thiers in English, or rather in America-English, and also to M. Thiers, in spite of Mme. T. telling her that he did not understand that language; but this only made her speak the more and the louder." On the other hand, no one could speak with more veneration of an old cottage in the village of Little Brington where lived the ancestors of George Washington, and of the Washington tombs in the church of Great Brington, a couple of miles from the smaller village: "We here see the origin of the American 'star-spangled banner' and of the stripes, for on the coat of arms appear three stars, with the bars or stripes beneath them. The sexton told me that Charles Sumner had had a copy made of the larger slab by the local mason, and that both he and Motley, the historian, had taken great interest in these arms and inscriptions."

Lord Ronald, having an abundance of time on his hands, hunted up everything that was worth seeing and everybody that was worth talking to. In 1870 he followed the Crown Prince's army with his friend, W. H. Russell, or, as he affectionately calls him, "Billy Russell." Then he went to Paris, where he spent the days immediately succeeding Sedan. At various times he has paid visits to Victor Hugo, Taine, Doré, Ruskin, Beaconsfield; and some of his anecdotes would be worth quoting if one had room for them. He has made a number of statues—one of Marie Antoinette, a Hamlet, a Lady Macbeth, "The Old Guard," and others. He has also written a book about Marie Antoinette. Altogether, he is not an entirely idle young man, even if he has not spent his days in "bulling" Western Union or "bearing" lard, and his nights in playing "draw-poker."

THEOLOGY AND EDUCATION.

"*On the Education of Ministers.*" *Princeton Review*, May, 1883.

"*The Rational and Spiritual Verification of Christian Doctrine.*" By Prof. Geo. Harris, D.D. *Christian Union*, June 14, 1883.

The Freedom of Faith. By Rev. T. T. Munger. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883. Pp. 397.

God and Creation. By R. R. Howison. Richmond, Va.: West, Johnston & Co. 1883. Pp. 578.

A Study of Spinoza. By Dr. J. Martineau. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882. Pp. 371.

Hegel. By Edward Caird. [Blackwood's Philosophical Classics.] 1883. Pp. 224.

Final Causes. By Paul Janet. Translated from the second edition by William Affleck. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1883. Pp. 520.

A Critique of Design-Arguments. By E. L. Hicks, Professor of Geology in Denison University. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1883. Pp. 417.

The Works of Orestes A. Brownson. Collected and arranged by Henry F. Brownson. Detroit: Thorndike Nourse. 2 vols.

THE administrative aspects of the vast and many-sided question of ministerial education could hardly have been presented in a more timely, judicious, and forcible way than in a recent article by President C. W. Eliot, which has attracted wide attention, and found a somewhat unexpected degree of favor with even the religious press. From the larger, more essential, though ulterior, questions of the proper training of head, heart, and character for an office likely to be, for a long time at least, the most important of all for moral culture in most American communities, he for the most part expressly refrained. These problems, about which so many educational interests are likely to centre, will take form and find solution very slowly, so vast and complex are they. One thing, however, may already be said concerning them—viz., that they are likely to be discussed and settled in a far more anthropologic, psychologic, or subjective way than ever before in the history of doctrines; with more reasonableness, more attention to the origin than to the object of faith, and to the needs of thinking men. Dogmas are not pale abstractions, but inductions from history and human experience; the time has passed for believing things because they are impossible; dogmas must be revered and explained as the precipitate of the religious consciousness of great men and times; the Bible is the book of life, and must be accepted and confirmed by subjective processes, and can be understood only by a knowledge of human nature, and not by critical exegesis of proof-texts or by long chains of argument; history, reason, philosophy, science, etc., must be exhausted to widen experience; and change and growth must be constant, or infidelity is inevitable—such are in substance the positions asserted with force and yet moderation, and received with general approval, in an inaugural discourse by the successor of Professor Park at Andover.

Another representative Congregational clergyman, in a prefatory essay on "The New Theology," which he designates as a Renaissance, goes somewhat further, and characterizes it as indisposed to commit "retrospective suicide"; as holding only to a Trinity not merely "formal, or psychologically impossible"; to atonement as "a comprehensible force in the actual redemption of the world from its evil," and not as a mystery of the distant heavens: to judgment as involved in the development of the moral man; and to justification by faith as "a simple, rational process realized in human experience." Mere reason and, before revelation in time and in logic, "thought and feeling must pass judgment upon the content of revelation," and the two must always be on friendly terms. To understand inspiration, we must get back into the spirit of the writers, and read the Scriptures sometimes as literature, not in a hard, artificial way, using its texts as charms, and patching them together to form doctrine. The old theology, Mr. Munger tells us, is represented by "men apart from the world, out of practical sympathy with it, having no place for it in their theory, thinking on different lines, and making small use of its wisdom or its material." This explains the long, subtle antagonism between modern thought and the clergy. The new theology, on the other hand, feels kindly toward evolution, "induces the ethical habit of thought, and seeks to recover spiritual processes from a magical to a moral conception." Beecher's new departure, the increasingly representative standpoint of the *Christian Union*, the Andover conflict, and many other things less prominent, all conspire to show that Mr. Joseph Cook's stalwartism and dead formalism are fast being left behind by the fresher, younger, more ethico-psychological minds in his own denomination, where he has come to be only the loudest among several leaders of a strong minority devoted to the old and the past.

This line does not run through the Congregational denomination alone, but through all leading denominations, not even excepting the Catholic, and probably through all minds, where it is fast growing wider and more distinct. Instead, however, of exhausting our space in illustrating this latent or patent opposition in other sects, it will be more to our purpose to speak of this ethico-psychological drift in two or three of its special disciplines, enjoined in the ministerial

education of all our Protestant sects. Take, *e. g.*, the being of God. Nothing could be dryer, more abstract and barren and artificial than the old stereotyped cosmological, ontological, teleological arguments. Now, however, professional teachers of science or philosophy—semi-Darwinists, Hegelians, and Kantians—are invited to divinity schools from without to *philosophize* the theological proofs by an appeal to reason and the understanding, as well as to give special courses in ethics and public charities and reformatory institutions, etc. In a scholarly and thoughtful volume, 'God and Creation,' the divine existence, character, and creation are derived in a very modified Cartesian way from the simple datum, "Some being exists now," with unusual appeals to common sense and to science, and in the express hope that religion, "which now fails to make the wide and deep impression she ought upon the masses of thinking men," may be invigorated. Even Spinoza's monism is interpreted in a monotheistic instead of an atheistic and acosmic sense, and he is laid under tribute with increasing frequency to aid the ontological and cosmological arguments for a divine being. This is notably the case in Martineau's 'Study,' the best compendium that has yet appeared of his life and works. Again, not many years have passed since Hegel's fundamental assertion, that his logic of categories represented God as he existed before creation, was said by a very eminent theologian to be not only pantheistic, but blasphemous. Now, Hegelism is subtly filtering into and transforming our entire religious consciousness through a dozen secondary or tertiary sources—Caird, Wallace, Pfleiderer, and even Mulford and the Concord lecturers and summer schools of several names—even where the name of Hegel is scarcely known, and his influence unsuspected, or perhaps denied. His entire significance for the English and American mind thus far culminates in the sphere of religion, and Mr. Caird's popular exposition of his system, decidedly the best yet made in our language, sums it all up in the mystic phrase, "We must die in order to live."

The doctrine of final cause affords another good illustration of the rapidity and completeness with which religious questions are passing from the theological to the ethico-psychological stage. This argument has been for many centuries the one chiefly relied upon for proving the existence of God. It has been developed into unnatural proportions by prizes for competitive essays, by endowed lectureships, by being forced into higher educational courses and adapted to the crudest ranges of intelligence, where it is regarded as the chief prophylactic against all forms of evolutionism. Young men have been called on to believe in an all-wise intelligence ruling the world because teeth did not grow in the ear, but in the mouth, where they were designed to crush the food; because the human hand was digited, and not hoof-like; because fishes had fins, and not wings; and because the world is governed by laws, so that some things are more probable, under given circumstances, than others. Professor Flint, and especially Janet, and more lately Professor Hicks, have presented the latest and far higher development of this argument in the ablest and most attractive way. The comprehensive historical treatment of the latter, and the broad and candid concessions of Janet, are particularly admirable. The whole teleological question of natural theology, however, is made to turn more than ever before upon the psychology of plan and design and the consciousness of the purposive elements; the genesis of the notion of ends—whether planning is not a *pis-aller* when things are alien from or too much for the planner; whether the finalist's habit of seeing purpose in function disqualifies him from the study of nature in the sense of either Bacon or Spinoza. After physical theology is resolved into psychology, and the general tendency to believe that the universe is not aimless is justified, the question is raised whether we can specify or define any general or special end. Janet is content to say merely that the final or absolute end of all things is morality, with no attempt to define it, and that every other end is a means to this.

If any further illustration of the breadth of the tendency we speak of were needed, we might refer to two suggestive volumes of essays which illustrate how short and easy is the road between Rome and reason for an active and, on the whole, consistent thinker who had attained insight enough to judge and compare religions by their ethico-psychic validity, but who lacked the independence of mind and heart which dispenses with all rites and creeds when it has once come to feel at home in all. It is evident throughout that Brownson cherished Catholicism after leaving his earlier sceptical standpoint, not in the crass, material way of a devotee, but because he came to see in its forms and dogmas a clearer, higher degree of self-knowledge in which all knowledge culminates, and felt that he possessed exceptional power of vitalizing its dead traditions and dogmas into active psychic forms of moral life.

The above publications are taken almost at random as straws which show, we think, a very broad current in contemporary religious thought toward judging things divine by things human; toward regarding man, again, as the standard and measure of all things, and truth not understood as no truth at all, but either the most pernicious error or else as abracadabra—out of all relations to our faculties. In the theological bearings of all this we have little interest, and know but little, but its educational significance can hardly be too highly rated. Nothing has been taught in a more anti-Pestalozzian, anti-pedagogic way than theology. Hence its unpopularity, though so much wisdom is stored up in its frozen forms that when they melt "there shall come a flood" which is sure to lift society to a higher moral level. Perhaps the time has come, the need surely has. Whatever creed we prefer, we have common interest in this, that all religious training, whether of children, theological students, or church-goers, ought, and seems likely henceforth, to begin with man and his faculties, acts, thoughts, etc.; and that everything later and more remote which is not brought into intelligible relations with facts of human nature and needs cannot be real because it cannot be rational, and is liable to illustrate how immoral truth itself may be if only brought into mechanical connection from without with minds not large or ripe enough to receive it.

Rousseau. By Henry Grey Graham. [Foreign Classics for English Readers.] Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1883.

In the series to which it belongs, this biography will rank among the best. It serves well the purpose of an introduction either to Rousseau's writings, for readers who have some knowledge of French, or to Mr. John Morley's essay, which will for a long time supersede every other and satisfy every cultivated need. Since the latter appeared, the researches concerning the greatest of Genevans have continued unceasingly, and Mr. Graham is able to add a few facts not accessible to his predecessor. They are not important, however, though they throw a little more light on the father of Jean Jacques. They correct the 'Confessions' in some particulars, but leave Rousseau's veracity where all the controversies of a century have left it, substantially unimpeached. It is easy to moralize harshly over his youthful disgraces, and Mr. Graham has not escaped the temptation to do so, omitting to remark, by way of mitigation—if any were needed, considering the kind of training the motherless boy had—that he might have concealed his worst traits from a world which was prompt to execrate him for them, when first learned from himself. But as our author goes on, his sympathy with his subject manifestly increases, in accordance with the experience of those who have studied Rousseau most intimately.

The narrative of the leading facts in his life is accompanied by brief analyses of the three works by which chiefly Rousseau acquired his fame, and exerted his greatest influence for good and for evil, namely, the 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' the 'Contrat Social,' and the 'Émile.' These are, indeed, his monument, and all his other productions must take a subordinate position; yet the former do not reveal the fulness of his genius or the principal source of delight for modern readers. His botanical enthusiasm, his musical achievements and criticisms, his familiar correspondence will attract long after the Savoyard Vicar's profession of faith—probably the last stone of the edifice to crumble—ceases to have a vital interest for men who insist on seeing things as they are. On these aspects of Rousseau's temperament we should have liked Mr. Graham to dwell with a little more appreciation, for they are more than incidental. Who can tell whether he would ever have emerged from obscurity but for his going to Paris with the bee of a reformed musical notation in his bonnet? And what idyls might we not have had from the pen that has recorded the episode of the periwinkle, had domestic intrigue and political and clerical persecution left the unfortunate writer to die in peace among the fields and woods of his native country?

In discussing the 'Social Contract' Mr. Graham justly remarks (p. 128):

"Writers up to Rousseau lived in a prescientific age of history; the past—except through classic literature, of which the myths were accepted as truths—was unknown: it was a blank space, in which every thinker either put his theories or found them. Where now we deliberately examine every historical tradition, and, by the aid of comparative sociology and ethnology, search into the conditions of primitive life and the origin of early institutions, they gravely cited Lycurgus and Minos as models, quoted Livy for their prehistoric facts, and Plato for their political theories; while they framed, as Grote says of mythology, 'a past which was never present.' They spoke of 'a state of nature' of which they knew nothing, and of a 'social contract' which never existed, as confidently as if this charter of humanity was as veritable a document on parchment as the Magna Charta of England."

The corollary of this is, that fictions which, having helped us to the principles of '76 and '89, with their attendant blessings, now furnish the staple of communism and socialism, with their attendant perils, can be effectually resisted only by the spread of the scientific spirit. Against the fictions of the theologian, with which they have much in common, they have held and are likely to hold their own; but there is absolutely no room on the same shelf for the 'Social Contract' and the 'Origin of Species' or the 'Descent of Man.'

Mr. Graham misleadingly translates the *Parlement* into the "Parliament" of Paris. He further not only misleads but misrepresents when, incidentally (p. 138), he says that "Washington, having freed his country, bequeathed his slaves to his wife," without mentioning their ultimate emancipation by the same instrument, and the legal difficulties in the way of their immediate freedom. Finally, on p. 137, he confounds Washington with Jefferson in crediting the

former with having abolished primogeniture in Virginia.

Modern Perspective: A Treatise upon the Principles and Practice of Plane and Cylindrical Perspective. By William R. Ware, Professor of Architecture in the School of Mines, Columbia College. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

ORDERLY development and economy of statement are conspicuous in Professor Ware's treatise on perspective. By these he has compassed, in a duodecimo volume of very moderate size, a treatise of unusual comprehensiveness and fulness of detail. Its sequence, in truth, is of a kind to be attained only when a writer can carry his whole subject in mental suspension till all crystallizes together in proper form. The point of view is primarily the geometer's, and the treatment analytical, proceeding from the general to the special—in marked contrast to most books on perspective. Thus the phenomena of planes in perspective are introduced from the beginning, instead of being reserved for late mention, and lines are determined by the intersection of planes, as are points by intersection of lines. The notation adopted is new—carefully and even elaborately planned, so as to be in itself a record of the relations of the planes, lines, and points used in the discussions to the principal data (the picture-plane, the horizon, centre, etc.). We are disposed to wonder how much Professor Ware allows for the difficulty, and, what is of more account, the probable repulsion, that the ordinary student will have to overcome in mastering a notation which, ameliorated as it is by symmetry and significance, is nevertheless complicated and formidable in aspect. It depends much, we should say, on the individual how far the instruction conveyed in the notation will be offset by the effort required to master it; but he who is made to do so thoroughly, or who is enterprising enough to do so for himself, will find that it gives great clearness to his conceptions and notably shortens his subsequent road. The expert, on the other hand, who will read this book with pleasure for the sake of its method, its clear generalizations, and neatness of statement, will be thankful for a notation that relieves him of many pages of detailed discussion. As a matter of definition, we should prefer a different use of the word *trace*, here given for the vanishing line, or, as Prof. Ware also calls it, the *horizon*, of any plane or system of parallel planes. This word is so accepted in descriptive geometry for the intersection of a plane with the plane of projection that it is a pity to introduce it with a different meaning into a treatise which is necessarily founded on that geometry.

The first two chapters, under the heads of perspective phenomena in nature and in the picture, group together many facts which are apt to be scattered through a whole treatise. Presented as they are here, they will give the learner who reads them intelligently a sense of the scope and methods of perspective which will carry him well into his subject, perhaps before he suspects it. There is throughout an eye to the artistic use of perspective, and many visual phenomena which are noted are new to the books, and very useful to the artist. The chapters on the perspective of circles and on perspective distortions contain many things which painters ought to know, but which they are very apt not to know, to their discredit and sometimes to their confusion. These, and the final chapter on the "Practical Problem," should go far to bridge over the unnecessary gulf that lies between the draughtsman and the painter in the region of perspective. The atlas of plates that makes part of the book is full of suggestions for the artist as well as for the draughtsman. It shows the same skill in generalizing and grouping, the same ingenuity and sense of practical application, as is shown in the text. An example is in plate xviii., where there is an amusing cleverness in the use of the principle of divergent shadows to place the lady-love just within range of her serenader's eyes. So it is interesting to note the appropriation of the three engravings of circular halls in the Vatican as illustrations of the three projections of horizontal circles into ellipses, parabolas, and hyperbolas. The clearness and directness of Professor Ware's discussions, and their orderly progress, may, indeed, tempt the expert to read without looking at the plates, simply supplying diagrams in his own mind. The reader would lose by doing this, for he would miss many clever points in them which the text does not suggest. We may notice here, for correction in another edition, that an error in the lettering of figure 97, plate xxi., makes difficulty for the reader.

The book includes chapters on "Curvilinear Perspective," on "The Perspective of Reflections and of Shadows," both parallel (by natural light) and divergent (by artificial light). It is difficult to say how much is absolutely novel in such a treatise; there are a great many points new to us, and a great many familiar things are presented in new aspects or relations. Perhaps its greatest novelty is in the presentation and grouping. This is conspicuous in chapters xvii. and xviii., where first all the principles and geometrical relations of perspective, and then all its chief problems, are summarized with remarkable skill in their most generalized form. This is done with a directness and simplicity of statement that will give pleasure to mathematicians, though it may be a stumbling-block to the ordinary student, who is free to pass them by if he will.

A peculiarity of Professor Ware's treatment is the consistency with which the perspective plan is used throughout. This, reinforced as here by Mr. Adhémar's method of avoiding remote vanishing points, though comparatively little used, is of great value to the thorough perspective draughtsman, and ought to be generally learned. It is here extended by ingenious devices to relieve the crowding of lines in the remote parts of the plan—by Mr. Adhémar, through successive inclinations of the plane of the plan; by Professor Ware, through successive lowerings of the plan.

Egypt, Palestine, and Phœnicia: A Visit to Sacred Lands. By Félix Bovet. Translated by W. H. Lyttelton, M.A., Rector of Hagley and Canon of Gloucester. With a Biographical Sketch of the Author, by Prof. F. Godet, D.D. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1883.

THE "Biographical Sketch of the Author" is so brief, covering less than two pages, that it hardly deserved to be mentioned on the title-page; but it satisfies our curiosity. M. Bovet was born in 1824 in the town of Neufchâtel. He belongs to a family "which, in successive generations, . . . received many blessings through its relations with the Moravian Church." In 1843 he went to Berlin to study law, but soon chose theology in preference. He obtained instruction in Hebrew from learned rabbis. "After completing his studies, he determined not to receive holy orders, but to dedicate his life to the profound study of Scripture and to labors, quietly carried on, in the cause of Christ." He was for some years librarian and professor of French literature in his native city—a position which he exchanged for a chair of Hebrew. He is the author of a 'Life of Zinzendorf' and a 'History of the Psalter.' The work before us was written in 1858, and is descriptive of a tour made in that year. In French it has passed through eight editions, and it has been translated into German, Swedish, Dutch, and Italian. M. Godet, the author's compatriot and life-long friend, characterizes it—and we must say, justly—as "a flower gathered in Palestine, and brought away in all its freshness and fragrance."

We do not know the original, but we are inclined to believe that the book has lost none of its "freshness and fragrance" in Mr. Lyttelton's translation, and, though no longer the description of a recent journey, will give its readers plenty of faithful and vivid pictures, besides a mass of information and reflections—far from novel, but to pious souls always fresh and edifying—on matters connected with Scriptural topics. The whole work breathes piety and reverence. Everything touched by an ancient Hebrew seems to have become sanctified in the eyes of our author. Egypt and Phœnicia, the lands of Amon-Ra and Baal, he couples with Palestine as "sacred lands" (as his title shows), because the one was trodden by Moses and Jesus, and the other by Elijah. But he has also an eye for the present, and his narratives, partly in the shape of letters, lack neither humor nor sympathy with the living, and they would be as amusing as they are instructive, were they not overladen beyond measure with references to Biblical accounts and with quotations from the Bible. Thus, we have scarcely entered with M. Bovet, for the first time, a Judæan "upper room, round which is a divan, where they brought us hard eggs, bread, and milk," when we hear him discourse on "these upper chambers so often spoken of in the Bible," on the rich Shunamite and her guest Elisha, on Dorcas prepared for burial, and on Jesus celebrating the Passover in privacy with the Twelve. M. Bovet's Biblical knowledge is ample, and on various points, such as the topography of Jerusalem, he presents learned disquisitions. He enlivens his accounts by felicitous remarks borrowed from classical and French writers, and is very fond of Hebrew—but his Hebrew, as *printed* in the English edition, is abominable.

To show one example out of scores of misprints in Hebrew, the word which is correctly given as *mo'ed* in the beginning of a note (p. 89) is changed in the latter part of it, by the use of wrong letters slightly resembling the correct ones, into *srçd!* This is too bad in a book on Biblical subjects, composed by a professor of Hebrew and translated by a canon! But defective revision is not the only evidence of carelessness on the part of the translator—for we have good reasons to believe that the American republication is from his own plates—though, on the other hand, he has taken excellent care of his diction and grammar. To begin with, he has generally left the spellings of proper names as he found them in the French original, writing "Mamelouk," "el-Bedaoui," "Selim," and even "Melchisedek." Worse than that, instead of Charles the Fifth, we read (p. 99) "Charles *Quint*." Exceptionally we find a mistake arising from the opposite proceeding: the French *Nijni*, for instance, which is a correct rendering of what in English is best expressed by *Nizhni*, is altered into "Nidjni" (p. 79). Then, though he occasionally thought of adding in a note some information fresher than that contained in the author's pages of twenty-five years ago, the translator overlooked new facts which certainly ought to be stated. We do not complain that, while telling us in a note that one of the two obelisks seen by M. Bovet in Alexandria "was erected on the Thames Embankment a few years since," he shows no knowledge of the fact that the other was subsequently brought to New

York—English theologians may be pardoned for not knowing worldly occurrences specially interesting to Americans; but a Canon of Gloucester, writing in 1882, ought to have known that M. Samuel Gobat was then no longer Bishop of the Anglo-Prussian Church in Jerusalem. As such he is spoken of at full length in the text (p. 220), without a note to inform us that he died in 1879.

Alcoholic Inebriety: From a Medical Standpoint. With Cases from Clinical Records. By Joseph Parrish, M.D. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. 1883. 185 pp.

THIS book advocates forcibly the theory that drunkenness or inebriety is "a disease that is curable in the same sense that other diseases are, its primary cause being a constitutional susceptibility to the alcoholic impression, which may be inherited or acquired." The author, Dr. Parrish, has devoted a considerable portion of a long and active life to the study of the subject and to the care of inebriates, and now seeks to enlist others, but especially physicians, in the search after the remote causes, physical or psychical, of inebriety. There can be little question that, should the victim of a desire for drink be regarded generally, not as a criminal, but as a man afflicted with a disease, oftentimes inherited, oftentimes the result of an accident or cause beyond his control, the measures taken for his relief would be more humane, rational, and effective. The "social and church ostracism" which necessarily follows this conviction of his criminality in yielding to a passion which he might and ought to control, to use the striking words of the inmates of an inebriate asylum quoted by Dr. Parrish, "in many instances deprives us of the very sympathies and forces that should combine for our relief and restoration." No one, we believe, can carefully read this book and hesitate to accept the author's conclusion that, "could the inebriate himself feel that his own consciousness of physical defect or injury was sustained by the intelligent sentiment of the society in which he moves, he would naturally and promptly seek counsel and relief, without the sense of shame and dishonor that sinks and drowns him and his comrades in hopelessness and death."

The most valuable part of Dr. Parrish's treatise to the unprofessional reader is that which treats of the premonitory symptoms of a desire for drink and the methods to relieve them. Were his hints and practical suggestions generally known and acted upon by inebriates and members of their families, there would be not only fewer victims of this appetency, but also more cures of those who have fallen under its dominion. We can only regret that a subject which is of such great importance should not have been presented in a more popular form so as to reach the persons most interested in its discussion. It only remains to add that, while this disease theory of drunkenness by no means puts aside the moral and religious arguments of temperance advocates as useless, yet it unhesitatingly condemns the sole reliance on these means. Upon this point Dr. Parrish is very outspoken: "I am satisfied that among the chief hindrances to recovery from a life of inebriation to a life of sobriety, is the false teaching of those who overlook the aspect of disease, and limit their labors and appeals to the domain of morals and ethics."

Walt Whitman. By Richard Maurice Bucke. Philadelphia: David McKay. 12mo, pp. 236.

THIS is an unadulterated eulogy by a man of very little culture or critical ability; and there is not much in it that was not better said by Mr. Burroughs a dozen or more years ago. Doctor Bucke has included, however, a long and amusingly vehement letter by Mr. W. D. O'Connor that enlivens his otherwise dull pages immensely. Doctor Bucke himself describes Whitman's moral nature as "perhaps the highest that has yet appeared." He tells us of his unbounded humanity, and of a mysterious and, indeed, miraculous magnetic power that works upon people he comes in contact with like champagne or falling in love. The impressionable Mr. O'Connor goes still further, and gets excited over the depravity of those who differ with him, squandering his adjectives with delightful profusion. One critic is a "filthy and malignant Philistine," a "missing link between the libidinous swell and the ferocious chimpanzee"; another is the "buzzard of the club-house kitchen"; and another is a "great liar and a dirty dog." Poe and Whitman, he contends, are the only great poets since Sha[illegible]

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Look[illegible]e poet's work carefully, one can see three pre[illegible]-marked stages in his career. The first thirty-[illegible] years were not promising. Idle and dissipated, his mental productions were very ordinary. Those which we have been able to identify were melodramatic stories, nearly all of them turning on ugly crime. Their moral purpose was good, but they showed no appreciation of nature or life, and there was an evident morbid attraction to physical horrors. Some of these have been reprinted in the 'Specimen Days,' but none of them are above the level of the low weekly story-papers; they are very undeveloped, and it is odd that a man of so much power should have been satisfied so long with such flat and unnatural work. The publication of the 'Leaves of Grass' marked a new era. The man had decided to be natural There was nothing very original in his philosophy or in the gross form which his fancy took, still less was there anything very distinctively American about it except its singular shape. Whitman represented a considerable and noisy element in our uncultivated public in mistaking uncontrolled feeling for soaring thought. There is no trace of sympathy in his pages with the real progress of modern thought. He does not care for logic. He feels no interest in modern science, or art, or religion. He notes only what he sees with his eyes and feels with his body.

> "When the psalm sings instead of the singer,
> When the script preaches instead of the preacher,
> When a university course convinces like a slumbering woman and child convince,
> When the minted gold in the vault smiles like the night-watchman's daughter,
> I intend to reach them my hand and make as much of them as I do of men and women like you."

Love was as remote as religion and science from his ken. There is no end of description of physical attraction, but of the idealizing, self-sacrificing, transfiguring devotion to one woman who becomes all the world to a man, there is not a trace. The other sex is simply a means of animal pleasure, without a hint of communion of soul.

With the war a change for the better came over the poet, who was evidently a man of slow development. Patriotism gave him an emotion outside of his own body. While he was a newspaper correspondent in Washington he spent his evenings, and sometimes part of his days, in the hospitals, and this gave him a broader, more sympathetic humanity. His imagination grew higher and stronger, and he painted instead of naming things. Unclean imagery came less readily to his mind when life supplied something better, and his verse acquired a larger and more resonant ring. If he had had sufficient taste to revise properly his more immature work, his reputation would have gained by it; but he saw nothing outside of himself to judge it by, and reprinted the strange, undigested mixture of bad French, bald prose, and fine poetry, profanity and reverence, filth and beauty, little altered. The 'Leaves of Grass' cannot be made moral by any process of expurgation. The immorality is more than verbal. Its author cries out against any "blurt" about virtue and vice. He wants to upset everything. Individualism is carried to the point of extremest selfishness, and no right or wrong is recognized but one's own bodily good, with no obligation to family country, or God.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Filon, A. Histoire de la Littérature anglaise. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Flagg, I. Pedantic Versicles. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 75 cents.
Freeman, A. C. The American Decisions. Vol. xiv. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Grace Darling: the Heroine of the Farne Isles. Thomas Whittaker.
Green, Prof. T. H. Prolegomena to Ethics. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Griffin, A. P. C. Discovery of the Mississippi. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Hale, E. E. Ten Times One is Ten: The Possible Reformation. In two parts. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Halkett, S., and Laing, Rev. J. Dictionary of the Anonymous and Pseudonymous Literature of Great Britain. 2 vols. Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. $10 50.
Hardey, Dr. C. A. A New Departure in the Theory and Practice of Medicine. P. O'Shea.
Hardy, T. The Romantic Adventures of a Milkmaid. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
Hugo, V. La Légende des Siècles. Vol. v. Paris: C. Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.
Keith, C. P. The Provincial Councillors of Pennsylvania, 1733–1776. Philadelphia, 1414 Spruce Street.
Kluge, F. Etymologisches Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache. Part 5. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Littell's Living Age. April-June, 1883. Boston: Littell & Co.
Merriam, Prof. A. C. The Greek and Latin Inscriptions on the Obelisk Crab in the Metropolitan Museum, New York. Harper & Bros.
Moore, C. L. Poems, Antique and Modern. Philadelphia: John F. Potter & Co.
Müller, M. India: What Can it Do for Us? Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.
Pellew, G. Jane Austen's Novels. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Physiological Cruelty; or, Fact and Fancy. An Inquiry into the Vivisection Theory. John Wiley & Son. $1 50.
Proctor, R. A. Nature Studies. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.
Rolfe, W. J. Shakespeare's Sonnets. Harper & Bros.
Schmidt, K. Jus Primæ Noctis. Freiburg im Breisgau: Herder.
Sherwood, Rev. J. M. The Lamb in the Midst of the Throne. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Sixty Years on the Harvest Field; or, Facts and Incidents from the Experience of a Layman. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Studies in Literature. [Topics of the Time.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Swinburne, A. C. A Century of Roundels, and Other Poems. R. Worthington. $1 75.
Taylor, I. The Alphabet: an Account of the Origin and Development of Letters. In 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. $10 50.
The Faithful Promiser. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 35 cts.
The Story of Ida. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 2, 1883.

The Week.

THE Foster-Hoadly correspondence in Ohio has culminated in the publication of a most remarkable letter. Governor Foster's original charge was that Judge Hoadly had admitted to a friend, who in turn told the Governor, that his (Hoadly's) nomination had cost him $50,000. The Judge denied the assertion, and called for the name of the informant. The latter person has now come before the public in a letter to the Governor, which is signed J. H. Woodward, and is one of the most interesting contributions to political literature that have seen the light for many a day. Mr. Woodward prefaces his confession—for that is what it amounts to—with an expression of deep regret that the Governor had betrayed him. He says he was going over the State to get the opinions of Democrats on his candidacy, and went to the Judge to talk the matter over. He was convinced that the Judge was "being robbed" and "would continue to be robbed," and what the Judge told him confirmed his view. While the Judge did not say that his nomination cost him $50,000, "he did say that it had cost him a great deal of money," leaving the impression on Mr. Woodward's mind that $50,000 was about the figure. Mr. Woodward went at once to Governor Foster and laid all this information before him. Why a Democrat should be thus eager to communicate secret information of so valuable a character to a Republican Governor who is so skilful a politician as Mr. Foster is, is not clear. Mr. Woodward says he did it "under the seal of confidence," and his grief at the alleged betrayal takes a form of expression at once so pathetic and so unique that we would not for a moment think of attempting to summarize it. He says: "I am sorry that you have in any way alluded to this matter, because I think the Judge did not want any publicity given to it. In fact, he said none of this talk was to be printed, and I know that he did not want the public to know that the thing had been so expensive. To make it public was painful to him, and had I thought that after two campaigns of your own you would have so little sympathy for a fellow-soldier, I would not have told you anything about it. I expected a better feeling from you toward my friend, but instead of giving him your sympathy you give the whole thing away to the public. This is not fair to the Judge or to me. If you cannot be trusted with an occasional Democratic secret, I will not tell you any more of them." The whole affair is likely to be so "painful" to Judge Hoadly as to give a powerful impetus to his already strong desire for a "new and living Democracy."

Senator Butler, of South Carolina, at a meeting of the State Grange and Agricultural Society last week, said that "the labor of the State was becoming more unsettled every year"; that never "had negro labor been more unreliable and worthless than now"; that "200,000 negro laborers could be safely spared"; that he wanted them "to go to Kansas, Indiana, or anywhere else," and was ready "to supply their places with Mormon laborers." These assertions are rather surprising, in view of the frequent reports of the rapid advance of the South in industrial prosperity. At the time of the Kansas migration several years ago it was charged at the South that the movement had a political origin, and was not due to any lack of a comfortable living for the negroes at home. It is curious at this late date to hear a leading Southerner recommend a like migration as a desperate and necessary remedy for labor troubles. That Senator Butler does not represent the opinion even of his own State in this matter appears from the fact that at the Grange meeting "his views were warmly opposed, some of the speakers showing that his conclusions were erroneous, the production of cotton having increased 150 per cent. in the State under the present system of labor, and other crops in proportion." The difficulty at the South seems to be political rather than industrial, when a representative statesman confesses in this wild way his inability to cope with the problems of his time. Before getting rid of her black laborers the South should be prepared with substitutes for them, and there are still some traces of social barbarism to be removed before 200,000 Mormons even could be induced to immigrate.

Mrs. M. M. Haughn has published a card in the Galveston *News* with regard to the murder of her husband, in which she positively denies ever having made the statement that she suspected the murderer to have been a negro "who sought to avenge a wrong done a daughter or sister." She states that no such cause existed, that her husband was a stanch friend of the blacks, and, finally, that she suspects no one at all. The card is dignified and temperate in tone; but we suppose it will not prevent ingenious speculations as to whom Mrs. Haughn would say she suspected if she did not say she suspected nobody. The methods of reasoning hitherto adopted in the case would lead to the conclusion that Mrs. Haughn would attribute the murder to the Kuklux, but for the fact that she is herself in such fear of them that she is forced to deny that she suspects them: the denial, therefore, is a strong proof of the existence of the Kuklux in Marion County.

The alleged abuses in the Norfolk Navy-yard are yet to be investigated. Mr. Dezendorf, who preferred the charges, says that Commodore Mayo, one of the persons implicated by them, was directed to convene a board of officers to investigate the matter; that this board was composed of junior officers, whose report would have to be submitted to Mayo and passed upon by him; that the complainant objected to this proceeding, which would really be the case of "Mayo investigating Mayo and sitting in judgment on Mayo"; that the complainant went before the Board, and gave in writing his reasons for not making any statement, and at the same time demanded a court of inquiry composed of officers of equal rank with Mayo. Of course lay opinion on a question involving the mysteries of naval methods would not be of great value; but any layman in the United States might venture to say to Secretary Chandler that his reputation as a reformer would be seriously affected by allowing a charge of misconduct against one of his officers to be examined and decided by the officer himself, unless the rules of the navy distinctly prescribe such a course.

The New Hampshire Senatorial contest is apparently as far from an end as ever. Ex-Congressman Pike is as bad a failure as a "dark horse" as his numerous predecessors were, and for the same reason—a suspicion that he is in alliance with the "bosses." It is a remarkable tribute to Secretary Chandler's influence among his party in his own State that a mere suspicion that he is in favor of a candidate is fatal to that candidate's chances for election. All authorities agree that if a "dark horse" could be discovered who could be shown to be in no way controlled by the "bosses," he could be elected instantly. In view of this situation, some of our contemporaries are calling upon Mr. Chandler to go back to Washington and demonstrate his devotion to the welfare of the Republican party by ceasing to be an obstacle to the choice of a creditable Senator. Appeals of this kind are based upon an erroneous conception of Mr. Chandler's character. In his mind the Republican party can have no true welfare which is not at the same time the welfare of Mr. Chandler. He appears to be thoroughly understood in New Hampshire, and this fact is the one pleasant feature of the tedious contest.

Polk, the defaulting Tennessee Treasurer, was on Thursday, greatly to his own surprise and the general satisfaction of the Tennesseans, convicted of embezzlement, the jury fixing the penalty at twenty years' imprisonment and the fine at the whole amount taken by him. The trial has been very short, and the jury, reported to be a very ignorant body of men, were practically instructed to convict. The result will do something for the reputation of jury trial, but not much. No one has ever doubted that convictions may be got out of an ignorant jury by a charge of this sort, and the danger is that the prisoner's counsel, who have moved for a new trial, may yet be able to find flaws in it, particularly as it is said to be the longest charge ever made by a judge. We sincerely hope that Polk may have to serve out his term; but he probably thinks that the sentence is a very severe one, considering that, after all, he only embezzled some public money which did not belong to him, but to the State's creditors.

Can a State, he would no doubt say, which habitually robs its creditors, fairly provide such heavy penalties for a similar offence against itself?

There are some things about the political situation in Virginia which are encouraging and others which are discouraging. Both the Mahone and the Democratic leaders admit that the balance of power is held by the negroes, and both are therefore cultivating the colored vote. This will not only insure a fair election and a fair count, but it will begin the work of eliminating the color line from the politics of the State. Nothing could be more desirable than this. The most discouraging aspect of the situation is the abandonment by all parties of even a pretence of further opposition to repudiation. The utter demoralization of public sentiment in Virginia on this question is due mainly to Senator Mahone, and Senator Mahone's power for evil would have been very much less had he not been sustained by the patronage of a Republican national administration, and encouraged by the open sympathy of short-sighted leaders of the Republican party.

The suicide of Mr. Barca, which at first was ascribed to the pressure of financial embarrassments caused by high living in Washington, has moved some of our contemporaries to moralize quite impressively on the extravagance of Washington society. In their opinion the social habits of the capital are of the most lavish and wasteful kind, so that people of moderate income cannot hold any social position without ruining themselves or stealing. This is a great mistake. In fact, the social tone of Washington is very simple, unpretending, and unexacting compared with that of New York. There is infinitely less "style" and display there than here. Although a large income will, of course, give certain advantages, there is probably no large city in the United States in which money, for its own sake, counts for as little as it does in Washington. In the circles which are called "the best," a good many gentlemen and ladies are moving who are known to be comparatively poor, and who are unembarrassed in their social relations by the scantiness of their means. The steady influx of wealthy people from all parts of the country who spend their winters in Washington, may be calculated to change this gradually, but the change is at any rate slow. As things are at present, an income which would scarcely be called "respectable" in New York will go a great way in Washington, and it is a well-known fact that many foreign diplomats prefer this post, for a time at least, for the very reason that it enables them to live modestly and to save money.

The Western newspapers have discovered a new field for professional enterprise which goes far beyond anything hitherto dreamed of. An heiress directory has been published by one St. Louis journalist, giving the names, ages, and incomes of the girls of the place, together with such descriptions of their appearance as would be likely to interest gentlemen on the lookout for wives. To "beat" this, a rival is getting up a beauty match. A coupon ticket is printed in his paper, which every reader is requested to cut out and fill up with the name of the handsomest woman in St. Louis, and return to the office. The editor will in due time announce the result. Colleges which are considering the advisability of founding professorships of journalism will see from such cases as these that the practical newspaper art is something which can never be taught by a professor. The knack of knowing what will "take" and sell in a particular community is a pure literary gift, and a man in whom it is not born can never get it by study, no matter how deeply he goes into the theory of journalism.

A tourist writes to the *Times*, complaining of the great discomforts of travelling in the Yosemite, which he insists are not at all necessary. The first morning after leaving San Francisco the traveller has to go to a hotel which is rather worse than a "second-class Bowery tavern"; he has for breakfast "leathery steak," "sogged potatoes," bad bread, and "vile coffee." At the next stopping-place, Coarse Gold Gulch, he has to pay $2 or $3 for "French claret," which it is needless to say is neither French nor claret. At the best hotel in the Yosemite, the windows have no blinds, and it costs twenty-five cents to have your boots blacked. The local excuse given for these deficiencies is one very commonly heard in resorts throughout the United States: "Well, a man must not expect all his comforts when he comes here." "G. H.," however, insists that this spirit is a dangerous one for those who provide resorts for the public, for there are places in Europe where the comfort of the tourist is really studied, and these compete with resorts such as ours—where complaints of any kind are sternly frowned down—and draw off from them a large amount of travel which they would otherwise get. "G. H." is evidently a European who certainly does not understand how Americans enjoy discomfort; and the warm-hearted way in which he speaks of the Alps, and the contempt he expresses for the Yosemite, will be easily understood by the California hotel-men. It is painful, however, to see such a letter published in a leading American newspaper without at least some protest from the editor.

There has been during the week a marked decrease in many kinds of business, traceable directly to the telegraphers' strike. This is especially true of the speculative operations in grain, provisions, stocks, etc., which cannot be conducted without the assurance of prompt and trustworthy telegraphic service. Other causes also, chief among which have been the failures in the shoe and leather trade, have induced a further conservative feeling on the part of capital, which is superabundant for loans on collateral security, but very reluctant to take hold for actual investment. The money market as thus affected is in a very remarkable, almost unprecedented, condition. Money is freely offered on the Stock Exchange at 1½ per cent. per annum for call loans on collaterals of railway stocks, and only a small part of what is offered is taken, even at these extraordinary rates. The new railroad projects, involving not less than three or four thousand miles in various degrees of progress in all parts of the United States, are being carried through with capital previously provided. The crop prospects are everywhere steadily improving beyond the expectations of the most sanguine a few weeks ago. Food of every kind will undoubtedly be very cheap during the next year, and, with the lower cost of living, labor, like capital, will be cheaper. One effect likely to result soon from this condition of things, however, is an advance in the prices of all first-class dividend and interest-paying securities.

According to a despatch from Berlin, Professor Putlitz, who committed suicide on Wednesday, killed himself because he had "drawn a death-lot in a so-called American duel." This seems to indicate a misunderstanding in Berlin, not only of the American duel, but of the American character. Of course, we have nothing to say against the settlement of quarrels by the suicide of the person who draws the longer or shorter of two pieces of paper. The method is in itself no more unreasonable than their settlement by a fight with knives, pistols, or shot-guns, and on some accounts a death-lot duel would be an improvement on any species now known. It insures the death of one principal, and thus has a far surer probative force than any of the ordinary kinds of single combat now in use, in which neither of the combatants may be hurt, or both be so injured as to make it impossible to say what the result does prove. The pitchfork duel lately fought at High Grove, Ky., forcibly illustrates this. The principals were two farm laborers, and the origin of their quarrel is not given. Whatever the precise issue between them may have been, however, they determined to settle it with pitchforks; Wilkes maintaining his side with a long-handled two-pronged fork, and McDougal his with a short-handled four-pronged weapon. The result is that both duellists are wounded, probably mortally, and with what effect upon the merits of the controversy no one can tell. The death-lot duel, on the other hand, disposes of the controversy altogether. Again, as everybody knows, the settlement of disputed questions by lot is a primitive form of trial, which was once very popular with all branches of our great and wise race, and its revival now among our Teutonic relatives is, apart from all other considerations, an interesting episode in the history of the institution.

But for all this, the Germans should not be misled by the late Professor Putlitz's example into supposing that the death-lot is a common form of duel in America. Almost every species of duel except this has flourished here, and Europeans who want novelties in duels can easily find them "in our midst." The duel with knives in a darkened room is said to have been much liked, and to have produced good results in Texas. The duel in which the combatants are tied to each other, or to a table, with the knife-arm free, has been

found wonderfully effective wherever it has been resorted to; everybody knows of the rifle duel with a rest, to get a good aim. These are really American forms of the duel peculiar to the country, just as much so as the club duel in the North, the peculiarity of which is that it always terminates pleasantly without bloodshed and in a restoration of amicable feeling, no matter how serious the "insults" may have been which led to the trouble. But notwithstanding its many advantages, we doubt if the death-lot duel will ever become popular here. There is a refined rationality about it, a neatness, a celerity, a certainty, which is not suited to the duelling classes as we know them. The chance of "slaying" your adversary is an essential part of the American duel, and this can never be replaced with us by the chance of seeing him slay himself.

Mr. Albert Rhodes, recently Consul of the United States at Rouen, France, in a consular report discusses the adulteration of wines in France. As proof that this adulteration is carried on there to a very great extent, he cites the fact that the French Government has found itself obliged, in the interest of public health, to establish laboratories for the analysis of wines and other liquids which are distributed throughout the principal towns of France Indeed, there could be no stronger proof of the existence of this abuse than the obligation the Government feels itself under to do something to limit its evil consequences. Mr. Rhodes very pertinently says that if the artificial wine made in France is not good for French people, it is not good for Americans, and that, therefore, the French have no right to find fault with our Government if it thinks of taking measures to subject the imported article to an equally thorough analysis. This will undoubtedly still more cut down the importation of French wines, which has already perceptibly decreased of late years, and it will enlarge the field of another method to deceive the public which has for years been extensively practised in this country—namely, the practice of selling California wines under a French or German label. These California wines are undoubtedly better for the health of the consumer than adulterated foreign wines. But it is nevertheless the selling of a cheap article for a high price under false pretences. It is hardly necessary to add that the extent to which this swindle is carried on is made possible only by that silliness which is always ready to pay for the foreign name, and thus invites deception. This practice, of course, benefits not the wine-grower, who has to sell his product under its right name, but only the middle man, who puts the foreign label on it.

The fancy in the mind of the British investor that the Confederate bonds will sooner or later be paid by somebody or other, is one of those delusions which no amount of experience seems to be able to cure, and speculators are still able at short intervals to get up a boom on the strength of it, which no doubt enables them to make a considerable sum of money. It appears from a published interview with Judge Lochrane, of Georgia, that the legal ground upon which the investor has been induced to rely has at length been discovered. The Fourteenth Amendment, our readers are aware, declares that neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, and makes any such debt or obligation wholly void. It has always been difficult for Americans to understand how it was that the British investor was persuaded to believe that the difficulty presented by this amendment could be surmounted. It now appears that what he is told is that the Fourteenth Amendment is "unconstitutional," and can be set aside by the Southern States, whose readmission into the Union was based upon their ratification of it. Lured on by this attractive legal bait, he is persuaded next to infer that if he only buys enough bonds, and creates enough pressure, the Southern States will begin to clamor to have the Fourteenth Amendment set aside and the Confederate debt assumed either by them or the United States. The pressure is, it seems, to take the form of "boycotting." The South needs emigrants, and is expecting an English emigration. All the English bondholders will have to do, therefore, is to form a league to keep emigration out of the South—to prevent the South from being settled. We must not forget to add that the legal basis of this scheme rests on opinions furnished by "Dutch and French jurists."

The British investor evidently does not understand this country, and it is apparently hopeless to attempt to teach the generation now on the stage. Fascinated as it is by the brilliant prospect, it will probably go on at intervals of a year or so buying Confederate bonds, on the strength of the opinion of French and Dutch jurists that the Fourteenth Amendment is unconstitutional; but it seems to us that it is not too much to hope that the rising generation of investors, the little innocent children now playing with their toys in their happy British homes, may be taught as they grow up that it is imprudent to buy these securities, and that they had better turn their attention to other classes of investments. By beginning early with them, and accustoming them to look upon the bonds as worthless; by using the family investment in the debt to light fires with; by having trunks lined with it, and so on, some good might be accomplished by prudent parents. Something might be done, too, in the schools—unless, indeed, in cases where the hallucination is hereditary. For an hereditary belief that the Confederate bonds will ultimately be paid it is hard to suggest any remedy, except that which thus far seems to have produced no relief—constant attempts to get the money.

The late Peter Goelet, of this city, who died a few years since, was a millionaire on a quiet scale, and as he died unmarried his property descended to his nephews. A lawyer named Wolf has now appeared, who "claims" to have found evidence showing that Mr. Goelet contracted a marriage in Indiana in 1845; that a child was born in 1847; that the mother died within three weeks; that the child was left with a guardian, who subsequently reported it dead, too. Far otherwise was the fact, for the poor little remote Indiana child lived to grow up to be a woman, married one George Myers, and now Mrs. George Myers lays claim to the Goelet estate in New York. Mr. Wolf says he has been at work on this little matter ever since 1880, and "has written five thousand letters about it." People often complain of the want of romance in New York life, but no millionaire ever dies here without showing how unfounded the charge is. Mr. Wolf expresses great surprise that his discovery should have been made public, for he wanted it "kept quiet."

The practice of giving a letter of recommendation to a man, and then following it by a private note saying that he is not to be trusted out of sight, has been improved upon in Georgia by the Clerk of the Hancock Superior Court, Mr. J. T. Andrews. W. J. Reynolds, having committed bigamy and been detected, applied to Mr. Andrews for a letter explaining that the bigamist Reynolds was "another man of the same name." This he most obligingly gave, writing to the editor of the Lexington *Dispatch* fully on the subject. But on the same day he sent another letter to the same editor, explaining that he had "fixed up" the first because of Reynolds's "great distre s about his trouble," and to enable him to "wind up his business." He adds, thoughtfully, that "after reflection" he has decided to withdraw the first communication as being entirely false.

In the House of Commons on Monday the Suez Canal question was again brought up, and resulted in a victory for the Government, which a month ago would hardly have been predicted. Sir Stafford Northcote moved an address to the Queen, praying that in any canal negotiations she would decline to recognize the claims of the existing company to a monopoly. Mr. Norwood offered an amendment declaring that it was undesirable to prejudge the action of the Government, and that the House declined to pass any resolution on the subject. This amendment was supported by Mr. Gladstone, and carried by a vote of 282 to 183, the Parnellites abstaining from voting. Mr. Gladstone has therefore succeeded in getting exactly what he most needed—a postponement of the whole matter. He explained, in the course of his speech, that the monopoly question would have to be settled in the courts of Egypt.

The fate of the informer Carey was precisely what nearly everybody expected it would be. He had a mortal enemy in every "Irish patriot" the world over, and his assassination was only a question of opportunity. There will be no sympathy for him from any quarter. He was the most cowardly member of one of the most cowardly and bloody conspiracies of modern times, and only escaped the legal penalty of his crime by betraying his associates. He was shot because he was an informer, but he merited death because he was an accomplice in murder. His slayer stands an excellent chance of being hanged for murder, of which he is as much guilty as he would have been had he shot an innocent man.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 25, to TUESDAY, July 31, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

DURING Wednesday the vexatious delay of business on all commercial telegraph lines throughout the country still continued, neither strikers nor employers showing any signs of yielding. Negotiations had, however, been secretly going on, and at 4 o'clock in the afternoon it became known that the American Rapid Company had effected a compromise with the Brotherhood. While both sides declared that the agreement was satisfactory, they declined to make its terms public for the present. It is generally understood, however, that the basis of the agreement is a full recognition of the Brotherhood, an increase of ten per cent. in all salaries, eight hours for a day's work, seven hours for a night's work, and extra pay for all Sunday work. On Monday these terms were reported to be false. It was said that the apparent concession of the Rapid Company had been made by agreement with the strikers in order to force other companies to compromise. An incident of Thursday was the so-called "discharge" in Washington of seven first-class operators who had signed an agreement to strike on that day unless some action should be taken looking to a compromise. The operators assert that Superintendent Zeublin appealed to them to remain, and when they refused he discharged them, alleging that they had wilfully mutilated the company's business. This charge has created great indignation, and threats of a suit are made. The Produce Exchange of this city on Friday passed a resolution favoring inquiries as to the feasibility of building a line of telegraph for their own use and that of other exchanges in the larger cities. On Saturday the Western Union in this city took down its notices receiving all messages "subject to delay." On Tuesday the situation was practically unchanged, neither side showing signs of yielding.

President Arthur left Washington on Monday for the Louisville, Ky., Exposition, and for an extended Western tour. He does not expect to return until the latter part of September.

The Civil-Service Commissioners have recently given a decision which some of the friends of the reform fear will defeat the real purpose of the new law. To a question submitted by Secretary Folger, whether or not a woman drawing $900 salary could be promoted to a $1,200 position without a competitive examination, they have returned an answer in the affirmative. In response to the question whether or not competitive examinations would be required for promotions in the three grades, from a $1,200 clerkship to an $1,800 clerkship, they answered that the usual pass examinations would be all that was necessary.

The Government has recently established an agency in Massachusetts for the examination of the Government bank-note and bond paper. It became necessary to appoint ten counters who should be experts. Commissioner of Internal Revenue Evans appointed ten friends who were not experts. The appointments came before Secretary Folger, and he refused to confirm them.

The Commissioner of Internal Revenue has written a letter to Secretary Folger in regard to the operations of his office, in which he states that the estimated annual reduction of internal taxation is $42,637,563. The total receipts for the last fiscal year were $144,553,366.

A call for outstanding 3½ per cent. Government bonds was issued by the Treasury Department at Washington on Thursday afternoon.

In the District Criminal Court at Washington on Monday Judge Wylie rendered a decision overruling the motion to quash the indictment in the Kellogg Star-route case.

The Virginia Democratic State Convention met in Lynchburg on Wednesday. There was a large attendance. After several speeches, the Convention adopted a series of resolutions. These oppose any increase of taxation; accept as final the recent (Readjuster) settlement of the State debt; favor immediate abolition of the internal-revenue system; approve a tariff plank which is the same as that of the Ohio Democrats (which may be taken to mean almost anything); oppose mixed schools; demand economy, real civil-service reform, and anti-Machine methods; and finally arraign the national and State administrations.

The Massachusetts State Republican Committee on Tuesday designated Boston as the place of holding the State Convention, and Sept. 19 as the date. Charles R. Codman, of Boston, was invited to preside.

The Massachusetts Senate accepted the majority Tewksbury report on Thursday without debate by a strict party vote. This finished all the business, and the Legislature adjourned after the longest session on record in that Commonwealth.

The Pennsylvania House of Representatives passed the Stewart Congressional Apportionment Bill on Wednesday, but it was rejected by the Senate on Thursday. The deadlock continues. New bills were introduced on Tuesday.

A conference of Republican members of the New Hampshire Legislature was held on Thursday, but no solution of the Senatorial contest was reached. Mr. Chandler lost twenty-five votes on Friday. On Tuesday Mr. Chandler's vote was reduced to 21. Austin F. Pike received 80.

Charles W. Copeland & Co., shoe manufacturers, of Boston, on Monday indefinitely suspended, and their liabilities will amount to $750,000, which the firm says it has sufficient assets to cover. Firms in New York, Baltimore, and Norfolk, Va., also suspended on account of connection with the Boston firm.

The assignment of Shaw Brothers to Ferdinand A. Wyman, an attaché of the firm, was also made in Boston on Monday. It includes all the large assets—real estate, stock, and personal property. This firm owns more than 1,500,000 acres of land in Maine, and immense tracts in Northern New York, New Brunswick, and the Province of Quebec. The firm employed in various capacities between ten and fifteen thousand people, the annual product of whose labor is valued at between $3,000,000 and $5,000,000. At the beginning of the present year the firm's quick assets were estimated at $3,179,256; other assets, $2,362,256; total, $5,541,512. Direct liabilities, $737,000. The creditors of Shaw Brothers are chiefly Maine, Boston, and New York banks, and some of the largest hide and leather houses in Boston.

Ex-State Treasurer Polk, of Tennessee, was on Thursday found guilty of embezzlement by a jury, which fixed the penalty at imprisonment in the penitentiary for twenty years and a fine to the full amount of the embezzlement.

Comptroller Allan Campbell, of this city, resigned his office on Friday afternoon, on account of ill health. His successor has not yet been appointed.

Judge Bockes, of this State, has denied, without costs, the mandamus in the Union College matter, which sought to compel the attendance of Governor Cleveland, Lieutenant-Governor Hill, and other State officers ex-officio members of the Board of Trustees of Union College, at a meeting called for August 2.

The will of the late Henry L. Kendall, of Providence, R. I., leaves to the Public Library of that city the income of about $175,000.

The persons appointed by the Court to appraise the estate of the late Henry W. Longfellow, the poet, have filed their report in Boston, from which it appears that Mr. Longfellow left property the appraised value of which is $356,320 80.

A reunion of several hundred members of John Morgan's famous Confederate command took place at Lexington, Ky., on Wednesday.

A merchants' caravan was attacked by Apaches near Arispe, Mexico, on Sunday. The merchants were defeated in an engagement, and one was killed and another wounded. The Indians plundered the train of goods and $5,000 in silver.

Onondaga, a small village of Michigan, was, on July 23, almost swept away by a cyclone, which also visited Eaton County with destructive effects.

Twenty-three persons were killed and many injured by a railroad accident on the Rome, Watertown and Ogdensburg line, near Carlyon, N. Y., on Friday night. An express train came in collision with a freight car.

The body of Captain Webb, the English swimmer who lost his life in an attempt to swim the rapids of Niagara, was found and fully identified at Lewiston, about six miles below Niagara, on Saturday. The inquest showed that death probably resulted from the shock received in the whirlpool rapids, and not from drowning.

Montgomery Blair died at his country home at Silver Springs, Md., on Friday. He was seventy years of age. His father was a prominent Democratic editor of Washington from 1830 to 1845. Montgomery was well known in early life as a lawyer and judge in Missouri. In 1852 he removed to Maryland. He became a Republican after the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. President Lincoln appointed him his first Postmaster-General. He held that office from 1861 to 1864, and instituted many notable improvements. After 1864 he acted with the opponents of the Republican party, and was an ardent supporter of Tilden in 1876.

Señor Don Francisco Barca, Spanish Minister to the United States, shot and killed himself in his rooms in the Albemarle Hotel, New York, between two o'clock and sunrise on Sunday morning. He had arrived in this city from Washington July 20, and was making preparations for the departure of his wife and daughter to Europe on August 1. His secretary was with him until 2 A. M., and left him in his usual spirits. Before committing the deed he wrote twenty letters of farewell and explanation to various persons, but it does not yet appear that he clearly revealed the reason for the act in any one of them. It is supposed that he was despondent on account of his indebtedness in this country caused by extravagant expenditure. Others think that the proposed departure of his wife affected his spirits. He was fifty-one years of age, and was a Liberal politician of prominence in his native country. He had been in this country since 1881, and was popular in Washington. His wife and daughter will take his body with them to Spain on Wednesday.

FOREIGN.

The town of Casamicciola, on the island of Ischia, near Naples, was almost entirely destroyed by an earthquake on Saturday night. The neighboring towns of Forio and Lacco-Ameno were greatly damaged. The shocks began at half-past 9 o'clock. A majority of the people of the upper classes were at the theatre. Nearly all of the houses in the town collapsed. The number of lives lost is estimated at about 5,000. One thousand persons were wounded, and steamers loaded with them were constantly arriving at Naples on Sunday and Monday. The health resorts of the island were filled with prominent Europeans, many of whom were killed. Sappers were hard at work on Monday, rescuing people from the ruins. The municipal authorities of Naples did all in their power to relieve the sufferers. The dead at Forio number 300, at Lacco-Ameno

500, and at Fontana Serrara 200. Twenty-four children perished in the Misericordia Asylum. The King and Queen of Italy have subscribed 100,000 lire, and the Pope 25,000 lire, for the relief of the sufferers. The only American known to have been injured was a Miss Van Allen, and she is only slightly hurt.

The cholera continued to spread in Egypt throughout the week. The alarm in Europe increased, and many precautions were taken. The French Government have introduced in the Chamber of Deputies, and demanded urgency for, a credit of 50,000 francs for paying the expenses of a scientific commission which it is proposed to send to Egypt to investigate the cholera epidemic. The American Vice-Consul in London appointed on Wednesday a physician to inspect all vessels going to America. Several of the Powers were reported to be negotiating for the establishment of an International Sanitary Board. The Liverpool Town Council having called the attention of the Privy Council to the danger to public health arising from large cargoes of rags received there from Egypt, the Privy Council sent a reply in which they declined to interfere in the matter. The particular cargo cited in the Town Council's communication as a cargo of Egyptian rags was not intended to be landed at Liverpool, but to be conveyed to Boston. Secretary Folger, of the United States, has given the Collector of the Port of Boston full authority to burn the cargo of rags on its arrival there. Several cases of cholera were reported in England on Friday, but Sir Charles Dilke declared in the House of Commons that they were simple cholera, and not Asiatic. There was a decrease in the number of deaths in the Bulak quarter of Cairo on Friday. On Tuesday the situation at Cairo was more hopeful.

It was announced on Monday in London that James Carey, the informer in the Phœnix Park murder cases, was shot dead on Sunday on the steamer *Melrose*, while she was between Cape Town and Port Elizabeth, Africa. The deed was committed by a fellow-passenger named O'Donnell, who had recently sailed from London. The news caused intense excitement in the West End of London and in the House of Commons. It had been reported on Sunday that Carey was supposed to have just arrived in Montreal. The British Government has little doubt that James Carey was followed from London by O'Donnell. They believe that the Fenians had taken most elaborate measures to prevent his escape. O'Donnell surrendered himself quietly. He was placed in irons, and was handed over to the police when the *Melrose* arrived at Port Elizabeth. Carey was travelling under the name of Power. His family were with him. From Madeira he wrote a letter to the authorities, in which he described the voyage, and said he had shared in a conversation in which the Invincibles and "the miscreant Carey" were especially denounced. He said he intended to forget that Ireland ever existed. The news of Carey's death caused many exhibitions of delight on the streets of Dublin. The London *Times* pronounces the death of Carey a public misfortune, calculated to encourage lawless spirits to commit acts of violence. O'Donnell is an Irish-American. He denies that he knew who Carey was previous to his arrival at Cape Town.

In the House of Commons on Monday night Sir Stafford Northcote (Conservative) moved an address to the Queen, praying that in any negotiations relative to the Suez Canal she would refuse to recognize any claim of the Suez Canal Company to such a monopoly as would exclude other undertakings designed for the purpose of opening a way between the Mediterranean and Red Seas. Sir Stafford Northcote wished to do nothing to discredit the Government. He only asked the House to express such an opinion as would relieve them from the embarrassment arising from a practical recognition of the monopoly of the Suez Canal Company by some members of the Government. Mr. Norwood (Liberal) offered an amendment declaring that it was undesirable to prejudge the action of the Government, and that the House declined to pass resolutions concerning further negotiations or proceedings in connection with the Canal. Mr. Gladstone, amid great applause, cordially supported Mr. Norwood's amendment. He maintained that the late Government was aware that when it bought the Suez Canal shares M. de Lesseps claimed rights even more exclusive than he does now. The passage of Sir Stafford Northcote's motion, he said, would greatly diminish the Government's sanguine hopes of coming to an agreement on the Canal question. Mr. H. C. Childers, Chancellor of the Exchequer, said he was confident that before many months or years the Government would succeed in making a satisfactory agreement with regard to the Canal. Sir Stafford Northcote's motion was rejected, and Mr. Norwood's motion adopted by a vote of 282 to 183. The Parnell members abstained from voting.

In the House of Commons on Friday night a motion made by Mr. Onslow, Conservative, expressing regret that part of the cost of the Egyptian war had been charged to India, was rejected by a vote of 210 to 55. Before the vote was taken Mr. Gladstone explained that if the motion was adopted the Government would resign, adding (aside) that he did not know whether he should personally regret it if the motion were passed—a remark that caused much comment.

A dinner given by the British Volunteers in honor of the American riflemen took place at the Criterion in London on Wednesday night. There were about 100 persons at the tables.

Owing to the quietness of Ireland the British Government have relieved Mr. Clifford Lloyd, resident magistrate, from the special duty to which he had been temporarily assigned.

General Sir William Fenwick Williams died in England on Thursday at the age of eighty-three. He was celebrated for his tenacious defence of Kars, in 1855, against the Russian General Muravieff.

Advices from Tamatave, Madagascar, under date of July 13, assert that the state of siege is strictly maintained by the French. Six English missionaries with their families are detained in the interior. It was reported in Paris on Friday that the British commander at Tamatave had demanded that the siege be raised, but Admiral Pierre refused to comply.

A despatch was received at the Ministry of Marine, in Paris, on Saturday, announcing that the French troops under Colonel Badens made a sortie on July 19 from Namdinh with a force of 500 men. He captured seven pieces of artillery and killed 1,000 of the enemy. The loss of the French in the movement was but eleven men. The enemy was taken by surprise.

It is reported from Vienna that China has proposed to M. Tricou, the French Minister, that negotiations be opened for a formal treaty, and that France readily agreed to the proposal.

The French Cabinet has fixed an extra budget of 254,000,000 francs.

An interview between the Emperor of Germany and the Emperor of Austria has been arranged to take place at Ischl on the 7th of August.

Intelligence has reached Rome from Berlin that Prince Bismarck will continue to negotiate with the Vatican for the settlement of the differences between it and Prussia.

The Catholic Bishops of Prussia have begun to use the powers granted them under the provisions of the Government's Church Bill, recently passed. They have ordered all vicars and candidates for the priesthood to return to Prussia.

It is reported in Constantinople that Germany has refused to conclude the treaty admitting Turkey to the triple alliance, but promises her assistance to the Porte in case of necessity.

Mr. Wyndham, the British Chargé d'Affaires, and General Wallace, the American Minister in Turkey, maintain their opposition to the proposed patent law. The Turkish Government has offered to appoint an Ottoman delegate to revise the tariff, but has declined to prolong the treaty of commerce with the United States.

A convention between Switzerland and the United States, according to which any differences between the two republics are to be settled by arbitration, is about to be submitted to the Swiss Federal Assembly.

The Belgium Chamber of Deputies has adopted the bill increasing the duty on tobacco, with an amendment fixing the duty on manufactured tobacco at 75 francs per 100 kilogrammes.

In the Jewish trial at Nyiregyhaza, Hungary, the Public Prosecutor said, on Friday, that there was no ground for further criminal proceeding against the prisoners, and left the matter in the hands of the Court.

A great sensation has been caused in Berlin by the suicide of Dr. Pudlitz, Professor of Political Economy at the Berlin University. It is asserted that he drew a death-lot in a so-called American duel. He refused to fight in the ordinary way, because his antagonist was near-sighted.

The Academy of Sciences at Munich has appointed Prof. O. C. Marsh, of Yale College, a member of that Society.

It was reported in Rome on Saturday that the Pope was drafting an encyclical letter against divorce.

The death is announced of the Count de Persano, ex-Admiral of the Italian Navy, in the seventy-eighth year of his age. He commanded the united fleets in the war with Austria in 1866. He was surprised and defeated by the Austrian Admiral in July, and the Government was forced to impeach him. He was declared guilty of foolhardiness, negligence, and insubordination, and sentenced to the loss of his rank and to pay the cost of the trial.

Jean Adolphe Jerichau, the well-known Danish sculptor, died in Copenhagen on Wednesday at the age of sixty-five.

It was reported from Monterey on Friday that the Spanish Minister to Mexico had been recalled on account of Mexico's repudiation of her Spanish debts. The report has not been confirmed.

The centennial anniversary of the birth of Simon Bolivar was celebrated at Panama, Guayaquil, Ecuador, and other South American States on July 24 with great enthusiasm.

The Chilian General Lynch published on Wednesday a decree calling upon all the officers and chiefs in Lima, Peru, who were with Caceres, to present themselves within five days at the Cuartel, on pain of being treated as spies.

Great excitement reigns throughout the interior of the United States of Colombia on account of the coming elections, and fears are entertained that a revolution may at any moment break out.

Cetewayo, the famous Zulu chief, was reported killed on Wednesday. He was the son of Panda, and the nephew of Chaka, who in 1812 reorganized the Zulu nation. Cetewayo succeeded his father in 1872. He ruled with vigor and independence. He was finally driven into war with the British, which resulted disastrously in his capture in August, 1879. For several years he was kept in captivity, but was at length restored to his throne in September, 1882, after a visit to England, where he was much lionized. Within the past few months he has been involved in war with powerful South African chieftains. The insurgents also killed all his wives and many of his chiefs.

THE TELEGRAPH AND THE POST-OFFICE.

THE greatest objection to the assumption of the telegraphic business by the Government was the condition of the civil service before the passage of the reform act. It was felt that to increase by many thousands the force of officials employed, promoted, and dismissed under the spoils system, would be simply increasing the means of corruption at the disposal of politicians, and increasing the encroachments of the system on the time and attention of the President and members of the Cabinet. It was bad enough to have an army of Treasury, and Post-office, and Custom-house clerks holding office by favor; it would have been still worse to have them reinforced by an army of telegraph operators, who would, owing to the fact that telegrams are open letters, have been still more useful as "henchmen" than any other body of public servants.

Now that this difficulty has been removed, the probabilities are that the public attention will be seriously and increasingly directed to the desirableness of imposing on the Government the duty of transmitting all telegraphic messages as well as letters. There is really no argument in favor of a Government post-office which is not just as applicable to a Government telegraph, except the fact that the Government is already in possession of a monopoly of the one, while the other is already carried on after a fashion by commercial companies. The strongest arguments in favor of a Government post-office are that the people have some control over its management, and that the first consideration of its managers is the public convenience. Another and hardly less powerful one is that its arrangements can at any time be changed by legislation without coming into collision with private rights, or giving anybody a claim to compensation. These are all stronger, too, in America than in any other country in the world. Probably nothing has been more effective as a civilizing and consolidating agency than the way in which the American post-office has followed the settlers into the Western wilderness, and kept every backwoodsman and squatter within easy reach of the world he had left behind him. No other post-office has played the same part for the community which it served. This has all along been so conspicuous a merit that it is not wonderful that the Star-route knaves should have sought to make money by abusing it. The wonder is that they did not try it sooner.

The telegraph has now come to play the part as a political and commercial agency which the post-office played at the beginning of the century. Business and politics are both managed on a telegraphic, and no longer on an epistolary basis. Nearly everything in life which is done in consequence of news from other places—a phrase which covers a large proportion of our industrial and political activity—is done in consequence of telegraphic news. Letters amplify and explain, but the determining and essential facts which govern a large part of the trade, commerce, and industry of the world come over the wires, and not through the post-office. Consequently it has now become all but a necessity that the telegraph should go where it will serve the popular convenience, and not simply where it will pay expenses or make profits, and thither no commercial company will ever carry it, or can be expected to carry it. Every commercial company is bound, in order to avoid defrauding its stockholders and creditors, to avoid doing business at a loss, or at all events to avoid doing a losing business very long and without reasonable hope of its speedy conversion into a profitable one.

Of course, whenever a Government telegraph is spoken of, the question comes up, How is it to come into existence? Should it buy out the existing companies at an appraisement, as the British Government did, or make a telegraph of its own? The difficulties of the first of these plans are obvious. It would probably be very hard to find out what the properties are worth, owing to the enormous influence, both legitimate and illegitimate, which would be exerted in favor of overvaluation. The work of wholly new construction would be very slow, but it is probably the more feasible and healthy of the two. It might be carried out gradually by the introduction of the telegraph into the post-office between leading points, and its subsequent extension year by year to minor places, until a full and efficient service was organized at every post-office in the country. The probabilities are, too, that before the work was half way through, the existing companies would be glad to sell out their lines at a very moderate rate. They have no claim on the Government for any kind of consideration. They owe it nothing; it owes them nothing. The franchise they enjoy is simply what every joint-stock company enjoys—the privilege of carrying on their business as a body corporate through trustees. This accounts for the futility of all schemes for forcing them to yield to their striking operators through legal process. The theory which calls for their being compelled to carry on their business by mandamus is too absurd for serious discussion. The franchise of no commercial company defines how much business it shall do, or how many offices it shall keep open, or how many men it shall employ. The citizens' only remedy, in case of inefficient service from a telegraph company, is to go to a rival or resort to the mails. And even if anything short of a total cessation of business would justify the revocation of its charter, it is clear that a rule which made the company's service compulsory must in practice cover its employees also. No rational community would go on long obliging corporations to do certain work, under pains and penalties, without delay, and at the same time permitting its officers to strike when they thought its needs most pressing. In fact, any one who wants to convince himself of the futility of supposing that a community like this can remain long dependent on commercial companies for the supply of its most important channel of communication, has only to read the threats directed against the Western Union in the pending agitation. They are now gradually dwindling down into the one it fears least—the threat of more competition.

DELUSIONS AS TO JURY TRIAL.

THE verdict of the jury in the Polk case is a fair offset to those in the two Star-route trials and the Dukes case in Pennsylvania, yet will not do much to rehabilitate jury trial in popular estimation, for a variety of reasons. If we assume that the second Star-route verdict was as absurd as the first, we have in these recent state trials three verdicts out of four grossly and palpably wrong. Even if we admit that the acquittal of Brady and Dorsey was right, only two out of four are sensible, and it must be remembered that the decision of cases by tossing up a penny—the old trial by lot—would result in the long run in half the verdicts being correct.

In reply to this it will, of course, be said that we have no business to take these four conspicuous trials, and overlook the countless other cases which juries do decide properly. But the reason why we do so is simply that conspicuous state trials are those which furnish the test of our administration of justice, and particularly of jury trial. They do so now in a different way from that in which they did it a hundred years ago. Then conspicuous state trials were jealously watched to see whether the accused was fairly tried, and juries were looked to to protect him against the tyranny and ill-will of the Government. The panegyrics of jury trial which were then common were in great measure founded on the same jealousy of the powers of the executive which, in another field, led to the great enlargement of legislative authority and constitutional limitations of the other branch. The state of society and law in which we live is so utterly different from that of the last century that now the main complaint made against jury trial is that juries do not convict; that it is a piece of machinery which only aids offenders to escape the clutches of the law. The impression that this is so is not derived from statistics, but from the conspicuous cases which now, just as in the time of Lord Mansfield, determine the repute in which the jury is generally held.

The difficulty of reaching any conclusion as to what ought to be done with jury trial comes in great measure from the delusion that it has, in our system of law, a sacred position as a method of deciding all questions of fact. We constantly, in discussions of the subject, come across such statements as the following: "There would be no difficulty in naming numerous lawyers and judges of distinction who regard the system of trial by jury, when properly administered, as the best practical plan ever devised for the determination of litigated questions of fact in a free community." If this is so, these jurists ought to come forward at once and do what they can to foster jury trial, and check the causes which, whatever view we may take of the theory of the matter, have practically been driving jury trial into the background in England and America for three hundred years. We have to go back at least for this period to reach a time when the lawyers and legislators of our race acted consistently upon the idea that jury trial was superior to other modes of determining litigated questions of fact. When the chancellors began to introduce

"equity" into England, they struck the first serious blow at jury trial, and they were stoutly fought by the old common-lawyers. But nowadays law and equity constitute one system, and according as a question takes one or another form, it will be tried with or without a jury. The question of damages for breach of contract goes to a jury; the question of ordering the performance of a contract goes to a judge. A trespass to land goes to a jury; an injunction against a trespass comes from a judge. The sanity of the maker of a will is decided by a surrogate; the same will may be brought before a jury if the question arises over the title to land. All these things can be explained historically: they come by that infusion of the civil into the common law which has been going on for so many centuries. But they certainly show that we have now, side by side with jury trial, another form—that of trial by a judge—which in a vast amount of litigation takes the place of jury trial without objection from anybody. Moreover, the legislation of every State continually tends to reduce the field covered by jury trial, first by permitting resort to a judge or referee, and finally, as the law stands in Massachusetts to-day, by abolishing it altogether in civil cases unless it is insisted on by one party or the other.

No sound reason can be assigned why jury trial in itself is a good method of determining questions of fact; and the real reason why it is preserved at all with us, and why it has been introduced in Europe while it is falling into decadence with us, is the necessity of having a popular tribunal for the trial of criminal cases. It is often said that a jury trial is necessary where corporations are parties, or where very rich men are pitted against very poor ones; and this would be a very good argument if it were based on fact, but it is not. Whether a suit between Jay Gould and the least of his conductors, or between the New York Central and the humblest citizen, shall be tried by a jury or a judge depends on the accident of the nature of the action. If it is an application for an injunction, for instance, it goes to a judge. This argument in favor of jury trial it will be time enough to consider when a law is brought forward providing that the form of trial shall be determined by the relative wealth of the parties.

The improvement of jury trial depends, we believe, a great deal upon the general recognition of the fact that it is not in itself a good method of determining facts at all; that, far from being a common right in civil cases, it is unobtainable in numerous classes of them; that in ordinary cases between man and man it is no longer regarded even by the Legislature as a precious institution; that its chief value consists in its furnishing a popular tribunal in proceedings to which the Government is a party. This once admitted, we shall be in a position to inquire what steps should be taken to make the jury, as a popular tribunal, once more good for something.

THE ELECTIONS IN HOLLAND.

THE general election which has just taken place in Holland, though hardly noticed in this country, is in fact an event of great interest to all students of political history. The questions which were at issue there may, within a short period, be of practical and vital importance to us.

After the adoption of the Constitution of 1848, there existed in Holland unlimited freedom of religious worship, so far as individuals were concerned. The state, however, had a certain control over the churches as corporations, and especially the Catholic Church was limited in its organization: no hierarchy existed, and no document could be promulgated without the sanction of the King. Thorbecke, the father of the Constitution, following the traditions of his party, did away with all these restrictions in the year 1853. An outbreak of Protestant spirit, as violent as it was unexpected, ensued, and the Liberal party was hurled from power. It was, nevertheless, impossible to undo their work, and when the burst of excitement was over, the new Ministry adhered substantially to the policy of its predecessors. The religious factor which for a moment had been introduced into politics was eliminated, and party lines were again drawn on purely political questions, such as administration of the finances and of the colonies. The system of public non-sectarian schools, which had existed since 1806, was extended by the law of 1857, and this law was adopted without opposition from the Catholic members; it was opposed only by the zealots of the ultra-Protestant party.

In fact, during the whole of this period, the Catholics were the warmest friends of the Liberals. They did not form a political party, and posed as the friends of liberty and religious freedom. The bishops, however, who were nominated by the Pope after 1853, proved to be powerful organizers, and the lower clergy were excellent electoral agents. Their programme was simple: political questions were to them of secondary importance; their object was to secure the supremacy of the Church over the State, and, as a first step, to abolish state interference in educational matters and repeal the law of 1857. Within a short time they formed a powerful party, and in their struggle against liberalism gained the support of the ultra-Protestants. The "ante-revolutionists," as they are called, get their recruits partly from the aristocracy, but mainly from the uneducated rural classes. These, though they hate a Catholic, hate an unbeliever even more. Their strict ideas about religion, however, have not much practical influence on their lives and morals, for drunkenness and immorality of the grossest sort are prevalent among them. The only class which is, perhaps, still more "religious" in the sense above indicated is the roughs of the larger cities. When, in Rotterdam, a few years ago, popular lectures were announced of a very mild Ingersoll type, the audience not only would not allow the orator to proceed, but actually pelted his carriage with stones, and but for a strong police escort the man would not have escaped with his life.

In nearly all the larger cities the pastors of the Dutch Reformed Church are appointed by a body elected by universal suffrage. The Liberal party did not see the importance of preventing the powerful machinery of the Church from being used against them, and took less and less part in the elections. The result is, that the tide has been running so strongly in favor of rigid orthodoxy during the last ten or fifteen years that no man with even moderately liberal views can attend church with any feeling of satisfaction. Among the younger generation there exists, therefore, in the more cultivated classes, a general indifference to church matters such as is perhaps found nowhere else. Independent churches have tried to some extent to supply the spiritual want, but, as far as political influence is concerned, the national Dutch Church, the only one which has a hold upon the people, is a determined, powerful, and at present strongly organized foe to liberalism. To secure a supply of ministers in the future, it has organized a school of strictly orthodox theology, and the lecture-rooms of men like Kuenen and Scholten are deserted. The result of this alliance between the two clerical parties was soon felt, not only in the loss of seats suffered by the Liberals, but also in the fact that in many of the districts which they still kept under control their majorities grew smaller and smaller. The party names changed, the old "Conservative" party disappeared, the religious factor once more became prominent.

The success of the Clericals was favored by the blunders and want of political tact of their opponents. With a majority in Parliament, with the support of the more intelligent classes of the community, they might have defied even the strongly organized Clerical parties if they had understood the position and subordinated minor questions to the great principles at stake. But they governed in such a way that a feeling of lassitude came over their stanchest supporters, and to many any change would have been welcome which should deliver them from the petty personal squabbles, and the utter want of organization or programme, which have disgraced the Parliamentary history of the last ten years. A few weeks ago the Belgian Liberals gave a great proof of statesmanship by rejecting a proposal to revise the Constitution, because it would split the party and weaken it in its fight against clericalism. No such proof of self-control and discipline was given in Holland when the great question of the extension of suffrage came up for discussion. It was brought forward by the Clericals, who knew that the nearer the approach made to universal suffrage the greater their power would be. The majority of the Liberals, recognizing the necessity of extension, were willing to admit those who by their education or profession offered the necessary guarantees for an intelligent exercise of the franchise, yet were excluded by the law as it stood, which required in all cases the payment of a certain sum in direct taxation. They were, however, opposed to a sweeping reduction of the "census," and the creation of a class of voters utterly ignorant of the first principles of the science of government, blind followers of the priest and pastor and (in certain cases) of some socialistic leader. In this they went counter to the wishes of the radical wing, and the dissensions fomented and embittered by the common enemy

resulted in the fall of the "ministère d'affaires" which for three years had occupied the ministerial bench. A ministry was formed with decided clerical tendencies, under the leadership of Mr. Heemskerk, an able man, whose policy and principles consist in hating the Liberal party, which at an earlier and better period of its existence foiled his attempts to encroach on the rights of the Chamber in favor of the Crown.

Shortly afterward the elections were held, and though the results were not so decisive as was expected, the hands of the Ministry were strengthened, and it will be able to pass a law reducing the "census." Ere long, too, we may expect to see for the first time in Dutch Parliamentary history a strong Clerical majority. It will be composed of two heterogeneous elements, which some day will surely fight bitterly for supremacy. But, united by a common hatred of free thought, they will be a serious danger to the principles whose maintenance for centuries has been the boast of Holland.

MR. IRVING'S VISIT.

THE banquet given to Mr. Irving on the Fourth of July, in London, full accounts of which are furnished by the English newspapers, was one of the most striking events in the annals of the English stage, and is a fitting climax to the favor—his detractors call it worship—which he has for a long time received from the public. No English actor has ever been paid so great a compliment as was implied by the presence of such a remarkable gathering of distinguished persons, and Mr. Irving did not trespass very far into the domain of polite exaggeration when he said that he could not conceive of a greater honor entering into the life of any man than that which was thus paid him.

As Mr. Irving is about to play in this country, the present occasion is a fitting opportunity for an account of the steps by which he has attained his remarkable popularity. English opinion is divided upon his merits as an actor, although universal and hearty praise is accorded to him for his efforts to elevate the stage and to make his profession one worthy of all support and social recognition. He will be heard here by audiences which have not been influenced in any way, and which will judge him entirely on his own merits. Whatever the critical verdict may be upon the technical presentation of the varied rôles he will fill, these merits will be found sufficient to secure for him a most cordial and honorable reception.

John Henry Brodribb Irving—for that is his full name—was born in Somersetshire on February 6, 1838. As a boy, he was remarkable for his fondness for acting and his success in declamation, which procured for him the friendly advice of Creswick. At the age of fourteen he was placed in the office of an East India merchant, in London; but his passion for the stage soon caused him to adopt it as his profession. He was offered an engagement in London by Phelps, but with singular discretion he declined it, preferring to receive the training which the "provinces" then afforded before appearing before a London audience. His first appearance was at the Lyceum Theatre, in Sunderland, in 1856, playing the parts of *Orleans* in "Richelieu," and *Cleomenes* in the "Winter's Tale." He was far from being successful, however, and it is said that, after one or two performances at Edinburgh in these early days, he was informed that, as the manager was averse to dismissing a member of the company at the beginning of the season, he might retain his position if he would accept a reduction of five shillings a week in his salary. On one occasion, according to Mr. Lewis, he was struck with stage-fright and was unable to recall a word of his part. Suddenly remembering, however, an utterly irrelevant line from some other play, to the extreme astonishment and disgust of the person with whom he was acting, he blurted out the words, "Come on to the market-place and I'll tell thee further," and fled from the scene, followed by the roars of laughter of the audience and the curses of the stage-manager. He played at the Theatre Royal, Edinburgh, from 1857 to 1859, and it was there that he first began to attract attention. There, also, he met Toole, his afterwards intimate friend, who procured him an engagement.

Irving next signed a three years' contract with Augustus Harris—at present producing gorgeous spectacular melodrama at Drury Lane—to play at the Princess's Theatre, in London. When he found, however, that by thus engaging to play subordinate parts he was condemning himself to remain in mediocrity, this contract was rescinded. He played in comedy in Manchester for some time with much approval, and on the last night of his engagement there, in 1865, he played *Hamlet* for the first time, astonishing his friends—who regarded the performance as a huge joke—by winning a complete and serious success. His next engagement was in a company managed by Dion Boucicault. At last the time came when he could appear in London under circumstances favorable to his future career, and the object of his early ambition was thus attained. His first London part was that of *Doricourt*, in the "Belle's Stratagem," at the St. James's Theatre. He was very successful with this, and next played *Rawdon Scudamore*, in Boucicault's "Hunted Down." His delineations of the baser side of human nature showed so much perception and power that for a long time he figured only in characters of this kind, among others playing the part of *Bill Sykes* with great success. One of the critics wrote of Irving at this time that he had a "monopoly of stage villains." His career as a thoroughly successful actor dates from these performances at the St. James's Theatre, and it may best be described as a progression through three different branches of the actor's art—comedy, melodrama, and tragedy. By constant study and persistent efforts, Mr. Irving has attained to great success in each of these, and it is to this varied training that he owes that versatility which is one of the most prominent features of his genius. In whichever of these branches of his art he is playing, he is able to discover and present the points which belong to the other two—he fills a tragic rôle with the lightness and ease of comedy, and, when necessary, can invest his comedy with a tragic dignity. In this first period of his successful career—what we may call the comedy period—he played, after *Doricourt*, such parts as *Petruchio*, *Charles Surface*, *Captain Absolute*, and *Mr. Chevenix*, in Byron's "Uncle Dick's Darling. The culmination of the "light-character-eccentric-comedian" period was reached by his impersonation of *Digby Grant* in James Albery's "Two Roses." This was performed 200 nights in London and 100 times during a provincial tour, and with it Mr. Irving's career as a comedian alone came to an end. One of his biographers tells us that he took advantage of his benefit night at the Vaudeville Theatre to make upon the public an experiment to prove his power in melodrama, by reciting Hood's "Dream of Eugene Aram," and with immense success. An engagement at the Lyceum Theatre and an English adaptation of "Le Juif Polonais" of Erckmann-Chatrian, entitled "The Bells," were offered to him at the same time, and both were accepted. "The Bells" was produced on November 25, 1871, and Mr. Irving's impersonation of *Matthias* showed him to possess most remarkable powers of psychological analysis and tragic delineation. In intellectual subtlety he was quite equal to the discrimination of the difficulties presented by such weird and horrible subjects as a murder narrated in a dream, the haunting fear of mesmerism, and death from terror, and the strength of his presentation of them was such as to curdle the blood of his hearers. In several respects his *Matthias* is a unique performance, and in all respects it is most remarkable; many of his later plays have afforded opportunity for a much greater exercise of his critical faculties, but in "The Bells" his psychical powers are exhibited in the highest degree, and many of his critics place it very near the top of the list in their estimate of his characters.

Through the period devoted to tragedy, beginning with "Richelieu" and culminating in his great Shaksperian revivals, it is not necessary to go in detail, because it is so much better known and understood than the early part of his career. During this period it may be truly said that he has had nothing but success, in spite of the fact that his acting has been subjected to the severest criticism. So far as England and his profession are concerned, he has attained the summit of human fame and approval—there is no one who can be compared with him, any more than there was with Garrick in his day. This is what makes his American tour so interesting an experiment. American opinion must either confirm or enormously modify that of his own country; it must have a momentous effect in some way upon his fame. After the heated atmosphere of homage to which he has long been accustomed, and which has been created, as we must not forget, by his own talents and industry, it will be the best thing that his friends could wish for him to breathe for a while the healthy and bracing air of new and unbiassed criticism. Something is known here of elocution as an art, and there are some accepted principles of dramatic criticism—matters in which England is still curiously deficient.

AN UNALTERED SWISS COLONY.

MADISON, Wis., July 16, 1883.

NEW GLARUS is a unique Swiss settlement in Wisconsin. It lies in Green, one of the southernmost tier of counties, and about midway between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi. It was founded in 1845 by 108 persons. This handful, with compatriots who have joined them and their posterity, at the end of thirty-eight years, by evolution and natural selection, number 4,000. Few colonies among us have held fast their integrity, in race, language, and customs, so largely and so long. Fewer bid fair to hold their own still longer. Not many have so well fulfilled the hopes of their projectors.

Swiss Glarus, the mother canton, is of scanty resources. It lies out of the beat of tourists. The arable land, which is all annually divided, amounts at most to no more than one-eighth of an acre for each family. In 1844, owing to several poor crops as well as the small demand either for manufacturing operatives at home, or for soldiers abroad, it became clear to thoughtful Glarners that many a family must either expatriate themselves, or become a public charge. Thanks to this conviction, the magistrates decided to despatch two agents to America and procure land for a change of base. These land-hunters were instructed to explore the Northwest of the United States, and first Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri. In fact, however, they were personally conducted otherwise by trustworthy Swiss, first to St. Louis, and thence up the Mississippi to Galena and southern Wisconsin. There, in the first days of August, 1845, they selected the site of the future colony, at a point thirty-two miles east of the land-office in Mineral Point.

Their purchase consisted of only two sections, but two square miles were in Glarner eyes a vast expanse. The surface was broken, the soil thin and light, for their orders were to buy all the acres in one body, and in the choicest tracts some fraction had already been taken up by a Yankee squatter. Their choice, however, a hill-girdled basin, seemed to them not unlike certain Swiss scenery when mists hung low on the mountains.

At the outset notice had been given from Glarus pulpits, that every man who would make his way to the projected colony should have a farm of twenty-two acres rent free for ten years, and then absolute ownership at ten shillings an acre. The offer was tempting, and 200 persons wanting seven soon volunteered. On April 10, 1845, these adventurers all left Glarus on a barge which bore them to Basel. Transferred to another, they were conveyed to Rotterdam, and by a sailing vessel to Baltimore. Thence they proceeded on cars (their only railroading) fifty miles to the Pennsylvania canal, then to the Ohio, and by steamboat to St. Louis. They were here disheartened by a rumor that their land-hunters had died in the far North. They at once sent two of their number on the track of those pioneers, and, unable to endure the heated term in St. Louis, the whole band soon went on board an upward-bound steamer and landed in Galena, uncertain what had become of their pioneers. In the meantime one of the land-buyers had been discovered by those in search for them alive and at work on the colony land, and the other had already reached Galena on his way to bring up the main body from St. Louis. There he came near passing them unawares, and only by a fortunate accident ascertained their whereabouts. It was toward evening when he fell in with them, but eighteen of the men, overjoyed that land had been secured, and that only sixty-two miles away, started at once and walked all night on the way thither. Wagons were hired for some of the women and weaklings, and on August 15, after a four months and five days' journey, the pilgrims gathered in their new home. Their number was 108, as three had died, and more than four score, having found work or friends on the route, did not rejoin their fellows till the next year.

The nearest base of supplies was Mineral Point, at a distance of thirty-two miles, and most of their necessaries must be brought twice as far. The first house was a *dug-out*—the earth in a side-hill being so cut away as to form half the sides and all the rear. Logs and a few boards sufficed for the rest of the shelter. Half-a-dozen other huts, altogether of logs, were hurried up. Into each of them well-nigh a score of people crowded when the cold became too severe for camping out. What hope was there for these exiles?

1. Both men and women were able to work. One lead mine was within eight miles. Laundry-workers and mechanics were also in demand. The minimum of wages was greater than the maximum at home.

2. Their leader had a thousand dollars from the old Glarus authorities to be used in pressing emergencies. Food was coarse and scanty, but sure.

3. The next spring drovers from Ohio glutted the mines with cattle, selling at $12 a head. Here was the opportunity of the Swiss. Knowledge is power, and, as hereditary herders, they could pick out the best creature in a drove better than its owners. Good cattle were secured, and never afterward was there a lack of milk or meat.

4. Their upland pastures, meadows, brooks, and springs led to dairies and stock-raising, and in these industries, which Yankees later learned to be most lucrative, the Swiss became forerunners and preëminent. Their cheese product last year exceeded three million pounds, much of it Limburger and largely exported.

The persistence and growth of the original core of the Glarners may be easily traced. A minister was early sent them from the old home. After two years his salary was paid by the colonists. Traders, teachers, doctors followed in due time, but no lawyer, no editor has ever settled in their borders. The sixty twenty-acre tracts allotted to the first comers held them together like a swarm of bees. No one left his grant, no one failed to pay for it at the end of ten years. Better than this. Most of them had already made money, which they invested, not in savings banks or speculations, but in neighboring acres. They, their children, and other well-to-do Swiss immigrants have so invested every year since. No Yankee now lives within a ring of six miles round the first built dug-out. Families are patriarchal; more than one shows fourteen children. In another I have seen triplets—three girls born at one birth, now all robust and ten years old. Moreover, beyond the cordon which hems in the Swiss district the Glarners have bought the best farms here and there on every side. Still others have gone to live in large towns, in Nebraska, and on the Pacific slope. Those who have adventured so far away were the class least clannish and most prone to Americanization. Orthodox Glarners say: "They went out from us, but they were not of us; for, if they had been of us, they would no doubt have continued with us." In truth their new departure was the sloughing off of those elements which might have marred the original type.

The first buildings were alongside an affluent of Rock River in a valley overlooked by hills half covered with oaks. The first huts, like those of Continental peasants, were huddled together and had no front-yards. It was some years before each man built on his own farm. The church bell now rings at eleven in the forenoon. The custom is said to have arisen when farmers labored so far from their homes that they needed an hour's notice of their noon-tide meal. But spade tillage was given up for ploughs at once, and agricultural machines soon superseded sickles and scythes. In the main, however, the Helvetian offshoot, planted three years before Wisconsin became a State, is now as it was in the beginning. The aim of its founders was to "establish a community similar to that of the Canton of Glarus," and their success was exceptional. The Swiss clan has held its own the more firmly because it is distant from railroads—fifteen miles from the nearest station and twenty from that to which it is chiefly tributary. Its wants are few. It grows its own fuel; it raises its own wheat, flours it at home; for sixteen years it has brewed its own beer; its stock and dairy products are bought within its own limits by rival dealers from abroad. A stone quarry crops out of a height above the village in layers just thick enough to suit a mason. Few settlements are so isolated and so self-sufficing.

Among the strongest conservative forces in the Wisconsin Switzerland is the church. It is Reformed Lutheran, or Zwinglian. The motto on the wall is, "God's word and Zwingli's doctrine." Preachers, Bibles, hymn-books, catechisms, and liturgies are all imported from the Alps. The services are altogether in the language and style of Old Glarus. The central church (40 by 36 feet) has walls nearly three feet thick, with a tower eighty-five feet high and no less than fifteen feet square. Its two bells have each special functions too various to be described. When worship is over, the males, who all sit on the left of the minister, rise and stand in their places till all females have left the house. This precedence is an honor done to Glarner women ever since 1388, when they were heroines in shaking off the Austrian yoke. Every man, rich or poor, is assessed at the same sum for church expenses, as each communicant is presumed to feed on an equal quantity of church manna. Such are a few of the survivals from antique usages. Some years ago a few malcontents seceded from the mother church, which is independent, and adopted Methodist discipline. But even these dissenters have no English preaching. They dared not build within three miles of the old church, though they have recently been permitted to yoke up their oxen and draw their wooden chapel into its vicinity. It seems odd to an outsider that, while the churches agree in doctrine, they are divided even in death, as each buries in its own separate cemetery.

The ideal of the Glarners was not high, but few associations have more fully realized their ideals. None of their children have been sent from home for higher education, but none of them are unable to read. Thirty-eight years ago not a man of them had any money; several are now worth a hundred thousand dollars apiece. When the chief town in Swiss Glarus was burnt in 1861, the colony remitted to its mother more dollars than she had expended for her children who had sought a new and transatlantic home. In our civil war ninety-eight Glarners fought for the Union. In all the history of New Glarus no pauper is remembered save two or three idiotic persons. Two aged people, likely to become a public charge, who wished to return to the old home, where they were entitled to maintenance in an Old Folks' House, were enabled by a subscription to voyage thither last season. All hail, such assisted emigrants! The only insane person you can hear of in New Glarus is a woman whose husband was killed by lightning. As no building has ever been burnt there, insurance ought to be low. The only crime within

memory is that of a woman who last year attempted to poison her husband, and, failing, persuaded her paramour to shoot him. Only three suicides can be found in the graveyards. The minister's service has lasted one-quarter of a century, and may outlast another. The longevity of teacher and doctor is well-nigh as great.

Some American fashions are creeping in. The young people are bilingual, speaking English as well as Swiss; both tongues are taught in the schools. But conservatism is here of perdurable toughness, and Glarner idiosyncrasies will die hard. A looker-on in this Alpine glen transported unaltered to the Mississippi Valley, is reminded of the bowlder sent in all its natural roughness from his native canton, as the most fitting tombstone of Agassiz in Mount Auburn. On the whole, we are all ready to say:

> "Glarus is like a circle in the water
> Which never ceaseth to enlarge itself."

But no man living will be able to add:

> "Till by broad spreading it disperse to nought."

J. D. B.

THE HOUSE OF LORDS AND ENGLISH OPINION.

LONDON, July 17.

THOSE who watch English affairs from a distance are often surprised at the amount of attention given to the question of marriage with a deceased wife's sister, at the warm discussions it causes, and the difficulty found in coming to a settlement. They do not understand either why a change in the present law should be persistently pressed, or why it should be so vehemently resisted. As your readers are perfectly aware, such a marriage is in England not a legal union, and the children born in it are illegitimate. Formerly it was not void, but merely voidable—that is to say, it was a good marriage until an ecclesiastical court, which in those days had jurisdiction in matrimonial causes, should, upon the institution of a suit, have pronounced it void. The custom therefore was for a man who had made such a marriage, if he wanted to be quite secure, to institute a suit himself to upset his own marriage, but, instead of prosecuting it to judgment, to keep it pending, and thereby prevent any other suit being brought for the same purpose. Under this odd arrangement such marriages used to be contracted, though they were not very common. However, in time an act was passed in which Lord Lyndhurst, at the instigation, it was said, of Dr. Samuel Wilberforce, then Bishop of Oxford, inserted a provision declaring any marriage with a deceased wife's sister null and void for the future, while giving full legality to all such as had been already contracted. This act attracted little notice at the time, but before long persons who subsequently to it desired to marry or had married the sisters of their deceased wives, began an agitation to have it repealed. For some time they made little progress, but their tenacity was at last rewarded by success in the House of Commons. Then the House of Lords held out for some sessions. Then the methods of obstruction in the House of Commons began to be more studied and employed, and were applied so skilfully to this bill that it could never be got through the House of Commons. Its advocates, in despair, betook themselves to the House of Lords, and during the last two or three sessions have introduced it there. It would have had small chance of passing but for the zeal with which the Prince of Wales and his three brothers, all of whom sit in the Upper House, have supported it, not so much by speaking as by privately canvassing their friends on its behalf. It was defeated by a small majority last year. This year, after unexampled efforts on the part both of opponents and of friends, it was carried by a small majority in the largest House which has been got together by the peers for a good while. Its triumph was then thought certain. But there were difficulties to be dealt with in the details of the bill, whose treatment in committee displeased many people. The opponents made a final rally, and the measure was thrown out on its third reading, not perhaps because people had changed their minds, but because those languid supporters who had with difficulty been whipped up to vote for the second reading could not be induced to come up a second time from the country, while the more zealous party of resistance brought almost its whole force into action. Thus the bill is lost once more, and the agitation may perhaps go on without any result till the engines of obstruction have been removed from the House of Commons, and the House of Lords begins to fear to differ from its sister House even in minor questions—two changes which seem still remote.

"But which way," some one may ask, "does the opinion of the country incline? and if it does decidedly incline either way, why has not the matter been settled before now according to the view of the majority?" The answer to the first question cannot be doubtful: the opinion of the country is decidedly in favor of legalizing these marriages. And the answer to the second question is that although such is the view of the large majority, that majority doesn't much care about the matter, while the minority, which dislikes the change, though numerically weak, is keen and resolute in its resistance. A few people in earnest are able to baffle many more who are lukewarm. The lukewarmness of the many is intelligible. There is a very small percentage of persons who have married or wish to marry the sister of the wife they have lost; and these are pretty nearly the only persons who have any active interest in promoting the change. Others, though they may approve it, cannot be very eager; and the great mass care only so much that when asked their opinion, they answer, "Why not? If a man wishes to do so, is there any sufficient ground for preventing him?"

It is quite otherwise with the opponents. They have not indeed a personal interest in forbidding such marriages, but they have a theological interest which is an equally effective and far more widely operative motive. They conceive, on grounds whose validity it would take too long to examine, that these marriages are prohibited by the Mosaic law, and profess to base their opposition thereon. This view acts on the Low Church party in the Church of England, who hold fast by the Old Testament in other matters also, as, for instance, in Sabbath observance. But the High Churchmen, while also appealing to the Pentateuch, are in fact more influenced by the sacramental view which they take of marriage. To them it is primarily a very solemn religious rite, and they press the words of Scripture, "they twain shall be one flesh," so far as to hold that a wife's sister is really a sister, and that marriage with her is therefore incest, no less shocking to the well-constituted mind than marriage with a person born from the same parent. They insist that the removal of this restriction would involve the removal of many others which forbid marriage between near relatives, such as uncle and niece, and profess to be the champions of marriage in general, the upholders of its sanctity and purity.

These doctrines, like many other of the positions of English High Church Episcopalians, savor of the theology of Rome, but in this particular case Anglicans are less indulgent than Rome, for she grants dispensations from her rules with a pretty liberal hand, whereas in England we have, of course, no spiritual authority which can dispense with the letter of the statute law. Now, although this view is not widely held, it is held with great sincerity and warmth of conviction, and that too by persons, such as the High Church clergy and such ecclesiastically minded laymen as the members for the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, who are able to exert a good deal of social influence. It therefore tells powerfully on such a body as the House of Lords, nearly all of whose members belong to the Anglican Establishment, and many of whom, through both family and social ties, are in sympathy with ecclesiastics. The argument is of course freely used that if marriage were permissible between a man and his sister-in-law, the peace of his wife's mind would be troubled, and jealousy be so apt to arise that she would not wish her sister to visit the house, nor a pure-minded sister seek to do so. Such suggestions, however, have little weight with our people, who think them far-fetched and dishonoring to most husbands and wives and sisters; but the other argument, that after the death of a wife leaving children her unmarried sister would, at any rate if still young, be unwilling to come to her brother-in-law's house to look after the children—a practice now common and generally beneficial—does no doubt affect opinion, and especially the opinion of women. One meets many ladies who, when asked why they desire the existing prohibition to be maintained, give this reason. Still I repeat that the basis of the hostility, the source of the remarkable earnestness shown in opposing the bill, is to be sought in ecclesiastical beliefs. Without this potent source of strength, the voice of the numerical majority, backed by the exertion on the peers of the immense social influence of the royal family, would have prevailed.

You must not, however, suppose that the success of the ecclesiastical party is a proof of the strength of the Established Church in England. She would tell for very little in a division in the House of Commons. Even in the House of Lords, it was curious to notice that the peers who crowded the benches in rarely equalled numbers did not, on either side, really care about the matter. They had been beaten up by a few zealous partisans, but were anxious only to give their vote and get away as soon as possible. Among the bishops, who mustered strong and all voted against the bill, there was more zeal. Yet some even of the bishops were heard in private to confess that although they felt bound to support the view which the majority of the clergy take, they doubted in their hearts whether the predicted evils would come to pass if the bill were carried. The friends of the bill have raised an outcry against the bishops, and demanded once more that they should be removed from the Upper House. This is a sentiment which always finds applause in popular audiences; but the mass of the people care too little about the matter to be seriously angry with the episcopate for voting on a matter which touches their special field. Far more displeasure is excited when the bishops give political votes, and especially when they support, as they mostly did under Lord Beaconsfield's government, a warlike foreign policy.

Although a second-reading vote is usually decisive in the House of Lords, it would not do to assume in this case that the same vote could be secured another year. So many of those who came up to vote came under great urgency from friends that any slighter urgency next year might fail to move them. It is quite possible that the bill will not be carried until the procedure of the House of Commons is so changed that the bill can be passed through that house by a substantial majority, pretty early in the session. It will

then have a somewhat stronger claim on the Lords, who may very likely pass it.

The present prohibition, as you are probably aware, does not altogether prevent such marriages. Persons who contract them usually go to Switzerland or some other foreign country in which they are legal and get married there. Although this makes no difference to the invalidity of the marriage in England, it soothes the feelings of the parties, and especially of the wife's relatives. Those who, in the richer classes, have made such marriages are little, if at all, condemned by the opinion of the world. People mention the fact half under their breath, as a fact unpleasant for the children, but it is only strong Anglicans who would decline the acquaintance of a lady who had so married. Among the poor such unions are very common, there being often no one but the deceased wife's sister who can be got to look after young children, and the relations between her and the widower becoming those of a married pair, although no legal marriage is possible. This tendency, which the existing law has failed to check, is the argument which chiefly seems to influence disinterested persons in favor of legalizing the marriage. Y.

THE PREVALENCE OF LAWLESSNESS IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, July 20, 1883.

FEW phenomena are more noteworthy than the prevalence throughout English society of "lawlessness," by which term I mean the feeling or opinion that the law has little or no moral claim to obedience, and that no one is bound to obey the law of his country simply because it is the law, and because submission to it is (as a rule) the part of a good citizen. "Lawlessness" in this sense of the word exerts a great and growing influence upon the action both of Radicals and of Tories.

If any one doubts that even men who are not extreme Liberals are unconsciously infected with a singular lack of reverence for the law, let him observe the amount of sympathy which has been expressed by writers in the Liberal press with the sufferings of Louise Michel under severe but, as far as the English public can judge, perfectly warrantable punishment. She has been convicted by a French court of acts which in any civilized country would entail heavy penalties, but which in France are in the very highest degree dangerous to society. To accompany with a black flag rioters engaged in the plunder of bakers' shops is an act which would assuredly not be left unpunished by the courts either of England or of the United States. But in London or in New York men can afford to look leniently on riot, because it is certain that demonstrations of popular discontent will rarely lead to bloodshed and will never lead to revolution. Leniency is the prerogative of strength. Firmly established governments can venture to temper justice with mercy. In France, incitements to riot are more harmful to the state, and therefore open to severer moral condemnation, than any other crime of a public nature. The streets of Paris still bear witness to the vandalism of the Commune. Not thirteen years have passed since the murder of the hostages. Every grown man throughout France can recollect that the desperadoes or fanatics of the capital aroused civil war under the very eyes of foreign invaders. Every man of sense in France knows, further, that under the present constitution the country is for the first time, for nearly a century, really trying the experiment of self-government; and every human being who is capable of reflection, feels that the one peril to the liberties of France lies in outbreaks of popular violence which give occasion for reaction. Louise Michel may be (though no Englishman knows that she is) a sincere and disinterested enthusiast; but the crimes of women like Louise Michel are certain, if unpunished, to involve the ruin of French freedom. One would therefore have expected that English Liberals, who sympathize with the attempt of the genuine Republicans to found a free commonwealth in France, would at least judge leniently of the endeavor to check by legal punishments, however severe, the violence of fanatics who (unconsciously, no doubt) are playing into the hands of reactionists. When we see the readiness with which Radicals who are not themselves persons of very extreme views, assume that Louise Michel has been punished with extravagant severity, it is surely fair to infer that there exists in certain sections of English society an inadequate sense of the sanctity of the law.

Popular judgments about foreign affairs are good criteria of the bent of public sentiment. But there is no need to look solely to such judgments for proof of the slight reverence felt for law. There was a good deal to be said in point of expediency against the prosecution of Most. His incitements to assassination were in England so little read as to gain an unnatural notoriety from the punishment of their author. But there existed, on the other hand, grave reasons of policy for exerting the law against men who used England as a refuge from whence to pour forth instigations to assassination. If England is to continue the protector of exiles, she cannot afford to be a sanctuary for ruffians. But whatever may be thought of the pretty equally balanced arguments against or in favor of bringing the law to bear against the *Freiheit*, it might have been supposed that every man who valued the cause of rational freedom and peaceful progress would have felt that Most had no claim whatever to public tolerance or sympathy. Yet whoever noted the tone of the papers which are supposed to express Liberal opinion, must have seen that any kind of press prosecution was in many quarters looked upon with extreme jealousy, and that the supposed evils of curtailing any form, however noxious, of the freedom of discussion outweighed in the judgment of many Liberals the evils of tolerating crimes which turned liberty of discussion into the right to incite fanatics to murder foreign and friendly sovereigns.

But here, as in the case of Louise Michel, it may be supposed that popular feeling was biased by the traditional belief (which was, be it remarked, until within the last twenty years, and even later, well justified by fact), that the governments of continental Europe were despotisms supported by armed force against the will of their subjects. Let me, then, note a few remarkable instances of public opinion with regard to matters of a purely domestic character. Nothing can to ordinary apprehension be a more noxious form of error than the anti-vaccination craze. Yet it is plain that men as respectable and well-meaning as Mr. Peter Taylor and Mr. Hopwood hold that persons who refuse obedience to a law which the mass of the nation, and the experts most capable of forming a sound judgment, hold essential to the preservation of the public health, are to be considered martyrs. The curious proposal to relax the penalties by which vaccination is enforced is, from my point of view, even more significant than efforts to repeal the acts making vaccination compulsory. How a man of Mr. Peter Taylor's education and intelligence has brought himself to believe that vaccination is an evil, is a puzzle to which I do not possess the answer. But having adopted this belief, he is of course logically justified in wishing to repeal any law which enforces or encourages vaccination. The position, however, of a man who thinks that the prevalence of vaccination is a benefit to the nation, but yet feels so much sympathy with the minority of parents who refuse to vaccinate their children as to wish the law not to be enforced against them, is very perplexing. The only valid argument which I know of in favor of such a position is, that to enforce the law will make the law unpopular and ultimately check the spread of vaccination. This argument is a fair one, but no one who attends to the tone rather than to the actual expressions of the speakers who attack the existing law, can doubt that the idea which mainly weighs with them is that it is an intolerable hardship for a well-meaning man to submit his acts to the will of the nation; or, in other words, that the law as such has no moral claim on the obedience of any person who conscientiously thinks its provisions unwise.

It would be well if the lawlessness which considers disobedience to law as morally blameless, displayed itself only in attempts to repeal laws to which any considerable class of the community entertained an objection. Recent examples show that the House of Commons at least are prepared to interfere with the execution of laws which till repealed have a claim on the loyal obedience of all England. The effect of the resolution condemning the policy of the Contagious Diseases Acts is one of the most formidable signs of the times. A resolution of the House of Commons is of no more legal effect than a command of the Queen; and the acts I have referred to, whatever be their merits or demerits, are still as much part of the law of the land as the statutes forbidding forgery, theft, or murder. Yet every one knows that the resolution of the House has been sufficient to deprive these statutes of half their force. The Government and a majority of the House of Commons, that is to say, have nullified the law. For a reason to which I will call attention before I have ended this letter, Conservatives are estopped from taking exception to the monstrous deference paid to a resolution of the House; but observers who like myself stand outside politics, may note and call upon others to note the inroads made by the House and the Executive on the supremacy of the law. Let no one suppose that a low estimate of the respect due to the law of the realm is in any way confined to Radicals. The bill for legalizing marriage with a deceased wife's sister commands the assent not only of most Whigs, but, to judge by the votes of the House of Lords, of many, from the Prince of Wales downward, whom no one has ever dreamt of counting among the Liberal party. Against the proposed reform of the marriage law I have not a word to say. What I have, however, to note is, as I have already pointed out to the readers of the *Nation*, that the measure introduced by Lord Dalhousie proposes to condone the deliberate breach of the law by men who, under the guise of reformers, are attempting to carry through Parliament one of the worst pieces of retrospective legislation. What is very noticeable, the opponents of the bill, who are shocked at the alleged violation of the law of the Jews, are little moved by the attempt to weaken the moral force of the law of England.

We can, however, hardly expect that the representatives of the clergy should value highly the law of the land. The clerics who are most violent in their denunciation of a reform which rightly approves itself to the country, have already announced that should Parliament (or in other words the nation) see fit to amend the marriage law, the clergy of the national Church are prepared to defy and thwart the legally expressed commands of the nation. Many of the clergy will be as good as their word. The whole policy of the Ritualists rests on the avow-

ed conviction that priests owe no respect to the courts; and, oddly enough, persons whom no one would call Ritualists share a conviction which, were it entertained by the nation, would in the end reintroduce the worst notions of the middle ages. The Bishop of Manchester holds, acting under the advice of very prudent lawyers, that it is his duty not to induct to a benefice a clergyman who (as the Bishop has every reason to suppose) will disobey the law under which he will hold the living. The Bishop may be mistaken in his view of his legal position; on this I pronounce no opinion whatever. But no one supposes that Bishop Fraser has any wish whatever except to act in accordance with law—that is to say, in accordance with his duty as Bishop; and every one knows that if the Bishop's view of his rights is wrong, the courts will set him right. The oddity, however, of the thing is that the bare attempt on the Bishop of Manchester's part to assert what he honestly conceives to be his legal rights, and thus to perform his legal obligations, has excited, as far as I have seen, nothing but censure. He has, to judge from the journals which represent the Church of England, in some way which I do not profess to understand, offended the consciences of good men; he has "broken"—I have seen somewhere asserted—"the truce" between the different parties in the Church. His real offence is, not that he has meant to act unjustly, not that he has displayed partisanship, not that he has unwittingly mistaken his legal rights, but that he has, as a public official of a public body, tried to remind the other officials of the State Church that they, like other men, owe obedience to the law of the land.

There is something, it may be said with truth, in the education and position of the clergy which fosters the idea that priests ought to be subject only to the law of the Church—which means in effect only to rules approved of by clerical opinion. But if one keeps one's eyes and ears open, one can soon see that so-called Conservatives are fully as prone to lawlessness as are either Radicals or Ritualists. The whole conduct of the Conservative party in reference to Mr. Bradlaugh has been "lawless" from beginning to end, and what makes this of the more consequence is the fact, which I do not for a moment want to blink or deny, that the political Conservatives represent in this matter that national conservatism which extends far beyond the limits of the Conservative party, and is a far more important thing than any mere party organization. Now, about Mr. Bradlaugh himself and his policy there is a great deal to be said by way of blame, and very little to be said by way of eulogy. He has matched every blunder of his opponents by some grosser blunder of his own, and, by his absurd pretence of appeals to force, has all but sacrificed the legal strength of his own position. But the noteworthy fact is, that with Mr. Bradlaugh's legal or constitutional rights the Conservative leaders and their followers have never concerned themselves. I doubt whether any man who has ever studied constitutional history doubts that Mr. Bradlaugh's exclusion from the House of Commons is at least as gross a violation of constitutional principle as the attempt to incapacitate John Wilkes. The real answer to all constitutional arguments is that the majority of the House of Commons have the power to exclude him, and that this power they are determined to use. The majority have, in short, established that a resolution of the House of Commons may override the law of the land. Many of those who object to see the Contagious Diseases Acts nullified if not repealed by the vote of one branch of the legislature, must have felt that they were morally estopped from objecting that a resolution of the House is not equivalent to an Act of Parliament. Some few may perhaps have reflected that the Bradlaugh case has set a precedent which is hardly at bottom of a conservative tendency. Yet those, if any, who thought thus were probably few indeed. I have noticed that even the supporters of Mr. Bradlaugh's claims really care far more about the intolerance (which is really a very trifling matter) than about the injustice of the House of Commons, though this injustice or lawlessness is the most serious matter in the whole of a miserable imbroglio.

A party which does not respect legality in England is not likely to pay any reference to it in Ireland, and nothing better marks the temper of modern Tories than the constant suggestion that martial law is the cure for Irish discontent. The notion that a court of say five ignorant young officers could, by inspiration of heaven or the devil, administer with success some unknown system of ready-made equity far superior to the justice to be obtained from a trained body of judges, is in itself one of the most curious of popular delusions, and has, one may hope, been to a certain extent dispelled by the experience of the last six months. The noticeable fact, however, is, for my purpose, not the imbecility of mind, but the utter lawlessness of spirit, displayed by men who often assert that martial law is—to use a horrible expression I have seen in a Conservative print—"the one thing needful" for Ireland. Martial law is merely a decent name for the temporary abrogation of all real law throughout the length and breadth of Ireland. It is, to use a foreign expression, "the proclamation of a state of siege." The men who desire it really wish for a proclamation that unrestrained force of the sword has for a time taken the place of the restrained and just force of law.

Let me give one further sample of the spirit of the time. The whole agitation against Mr. Ilbert's bill is as worth attention as anything which has taken place in England for the last twenty years. It is not a mere protest against the details of a given piece of legislation; it is admittedly a protest against the idea that all classes of British subjects ought so far as possible to be insured equal rights before the law. It is impossible not to see that something far more is at stake than the question whether one or two native magistrates shall have jurisdiction over Europeans. The true point at issue is, whether our government of India shall or shall not be carried on upon the principle that a native of Bengal is as truly a British subject as a native of Middlesex, and that the aim of our English rule should be ultimately to place all subjects of the Queen in a position of legal equality. Whenever this is accomplished the rule of law will prevail throughout the whole British Empire. Meanwhile, the Conservatives of to-day boldly assert not only that our rule in India does rest, but that it ought avowedly to be made to rest, upon force, upon privilege, upon that kind of permanent inequality of classes which is absolutely opposed to the true supremacy of legality, which is but another name for systematic justice.

Much might be said as to the causes of the condition of opinion described in this letter. The subject is one to which I may recur. For the present my whole object is to call the attention of your readers to the prevalence of the feeling which I have termed lawlessness. A. V. D.

Correspondence.

MEADE BEFORE GETTYSBURG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to make a small contribution to an understanding, if not a solution, of the question, whether General Meade did or did not purpose to fight General Lee at Gettysburg.

By a chance, which need not be related here, I was present at an interview between Generals Meade and Reynolds the day before the latter was killed. At that interview the whole situation was gone over between the two officers, and, when they were parting, General Meade (as if summarizing the results of the conversation) said, as nearly as I can recall his words: "Well, when you get to Gettysburg, look over the ground carefully, and if you think well of it, I will bring up the rest of the army, and we will fight there. I leave it entirely to you. Examine the ground well yourself, and send me word as soon as you can. I shall keep my headquarters here [*i. e.*, at Taneytown] till I hear from you, and get the troops together, ready to push on and join you if you say so."

A further brief conversation followed, which I cannot venture to repeat *verbatim* as to General Meade's part, but the purport of it was that the examination of the ground should extend to the matter of a "safe line of retreat" to a new position. The impression formed on my mind by such parts of the conversation as I heard was, that up to that moment General Meade was uncertain as to the best position for him to take up; that he had no thought of concealing his anxiety from General Reynolds; and that, whatever might be the position eventually taken up, he was resolved upon having another one in reserve in case of disaster, and (to use his own words) "a safe line of retreat" to it.

Accompanying this is my name and address, should anybody interested in the matter desire to have privately a fuller account. ***

Washington, July 27, 1883.

NEW ENGLAND FAMILY GATHERINGS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to dissent from a part of your interpretation of these gatherings? It is clear, as you say, that their size carries them beyond the limit of real family affection, but it also carries them beyond all design of family aggrandizement, since the poorer and humbler members must always predominate, and must rather lower than elevate the prestige of the more successful. I should say that they originate in a vague form of clanship, which may be called family curiosity—a good-natured desire to know as much as possible about one's blood-relations, without any ulterior motive. It is a feeling which may be carried to a petty or foolish extreme; but it is in itself innocent, and is indeed a good corrective for the coldness and reserve which used to be imputed to New England people. It has also the merit of giving a wide and impartial range to genealogical inquiry, which is too apt, in England, to be concentrated on the elder branches of a family and on the male line. T. W. H.

Cambridge, Mass.

THE GERMAN PROFESSOR AND HIS PAY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The salaries given by your correspondent "L. N." are misleading, as they apply only to rare cases. In the report of M. Edm. Dreyfus-Brisac to the French Education Society, and republished by the Bureau of Education at Washington, the salaries of the professors in nine Prussian universities are given from official records. Berlin pays the highest, or from 12,000 to 9,000 marks; Marburg the lowest, or from 5,400 to 6,000 marks. This is, of course, exclusive of lecture fees, which to a few men are very large—doubtless quite up to your correspondent's figures—but in a much larger number of

instances very small. If the professor's branch is an unpopular one, he will not have many hearers, no matter how great his reputation. In South Germany the pay is generally less than in Prussia. PROFESSOR.

ATHENS, O., June 28, 1883.

A TRIBUNAL FOR STRIKES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR:

"There ought to be a tribunal for the decision of such controversies which seriously touch the public interest and convenience, and, the decision once rendered, general strikes in defiance or evasion of it should be punishable in some manner."

Thus the *Nation* in No. 943.

It is very hard to think of a way to make strikes punishable, unless at a cost to the principle of personal liberty against which even public convenience and interest would count for nothing; but there might be a way to put on strikes and strikers a moral responsibility they would not be able to resist. Let me risk a suggestion. Suppose the future enactment for the regulation and control of corporations acting as common carriers, under valuable franchises, to contain a clause establishing a tribunal for the decision of such controversies, as between the corporation *and the public*. Give the tribunal the power to decide, after hearing all sides, what terms the corporation ought to offer to its employees, and make the decision binding upon the corporation. Then, if the employees refuse to accept such terms, let the strike be classed as one of those cases of overwhelming necessity otherwise called "the act of God," and the corporation be freed from its obligation to the public.

The responsibility for the loss, inconvenience, and annoyance caused by the strike would then fall upon the strikers, their strongest weapon be taken from them, and their chances of success against the corporation's capital and the public's indignation combined be so small that self-interest could be safely relied on to make them speedily give up a hopeless battle.

Respectfully, M. G. ROSENTHAL.

PITTSFIELD, MASS., July 29, 1883.

THE BOARDER AND THE COTTAGER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to me that your argument in the *Nation* of July 19, on the "Evolution of the Summer Boarder," proceeds upon a fallacy. The egress of large numbers from the city every year is the remarkable fact actually underlying the displacement of the pioneer invader of rural scenes, who poses picturesquely before the readers of the *Nation* in the person of the injured boarder. The evolution of certain perfidious boarders into the baleful cottager is merely a phase of the phenomenon of this annual migration. The evolution of the summer resort is not necessarily toward cottage life. Saratoga is, quite as logically as Newport, the outcome of this evolution. Does the writer of your article consider those vast caravansaries of the former—where hundreds of families herd and indulge in a spurious sort of coöperative luxury—a sweeter, more wholesome, or truly American growth than the cottages of the latter, with their tennis courts, their well-trimmed lawns, and gay parterres? If the cottager is to be contrasted with the boarder, the contrast must be made as between the simplest seaside cottage and the primitive farm-house, or as between the villa and the caravansary. However black may be the heart of the cottager, he has one redeeming quality: his most reprehensible love for reclusion is fostering the life of the family.

Is it not, moreover, a gratuitous assumption on your part that the injured boarder is of necessity a worthier man than the baleful cottager? I have observed that the first cottager clings to primitive modes of life quite as tenaciously as the first boarder, and protests quite as ineffectually against the invasion of his solitude by newcomers. I have had certain advantages for observation in this matter, as I pass my summers at a resort which is in process of evolution; and now, O censor of the *Nation*, I can no longer defer my confession. A guilty conscience cries out, *Mea culpa, mea culpa*, and, at the risk of drawing down the phials of your wrath upon my head, compels me to the ignominious admission that I was the first cottager in this once peaceful resort. To be sure, the cottage was a modest little place, sought with the object of securing quiet and home comfort for an invalid; but, alas, alas! like the first mosquito and the first army-worm, I was the precursor of other cottagers who have fallen upon this once happy spot. It is a comfort to be able to report that the cottages are mostly simple affairs, but the wicked Mammon has here and there seized upon a beautiful bit of coast or slope of hillside, and built himself a full-blown cottage, stable, tennis court, and all the other diabolical inventions of an effete aristocracy that the rich man buys with his ill-gotten gains. Instead of following the heroic example of the boarder, who flies before the invader to discover and develop new resorts, I linger in my little cottage, and—must I make the confession?—accept the invitations of these enemies of republican simplicity to their guilty orgies when they ask me to them; when they don't, I strive to console myself with the comfortable philosophy of the *Nation*, that I am worthier than they.

Let us examine, however, this claim to superior merit which the *Nation* puts forth in behalf of boarders. The dwellers in cottages here are clergymen, lawyers, professors, authors, physicians, one or two dignitaries of Congress and the army; two, at least, public benefactors who have the direction of important boards, and who give their brains and their time without money and without price to the communities in which they live. Can the inhabitants of the farm-house or the caravansary give a better account of themselves?

The real tragedy of the boarder—namely, the wiping out of his simple and primitive life—overtakes the cottager as well. The tragedy, the phenomenal fact, is the influx of large numbers into all the secluded summer nooks, and the consequent destruction of their rural picturesque aspects. Whether it is practicable, and if practicable, advisable, to dam this vast migratory body within city limits, for the advantage of the early cottager or even the injured boarder, is at least worthy of consideration. C. P.

JULY 22, 1883.

AN ANTIQUARIAN DODGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The story from "Parnassus," in your number of June 28, about a bronze statue discovered by the sponge fishers near Delos, only shows that Mr. Meletopoulos, though a Greek, is as simple-minded as his compatriot fishermen are cunning. That same foot of a horse has been going the rounds of Athens for more than a year. It was brought to me with the same story last year, but, on examination, proved to have been severed from the body on which it had hung centuries, possibly, ago, and the coral insects and other workers of the sea had covered the fracture as well as the original surface with their certificates of antiquity. The foot was clearly *found* detached, and used as a lure to drag some unsophisticated amateur into a speculation of the subaqueous kind, which should employ the sponge fishers in question when the sponges were scarce. But the locality of the discovery varied in the different stories told about it. It is an illustration of the difficulties that menace amateur antiquity-hunting in Greece.—Yours truly, W. J. S.

FLORENCE, July 14, 1883.

Notes.

ESTES & LAURIAT, Boston, announce several important new publications: 'Ornithology of the World,' a popular treatise by Dr. Elliott Coues, fully illustrated; the same author's 'Key to North American Birds,' revised to date and entirely rewritten, with the incorporation of a practical manual of field ornithology; 'The Natural History of Man,' a popular work based on Hellwald's 'Naturgeschichte des Menschen,' which has been translated by Mr. J. S. Kingsley, and edited by him in conjunction with Messrs. W. H. Dall, F. W. Putnam, and Stephen Salisbury, jr.; 'Travels in Mexico,' by Fred. A. Ober, well equipped with drawings from the author's photographs and with maps; the first complete American edition of Carlyle's works (*de luxe*), limited to 350 copies, and illustrated with etchings, etc.; a complete edition of George Eliot's miscellaneous works, in two volumes, with introductory chapters by Matthew Browne and Mrs. S. B. Herrick; Rosenthal's Spanish (Meisterschaft) System; a new copyright library edition of Lingard's 'History of England'; and Victor Duruy's 'History of Rome and of the Roman People,' translated by M. M. Ripley and W. J. Clarke, and edited by Professor Mahaffy. This last will be issued as a subscription work, in six or seven imperial octavo volumes.

By arrangement with the London firm of Bickers & Son, Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish in this country an edition of 250 copies of the large-paper issue of Swift's works in nineteen volumes octavo.

Roorbach & Co., 9 Murray Street, have published in a neat pamphlet 'Talma on the Actor's Art,' with a preface by Henry Irving.

'On a Mexican Mustang' (Hartford: S. S. Scranton & Co.) is a very fair account of Texas, past and present, in the guise of an extravaganza after the model of the 'Innocents Abroad.' The editors of *Texas Siftings*, which has a fame and a style of its own, have described, in the character of travelling strangers, a journey from Galveston to Austin by way of the Rio Grande, introducing types of men and affairs the most of which are peculiar to that region. The volume is of Texas Texan, of great size, and with the flavor of the soil, but the really valuable history that it contains is decorated or disguised with the exaggeration that is best known in literature through Mark Twain's earlier writings. The course of the story is punctuated with sketches, of which some are new and comical, and others merely coarse or horrible, while too many are marked with a realistic but unattractive profanity. Nevertheless, many of the ultimate facts, for those who can eliminate the fictions, are interesting and instructive.

As the next step of the National Civil-Service Reform League is to repeal the law limiting the terms of certain officers to four years, a general interest will be felt in the pamphlet on this subject prepared by Mr. F. W. Whitridge at the League's request. It is called 'The Four Years' Term; or, Rotation in Office.'

Circular of Information No. 2, of the Bureau of Education, discusses co education in the public schools of the United States, with the aid of

special statistics collected by the Bureau. The weight of opinion and of practice is so much in favor of co-education that this circular might almost be called a tract on that side.

We have received a number of scientific pamphlets—viz., 'List of Palæozoic Insects of the United States and Canada,' by R. D. Lacoe (Publication No. 5 of the Wyoming, Pa., Historical and Geological Society); Bulletin No. 3 of the E. M. Museum of Geology and Archæology of Princeton College, with monographs on the skull of the eocene rhinoceros, etc., on achænodon, on the brain casts of tertiary mammals, on desmatotherium and dilophodon, by Messrs. W. B. Scott, Henry F. Osborn, and Adam T. Bruce, illustrated with lithographic plates; the Bulletin of the American Museum of Natural History in Central Park for May 1, devoted to the Atlantic right whales, with an historical résumé, by Joseph Bassett Holder; a lecture on the Geology of Philadelphia, delivered last January before the Franklin Institute by Prof. H. Carvill Lewis; and Prof. Arnold Guyot's 'Memoir of Louis Agassiz,' read five years ago before the National Academy, and now published by permission.

Readers of the *Portfolio* for June and July have enjoyed Mr. Hamerton's discourse about the Louvre and the Hôtel de Ville, the latter article particularly having the interest of describing the new structure that has risen from the ashes of the ruin made by the Commune. Its freshness and purity of material, the fact that it was executed as a whole at one time, and the improvements made upon the original design while substantially reproducing it, make the new city hall, Mr. Hamerton declares, "the fairest palace ever erected in the world." He remarks upon the ease of such an achievement by the present municipality, as compared with the difficulties experienced by the royal builders of the Tuileries, the Louvre, and the first Hôtel de Ville in completing their undertakings; an ease, he might have added, due to that very progress in good government which the Commune sought violently to interrupt.

The destruction of "the Big Tree, the largest in the Centennial State" (Colorado), by order of the mayor and seven aldermen of South Pueblo, against the wishes of the citizens expressed in public meeting, and apparently by a trick, has enriched literature with a pamphlet on this act of vandalism. The whole history of the affair is given in a speech made after the event by the Hon. Thos. D. Worrall, its most strenuous opponent. If it is some satisfaction to find so many outlandish names among the destroyers—Klaas Wildeboor (suggestive, truly!) Slitt, De Groft, Kelker, etc.—we are grieved to find one Stimpson, the postmaster, denounced as the prime author of the outrage, whom the Government is urged to remove as "unworthy the confidence of the people."

In 'Voices for the Speechless—Selections for Schools and Private Reading' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Mr. Abraham Firth, Secretary of the American Humane Association, has made a useful contribution to early education away from thoughtless or wilful cruelty. The book would have been slenderer if the compiler had strictly adhered to his plan of making selections "in which the duty of kindness to animals should be *distinctly* taught." This is not the case with Clough's "Say not the struggle naught availeth," or with Faber's "Oh! it is hard to work for God," or with the famous stanza from Tennyson's 'In Memoriam' concerning "the moth with vain desire," or with many another extract in prose and verse, though the collection is the more valuable for having them. The Scripture texts on cruelty to animals may seem to a child rather meagre for so vast a field of being, and even here Mr. Firth quotes the parable of the ewe-lamb as if the rich man's offence were not in taking it but in killing it to serve his guest. "And because HE HAD NO PITY" has no reference whatever to the lamb's sufferings, or to the question of the right to take the life of animals for what we deem necessary purposes—the "guiltless feast" of Goldsmith's Hermit.

The anti-vaccination craze has produced in Switzerland a pamphlet directed against "a despotism bordering on barbarity." On the front cover is depicted enforced vaccination by a cheerful skeleton, assisted by a policeman who restrains the mother's arm, uplifted to protect her infant in defiance of "Section 21: 2,000 francs fine, one year's imprisonment." Beneath, we see on a larger scale the hapless child aged six, shockingly reduced by ulcers. On the back cover in large letters: "Tu l'as voulu, Georges Dandin!" All rights are expressly waived in favor of any one who wants to reproduce this pleasantry.

The books that are advertised as published in France in certain libraries for amateurs and bibliophiles—which we will not more particularly name—often raise the question whether there is any supervision of the press in that country in the interest of public morality. In Germany the censorship is awake. It has lately confiscated at Berlin an edition of the 'Decameron' in the "Biblioteca dei Classici italiani e stranieri" published by Hofmann.

The duel, it is to be hoped, is going out of use. Why could not our hot-blooded Southern friends adopt, *mutatis mutandis*, the method used by two Hungarian girls in Debreczin? The duel was to be "in the American fashion"; but instead of the one to whom the black ball fell having to receive the fire of her opponent, she was, within a given time, to shear off her love-locks, known to unsentimental persons as bangs. How much better it would have been if Elam had had, say, to shave off his moustache, if he has one, or his beard, or to grow one, if he has none, than to pass a weary summer month with a ball in his thigh.

—Table XLII. of the Compendium of the Tenth Census affords a curious illustration of the workings of the human mind. This table shows the ages of the population by States and by single years of age. The population is classified, also, as aggregates, and by sex, nativity, and race. It will be noticed that in each of these classes, though in some more markedly than in others, the numbers of persons of the ages represented by even tens are apparently greatly in excess. Also in excess, though in less degree, are the ages represented by fives, while everywhere, unless affected by the fives or tens, the even numbers are in excess of the odd numbers. Thus, in the column of aggregates for the United States, there were apparently no fewer than 1,094,824 persons 30 years of age, while there were but 621,852 persons of 29 years, and 492,530 of 31 years. Similarly, at 39, 40, and 41 years the numbers of persons are respectively 458,052, 922,610, and 323,608. The apparent increase on the fives is not as great, but sufficiently so to be easily noted, thus:

Ages.	*Persons.*	*Ages.*	*Persons.*
44	379,385	64	160,033
45	645,292	65	233,231
46	374,441	66	136,543

The difference between the even and odd years, although quite constant, is less noticeable. It is, however, as remarked above, modified by the fives and tens—both by the increase in these years and by the consequent diminution in the adjoining years. The same column of aggregates for the United States furnishes the following illustrations, selected so as to be as free as possible from the effect of the fives and tens:

Ages.	*Persons.*	*Ages.*	*Persons.*
42	458,049	52	342,841
43	384,259	53	286,179
47	349,512	57	207,921
48	400,549	58	233,003

—The reason of this is of course apparent. A certain proportion of the people do not know their ages, and, necessarily, were obliged to guess at them. In such a case a multiple of ten was that most likely to be assumed; next to that a multiple of five, while, aside from the latter, even numbers were more likely to be given than odd numbers. Under this explanation of the phenomenon, it would naturally be expected that the most ignorant classes of the population would show the greatest variation in this respect, and also, naturally, those States containing the greatest proportion of these classes. The most extreme cases are to be found in the column of colored females in such a State as Mississippi, and here, too, is found the strongest possible confirmation of the correctness of the above explanation. The following figures, taken from the column of colored females in Mississippi, illustrate this idiosyncrasy in a very marked manner, and also show to how great an extent the value of the table, as a comparison of single ages, is vitiated by it:

Ages.	*Persons.*	*Ages.*	*Persons.*
29	2,353	36	2,272
30	10,619	37	1,869
31	1,236	38	2,763
32	2,380	39	1,473
33	1,805	40	9,015
34	1,806	41	703
35	7,201		

This table was probably presented in the Compendium not with the idea that it was of value with regard to single years of age, but with the intention of placing the material before the public in such shape that it could be combined in any form desired. For such a purpose these abnormal variations do not invalidate it, inasmuch as their effects extend over only two or three years, and almost any combination of the years would make them disappear.

—The *Atlantic* for August contains an interesting article by the Rev. Brooke Herford on the trustworthiness of tradition as compared with historical records. The argument in brief is as follows. The great historians who, like Grote, repudiate early oral tradition as something altogether beyond the pale of history, make the mistake of imagining the tradition of primitive times to be what it becomes after writing is invented. In the modern world tradition is regarded as untrustworthy, because everything that is considered worth remembering is written down and thus preserved, and nothing is committed to tradition except idle rumor, gossip, or scandal—and remarkably little, a cynic might add, even of this. In primitive times, however, before the invention of writing, or permanent records of any kind, the agent used by mankind to preserve facts is the memory. The trained human memory, transmitting all important facts from generation to generation, must be relied upon, or else all those matters, like dynasties, genealogies, conquests, boundaries, to which primitive man attaches so much consequence, would be involved in inextricable confusion. Among primitive people we know that this is done at the present day; the Vedic books in India, for instance, being transmitted from one generation of priests to another, solely by means of the most carefully trained memory. The Homeric poems were preserved, of course, in the same way. As civilization advances, and writing is introduced, memory is used less and less for the purpose of preserving tradition, and finally falls into great disrepute, as with us, who have an absolute distrust of it, and hesitate to rely on it even for ordinary purposes of quotation. Of course Mr. Herford's argument all

points in one direction, that the narrative of the Old Testament may be relied on with much greater safety than has been generally supposed by sceptical scholars. Probably Grote, were he alive, would admit that there is a good deal of truth in all this; but he might say, How are we to distinguish in early tradition between what is mythical and what is historical? What shall we say actually took place and what probably took place, and what probably never took place at all? After all, the modern historian has done no more than insist that true history shall be confined to what we know to have happened; and Mr Herford himself would hardly venture to call the 'Iliad' or 'Odyssey' history. The discoveries of Schliemann have, as he says, done very much to rehabilitate the Homeric poems, and to give them the air of veracious chronicles which they once had in the country of their origin; but the doings of Agamemnon and Achilles and Paris and Hector are so confused with the doings of imaginary persons who we know did not exist at all, that it would be a very bold step to call the expedition against Troy history in the ordinary sense of the word. It must be remembered that the excavations of Schliemann bring to light true historical records, precisely like the early inscriptions of the Olympiads, and we have through them a means of verifying the Homeric account which did not in Grote's day exist. He would never have dreamed of denying that anything in Homer which could be verified by such records, might be set down as history.

—The *Century* contains the first instalment of a new American novel called "The Breadwinners," by an anonymous writer, which is sure to attract a good deal of attention. The note of the opening chapters is vulgarity, and vulgarity of a description undeniably American. Vulgar types abound in the novels of both branches of our great race, which has done more than all the Latin, Germanic, or Slav races put together to give vulgarity a good standing in literature; but the American differs from the English variety in being more conscious. Vulgar characters in English fiction, at any rate, generally seem more simply amusing; the American type is apt to make us shrink a little. Perhaps, however, this may be because we are still as to literature in the patriotic stage, and cannot help hoping that each new attempt to portray the features of American life will result in a pleasing and attractive picture. The Matchin family in "The Breadwinners" is supposed to represent a class numerous in large American towns. The father is a carpenter, a good workman, sober, industrious, and socially unambitious. He has English blood in his veins, and would have been perfectly satisfied if he could have felt sure that his children would be as well off in the world as himself. The boys he would like to have succeed him in his shop; the daughters might go out to service in respectable families. The Matchin children had other dreams. One of the boys ran away from home, shipped as a cabin boy on a lake steamer, and was drowned in a storm. Another did enter the shop, but after attaining some proficiency in the craft, became in the local dialect "trifling," or, in other words, more and more unpunctual, worse and worse workman, and at length ruffianly, consorting with doubtful characters and getting an evil name. Finally, after a burglary committed by two of his friends, he disappeared, never to return. With the daughters the case was not much better. The elder married poorly at fifteen. The younger, a leading character in "The Breadwinners," was christened Matilda, but changed her name on her own account to Maud. She played about with the boys as a little girl, then was led into the cultivation of sentimentality by a playmate of her own sex, rejoicing in the name of Azalea Windom, and together this promising pair pursued the study of life as it is represented in the weekly storypapers and the "society column" of the New York newspapers. Finally, Maud becomes intoxicated with the dream of marriage; but it is not what would ordinarily be considered a romantic dream. What she longs for is to be married by a man of great wealth, who will take her away from her common family, and introduce her into that great world of which she has got her ideas from her reading. Such is the type of heroine to which this new anonymous novelist introduces us. She is taken from life—there is no doubt about that; she is at times, too, wonderfully lifelike, and the causes which lead to her existence are analyzed or suggested with considerable cleverness; but she is not likely to be a popular heroine, even with her own class of readers.

—In *Harper's* "Easy Chair" Mr. Curtis discusses a subject to which we have devoted a good deal of space, the extraordinary development of "society news." Jenkins he still likes to call the person who gives the world at large its information as to the doings of society; though our old friend Jenkins has really been supplanted by a many-headed beast who resembles him only slightly. Jenkins was a snob, but he really made an honest effort to discriminate between what was and what was not properly public matter. His successor's greatest art consists in making that public which ought to be private, in invading the homes of rich and poor, in revealing whatever those whom it primarily concerns most wish concealed, and so on. This, at least, is the charge against him. People used to deride Jenkins, and to protest against his use of adjectives; but he was always a good-natured creature, and had a profound respect for the society which he described. But his successor quite as often as not seems to have a profound contempt for society—the feeling for it which a Communist has for wealthy and prosperous people. Mr. Curtis himself perceives this, for he suggests that Jenkins is a satirist. Nobody ever made this charge against the original Jenkins. The satire of the period to which he belonged was directed against him. But his successor does indeed "mix up" the news about those who really have some social standing with the news about those who have none in a way to make him suspected of something worse than a turn for satire. There is no doubt that "society news" is doing for society what Jenkins never did for it, in the way of bringing it into general contempt, for it is producing the impression that "society" consists simply of a number of people whose names get into the papers because they pay a good deal more money for their dinners and parties than others; whose only common claim to distinction is money, and among whom anybody may be enrolled who will pay for it. The old idea of privacy and exclusiveness has been completely driven out of society, not by Jenkins, who always pretended to have a certain awe for the mysterious corporation which inherited, preserved, and handed down the social tradition of the race, but by "Society News," a low fellow, who will publish a divorce scandal, or a club row involving the name of a lady, with just the same gusto that he will give the names of the distinguished guests present at a public banquet, or the dresses worn by the ladies at a ball. There is no doubt that he is a vulgar, depraved wretch, and the strangest thing about him is that there should be such a market for his disgusting wares.

—In a literary point of view, the latest publication of the English Dialect Society is among the best. The Rev. Alfred Easther's 'Glossary of the Dialect of Almondbury and Huddersfield,' Yorkshire (Trübner & Co.), is much more than a barren list of vocables, as some of the series have been. Its introduction and its illustrations and anecdotes combine to give the physiognomy of the district with an almost biographical distinctness. One character, indeed, Joseph o' Nuppits, has a chapter to himself, besides the frequent citations of him in the glossary proper. Thus he is one of the authorities for the pronunciation of the place first mentioned in the title. "*Almondbury*, called by the polite *Aumbury*, by the genuine Yorkshireman, *Aumbury*, or, better still, *Oämbury*. The well-known beggar, Joseph o' Nuppits, . . . when he was asked for what the different villages which he was accustomed to honor with his visits were specially noted, used to reply, 'Honley for brass, Fairnley for mail (meal), *Oämbury* for *nout*.' In justice to Almondbury, it should be said he lived here in the workhouse, and our townsmen no doubt had quite enough of him, and could not afford to be generous as well as just." A few curiosities of the glossary are worth noting: "To go *atatta* is to go a-walking: a word used to children, and no doubt derived from saying 'tatta' on departing. Grown young women will also use this expression to each other, instead of saying 'agate'ards.'" "When one has accepted an engagement, and wishes to withdraw from it, he 'sends *backword*.'" Under *hoo* (she) we read: "In families, parents will speak to their children, even when grown up, addressing them in the mass in the third singular, and then as it were tossing the remark to one. Thus, a father, instead of saying to his daughter, 'Mary, iron me another handkerchief,' would express himself thus: '*She* must iron me another handkerchief—Mary.' This certainly has the effect of keeping all attentive." Under *loise* (to lose, *e. g.*, a bonnet): "When a friend of mine, some thirty years ago, became incumbent of R., he noticed Sunday after Sunday a certain style of bonnet, which, on inquiry, he found to be the same bonnet lent about among the females of the congregation, that evidently being considered the only proper headdress in which to appear at church." *Reckon*, in the sense of *think*, or *believe*, is "common," and as good Yorkshire as it is Yankee. Three other publications are announced by the Society for the present year, the eleventh of its existence, and already it has a clear prospect of filling sixteen years of usefulness, or one more than the term originally estimated.

—One of the most interesting exhibitions ever attempted, and one of the most highly appreciated, has been that illustrative of Rousseau, in Paris. We are not aware that anything quite of its kind has ever been seen before. It embraced all the obtainable effigies of this writer in every medium and in every variety of design; all the engravings inspired by his works; the caricatures of him; his manuscripts, even to the "copy" for the first edition of 'Émile,' even to the music copied by him in his sturdy independence; the wretched furniture of Ermenonville, "which would not satisfy the lowest Bohemian of to-day," says M. J. Grand-Carteret (one of the projectors of the exhibition) in the *Revue Politique* for June 14. The article is well worth reading, and when read should be cut out and inserted in M. Bachelin's centennial 'Iconographie de J.-J. Rousseau' (Paris, 1878), whose value for the collector is capable of being greatly enhanced by it. M. Grand-Carteret declares that, when we seek an authentic likeness of Rousseau, the portraits by De la Tour and Ramsay, and the busts by Houdon, are the only historic documents. De la Tour he regards as a professional flatterer, say like the English Rich-

mond of our day, and he pronounces in favor of the Ramsay portrait—whether engraved by Martin or Cortutt—although Rousseau's antipathy to it is notorious. He well says that a man is not a good judge of pictures in his own case, though in justice some account should be made of Rousseau's circumstantial complaint of the trying pose he was forced to take. However, our critic finds decided points of resemblance between Ramsay's painting and Houdon's mask and bust, and these similarities of course must outweigh individual preferences. As for the designers for the works of Rousseau, M. Grand-Carteret says the exhibition showed Moreau and Le Barbier far at the front in point of artistic imagination: the extent to which their successors have copied them is a convincing proof of their recognized superiority. The reading of this article suggests the practicability and utility of similar exhibitions, in every country, of what M. Grand-Carteret hapoily calls the "human document." Washington, Franklin, Cooper, Poe, Longfellow, might, on different scales, be illustrated, say, in Washington, Philadelphia, New York, Baltimore, and Boston respectively. We cite purposely international names, as insuring iconographic variety.

—Further particulars of the Rousseau Exhibition will be found in *Le Livre* for July, which notices its bibliographical deficiency, but praises it as the sure forerunner of similar and even periodic exhibitions devoted to Frenchmen of greatest eminence in literature, science, and art. In this same number, by the way, Dr. Guido Biagi has in his turn some remarks to make about the "human document," prefatory to a very interesting series of Bonapartiana—manuscript letters preserved in the National Library at Florence, of which he is curator. One of these letters is given in facsimile, and published for the first time. Jérôme Bonaparte, ex-King of Westphalia, is writing on April 30, 1834, to his daughter Mathilde, afterward Countess Demidoff, and refers to the little Jérôme as "Plomplon"—proof positive, as Dr. Biagi observes, that the Crimean origin commonly ascribed to this sobriquet is pure fiction. M. Achille Duvau takes his revenge on the poet Racine and his son Louis for their conspiracy to destroy the evidence of the father's ante-nuptial gallantry, by printing a lately-discovered sympathetic antistrophe to a famous dirty ditty, written (the antistrophe) in the poet's hand, with the title, "Réponse à la chanson de Mde. de Longueval, par Mr. Racine." This, too, is reproduced exactly. To many English-speaking readers of *Le Livre*, the introductory article on the Index Society will convey novel information, for Mr. Ashbee enumerates the contents of the eleven volumes published by this Society since 1879. Among these we may usefully mention the indexes of portraits in the *European Magazine*, *London Magazine*, and *Register of the Times* (vol. iv.), and in the 'British Gallery of Portraits,' Jerdan's 'Portrait Gallery,' Knight's 'Gallery of Portraits,' and Lodge's 'Portraits' (vol. v.); and the new annual index of obituary notices in the press for the year preceding.

SHELLEY'S SELECT LETTERS.

Select Letters of Percy Bysshe Shelley. Edited, with an Introduction, by Richard Garnett. D. Appleton & Co. 1883.

THE prose work of Shelley has remained in the obscurity which it once shared with his poetry. The formal essays which concern the transitory affairs of the world or themes of thought remote through their generality, are valued, even by admirers of Shelley, mainly as *media* of his spirit; the familiar letters, scattered in old books, or collected only in a costly edition, and deprived of literary effectiveness because those of high and enduring interest have never been selected and massed as they now are in this volume, have escaped any wide public attention; even the translations have been neglected. All this really large body of prose, however exalted by its informing enthusiasm, however exquisite in language and melodious, lies outside the open pathways of literature. It is this fact which gave the element of surprise to what Mr. Arnold calls his doubt "whether Shelley's delightful Essays and Letters, which deserve to be far more read than they are now, will not resist the wear and tear of time better, and finally come to stand higher, than his poetry"—a dictum which well deserves Mr. Garnett's quiet rejoinder, in his preface, that "this deliverance will be weighed by those to whose lot it may fall to determine Mr. Arnold's own place as a critic." In this same admirable preface Mr. Garnett has embodied all that need be said of Shelley as a letter-writer, and concludes that, in an age when all letters approximate to the ideal set by men of business, Shelley's alone, among those of his time, rank with Gray's, Pope's, Cowper's, or Walpole's in possessing a certain classical impress similar to that of deliberate artistic work; and, secondly, that they exhibit the mind of the poet as clearly as Marlborough's do the mind of the general or Macaulay's the mind of the man of letters. Their two prime qualities are beauty of form and transparency.

The sense of form has usually been denied to Shelley, and if by it is meant the purely critical impulse to remodel, revise, and polish for the sake of that finish which the schools prize, Shelley neither possessed it nor sought for it with any strong desire, but rather rejected it as dangerously submitting the mind to system, against which he was prejudiced. But if by the sense of form is meant the instinct for proportion, for regulated combination, for natural development of sensation into idea, idea into passion, so that the poem issues in a single harmony in the mind and heart; if, in other words, by that loose phrase is meant, not the corrective power of the critical, but the shaping power of the creative faculty working out ideal beauty directly, then both in his brief and in much of his more extended poems Shelley was singularly distinguished by it. This spontaneous beauty of form, if we may so phrase it, is the only species that is found in these letters: fitness of words, sweetness of cadence, modulation of feeling in immediate response to thought and image, all conspiring to make up perfection of utterance, are continually present, but not through erasure and elaboration. Shelley's self-training in literature, almost unrivalled as an apprenticeship in its length and continuity, more comprehensive, profound, and ardent than Pope's, more vital than Milton's, had made such literary lucidity and grace the habit of his pen, and, as Mr. Garnett remarks, he was fortunate in employing his gift upon subjects intrinsically most interesting to cultivated men: upon the art and landscape of Italy, or his own always high human relations or his poetic moods.

In what he says of statues and paintings he shows but slight knowledge of art. The keenness of his perceptions and the warmth of his feelings made him particularly open to sensuous effects, so that in general he worships the later schools. In painting especially he can hardly be considered a safe guide for others, because his praise or censure is largely dependent on his temperament for its justification: a picture which is consonant with his own imagination, and stirs it, is thereby raised and glorified, but one whose theme would have been differently developed by himself is at once made pale by contrast with the quick visions of his own vividly pictorial mind. Here is a portion of his description of a Christ Beatified:

"The countenance is heavy, as it were, with the rapture of the spirit; the lips parted, but scarcely parted, with the breath of intense but regulated passion; the eyes are calm and benignant; the whole features harmonized in majesty and sweetness."

We cannot but feel that the face which Shelley thus summons up before us, bears the same relation to the original as what the dull-minded call his plagiarisms from Lodge do to that poet's lyrics. Shelley often paints the picture over upon the outlines of the old canvas; but this transforming or penetrating power, as it will be differently named just as one believes the given picture to lack or possess what Shelley saw in it, lends such passages not only surpassing beauty, but a real value as interpretations of art. Much as Ruskin would differ from Shelley's judgments, the two are essentially similar in their mode of treatment, and in their faculty of giving the equivalent of form and color in eloquence.

The description of landscape, which is another principal topic, possesses even more plainly that classic beauty by virtue of which, we are told, the letters have been admitted to this choice series. Whether Shelley writes of Nature in her wild and picturesque scenes, or where the presence of man has added pathos or dignity to her loveliness; whether he flashes the view upon us in one perfect line, or unfolds it slowly in unconfused detail, he displays the highest power in this field of literature. This view from the forum of Pompeii, which, instead of being robed with "the gray veil of his own words," seems filled with "the purple noon's transparent light," cannot be surpassed as speech at once familiar and noble:

"At the upper end, supported on an elevated platform, stands the temple of Jupiter. Under the colonnade of its portico we sate, and pulled out our oranges, and figs, and bread, and medlars—sorry fare, you will say—and rested to eat. Here was a magnificent spectacle. Above and between the multitudinous shafts of the sun-shining columns was seen the sea, reflecting the purple noon of heaven above it, and supporting as it were on its line the dark, lofty mountains of Sorrento, of a blue inexpressibly deep, and tinged toward their summits with streaks of new-fallen snow. Between was one small green island. To the right was Capreæ, Inarime, Prochyta, and Misenum. Behind was the single summit of Vesuvius, rolling forth volumes of thick white smoke, whose foam-like column was sometimes darted into the clear dark sky, and fell in little streaks along the wind. Between Vesuvius and the nearer mountains, as through a chasm, was seen the main line of the loftiest Apennines to the east. The day was radiant and warm. Every now and then we heard subterranean thunder of Vesuvius; its distant, deep peals seemed to shake the very air and light of day, which interpenetrated our frames with the sullen and tremendous sound."

Thus he wrote when merely passive to nature's influences; but when he begins to think he irradiates the scene; he lifts it with his aspiration and softens it with his regret; he brings it near by reminiscences of the English fields and cliffs and streams; he informs it with the large interests of the intellectual life; and not infrequently he concludes with a passage which, in the arrangement of its images, the sequence of its thought and feeling, the unity of its effect, in all except metrical structure, is a poem. Many paragraphs might be cited which show the character of his genius as directly as do his verses, and which justify the claim advanced for them as having the permanent interest of ideal beauty.

The principal charm of these letters, however, as Mr. Garnett says, is not artistic, but moral. We do not mean to refer by this term to the practical morality of Shelley's deeds, or to his

conscientiousness, humanity, self-sacrifice, or other such qualities as they are here displayed; of these there is no longer need to speak. Nor do we mean simply to express the gratification one feels at finding that Shelley, unlike many men of letters who disappoint us by being only common mortals in private life, never falls below our conception of him, indicative as it is of his purity that his "unpremeditated song" does not fail to reach the height of his great argument. What impresses the reader most is rather the character of the life itself, of the mind to which "trust in all things high came natural," that moved with equal ease among the things of beauty, on the heights of thought, or amid the common and trivial cares of household life and in the offices of friendship, and knew no difference in the level of his life, so single was his nature and so completely expressed in all he did. In the most ideal passages, in those most impersonal, one does not lose the sense of friendliness in them, of the sweet human relationship which underlies the telling of what he has to say, and keeps the letters in their appropriate sphere. They are not rhapsodies, or soliloquies, or disquisitions; in other words, the visitations of the spirit that came to Shelley and left record of themselves in this beauty and eloquence and imaginative passion did not isolate him even momentarily, and could not sever him from his friends. Who these were, we know well enough: Miss Hitchener, the blue-stocking; Hogg, the betrayer; the Williamses and Gisbornes, who seem to have belonged to the class of people known as satisfying; Peacock, who, with all his nympholepsy, was a born beef-eater; Smith, the obliging; Hunt, the "wren," and Byron, the "eagle," in Shelley's nomenclature—the too fortunate people who knew Shelley and whom he loved. They formed the *locale*, if one may so speak, which needs to be kept in mind by any who would estimate Shelley's moral power; amid them he lived his high life and made it theirs, in the case of the most, during their communion with him. In a vague analogical way he sometimes brings to mind the Greek gods, who, with all their divine attributes of beauty, power, dignity, were singular among deities for their companionableness; Shelley had that divine quality of being familiar and retaining his original brightness. Toward Byron alone does he show any repulsion; he recognized Byron's admirable qualities, but he was alienated by the latter's selfishness, worldliness, and earthliness, even while he kept terms of amity. Shelley's sentence on Byron is in our judgment the most serious evidence against him, and it is now supported by much that Shelley could not have known; but it need not be discussed here.

In these and other ways which we have not space to note, this small volume presents Shelley admirably. It is especially fortunate that the letters exhibit him after his boyhood, with its false starts, its follies and prejudices, its narrowness and confusion, was passed; of that time we get only a noble echo in his sad remembrance, amid his seeming failure, of the lofty purpose with which he had entered life, while we see the depth unconfused by the tumult of his soul. In these last years, it is true, the thwarting of his practical instinct was ending in hopelessness; but if the earthly paradise that was the faith of his youth was now fading away, he was lifting his eyes to the city in the heavens, and had acknowledged the vanity of seeking the ideal he knew, except in the eternal; he had worked out his salvation. Perhaps after all we do wrong to lament his death; with that tragedy, in which this book, like every thought of Shelley, concludes, his work as a quickener of the spirit was accomplished. More finished works of art he might have given to us; he could not have left a nobler or more enkindling memory. This last of Mr. Garnett's many services to Shelley's cause will help in the still necessary labor of clearing away the misconceptions concerning him. Even Mr. Arnold's left-handed praise will lead some to read these letters, and the exquisiteness of the book will attract others; but for those familiar with Shelley's writings the mere selection will be valuable, because they will see him here only in the quiet of his soul, and will come to a better knowledge and perhaps a higher truth concerning him than is possible by reading his so changeful poems alone.

THE COMTE DE PARIS'S HISTORY OF THE CIVIL WAR.—II.

History of the Civil War in America. By the Comte de Paris. Published by special arrangement with the author. Vol. iii. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

THE contents of this book as far as the close of the Mississippi operations have already been noticed in a previous article. Following these there is a long and interesting chapter, under the title of "Legislation," on the political and financial condition of the country in 1863, and then we come to the Gettysburg campaign, which occupies more than three hundred pages, or about one-third of the entire volume. We think this will be found altogether the most lucid and satisfactory account of Gettysburg that has ever been written. After the battle of Chancellorsville "public opinion in the South, excited almost to frenzy by success, demanded that the seat of war should be transferred to the soil of the free States."

"'If the General wants provisions, let him go and look for them in Pennsylvania,' the Chief of the Bureau of Subsistence is reported to have said, in reply to a demand for rations addressed to that department by General Lee. In a purely military point of view this step was perhaps imprudent; but in the situation of the two adversaries, policy, being for once in perfect accord with the popular sentiment, counselled the attempt. On the 3d of June, 1863, Lee put his army in motion. The future of America was about to be decided for ever."

As soon as Lee's movement was discovered, "Hooker, with that unerring judgment for which, unfortunately, he was more distinguished in the council than on the battle field, appreciated all the benefit that could be derived from the movement of his adversary. Why not march directly upon the capital of the enemy?" In such a counter-move the Comte de Paris thinks that all the advantages would have been on the side of the North, but the bare suggestion was enough to appall the authorities at Washington, and they gave Hooker the most positive orders to protect Washington by following Lee, "as if the movement against Hill [Lee's rear guard] was not the best way to strike at the weak point of this army and to thwart all the projects of its chief." Lee, on the other hand, "being under no obligation to discuss the plan of campaign with his Government, and exercising absolute authority over the various bodies of troops which had to coöperate in its execution, pursued it with his wonted zeal. The invasion of the Northern States being his object, he had selected from the very outset the way he intended to follow, from which he did not deviate until he had reached the banks of the Susquehanna."

The main features of this campaign are as familiar as household words, but the story is here unfolded with such remarkable clearness that the temptation is great to make extracts beyond all reasonable limits of space. Every one knows that Hooker formed an admirable plan of striking at Lee's rear just after he had crossed the Potomac, and that he asked to be relieved from the command when Halleck refused to give him control of the garrison of Harper's Ferry—although immediately afterward Halleck gave it to Meade without reserve. As soon as Meade was put in command on June 28, he immediately turned his columns northward, and, by a train of accidents, three days later the two armies came in contact at Gettysburg. General Buford, in command of a division of cavalry, had reached there on the evening of the 30th, and had a slight skirmish with the advance-guard of Hill's corps.

"The unfailing indications to an officer of so much experience revealed to Buford the approach of the enemy. Knowing that Reynolds was within supporting distance of him, he boldly resolved to risk everything in order to allow the latter time to reach Gettysburg in advance of the Confederate army. This first inspiration of a cavalry officer and a true soldier decided in every respect the fate of the campaign. It was Buford who selected the battle-field where the two armies were to measure their strength."

The battle of July 1 is here called "Oak Hill," which, like Dowdall's Tavern at Chancellorsville, is a change of name, not inaccurate, but conveying less meaning than the more generally accepted name of Seminary Ridge—if, indeed, it is necessary to change the name at all from the "first day of Gettysburg." The sanguinary struggle of that day, in which the First Corps lost nearly two-thirds of its force, the successive arrivals of Reynolds, Howard, and Hancock; the critical condition of affairs in the afternoon, when "the Eleventh Corps, already so unfortunate at Chancellorsville, was once more completely routed," and, with what was left of the First Corps, forced back to Cemetery Hill, and when the Confederates, for some unexplained reason, stopped their pursuit just as a decisive victory seemed to be within their reach—all the scenes of this exciting day are most vividly portrayed.

"Lee had not in the heart of Pennsylvania the same freedom of movement as in Virginia. He had to think of his communications and a possible retreat. . . . It has been said, and very justly, we think, that if Jackson had been alive and in command of his army corps on the 1st of July, he would not on that day have left Cemetery Hill in the hands of the Federals. . . . Ewell did not exercise the same influence over his lieutenants as Jackson did, and on this occasion was poorly served by some of them."

On the next day the Federal army was all in position. Lee discarded the plan of attempting to outflank Meade's left, and thus manœuvre him out of the position at Gettysburg, as Longstreet suggested—a dangerous plan, in the author's opinion—and decided to attack him where he was. Longstreet, on the right, was to make the main attack, which was to be seconded by Ewell on the left as soon as the latter heard the sound of the guns. But the fatality of ill-success which followed Lee throughout the battle at once made itself evident. Not only did Lee, "by a train of errors intimately connected with each other, deploy his army upon a more extended front than that of Meade, without concentrating anywhere the necessary force for breaking up the enemy's line," but Longstreet, who disapproved the plan of battle, was very tardy in executing his part of it, so that it was late in the afternoon before he began his onslaught upon Sickles's corps. Late as it was, however, there was yet time for a most sanguinary conflict, which seemed about to be fatal to Meade when Warren's prompt action saved Little Round Top. As night was putting an end to the battle on the Federal left, another most vigorous attack was made upon the extreme right, which Meade had stripped to reinforce his left, and this again was followed by a fresh assault on Cemetery Hill. "But again the Southern generals cannot execute their move-

ments with that collective energy indispensable to success." Both attacks failed. Lee had committed many errors: first—as here enumerated—in giving too great a development to his line; second, in delaying Longstreet's attack too long; third, in bringing less than half of his army into action. Yet, "if the Confederates have not penetrated into the really defensive positions of the enemy, they have been so near proving successful that Lee cannot be blamed for having assumed the offensive on that day. In fact, the situation of Meade at the close of the battle is alarming, in spite of the advantages he has obtained." During the night, therefore, Meade called a council of war, and propounded to his corps commanders the question of remaining in position or retreating. They were unanimously in favor of remaining to await another attack of the enemy rather than assume the offensive. Meade coincided with them.

In the opinion of the author, on the 3d of July Lee should have concentrated his whole army on the right for a decisive attack on Round Top.

"It appears that Lee had at first adopted this plan, but . . . he decided simply to resume the movement he had performed the day before. A fatal and inexplicable resolution! He thus persisted in adhering to the tactics of a double attack by way of two wings, without thinking that the more ground they gained the easier it would be for Meade to lead his forces from one wing to the other in order to repulse them successively. The instructions he gave to his lieutenants were, moreover, so vague that he seemed to leave to each commander the task of fighting a separate battle, according to his own fancy."

The result was a renewed assault on the Federal right during the morning, which was wholly unsuccessful, and then the artillery duel and final grand charge of the afternoon. Concerning this the author says that, as late as noon, Lee "does not appear to have come to any positive decision. . . . After having designated since morning Pickett and his gallant Virginians to sustain the principal charge, he has not yet selected the troops that are to support him, nor settled the order in which the rest of the army is to take part in the combat." In fact, throughout this battle Lee seems never to have had his men well in hand, or to have exercised a direct control over their actions. As it was the only offensive battle he ever fought after Jackson's death, there is reason to believe that Lee, in spite of his remarkable abilities, was lacking in some of the essential qualities of a great commander; for no one can lay claim to the highest order of generalship who succeeds only in defensive battles. At last everything is ready—though Longstreet still disapproves of the plan, and "is cruelly tried between his own convictions and the orders of his chief"—the immortal assault is made, and fails. High-water mark of the Rebellion is reached, and the wave recedes. Pickett's "division does not fall back; it is annihilated," and "the conflict is at an end." Of all the numberless accounts which have been written of this third day's battle, we believe that none can be found to surpass the one here given, either in brilliancy of picture or accuracy of statement.

After the repulse, the Confederates expected, it is stated, "to see the enemy advance with troops elated by victory." In the author's judgment, an assault across the same ground that Pickett had advanced over would have been disastrous, but if Meade had massed a large force on his extreme left in front of Round Top, and attacked vigorously with it, it would have been successful. But "nothing had been prearranged for the offensive," and both Meade and all his commanders were content to let well alone: "The invasion is repulsed; by attempting any further effort everything might be compromised." Lee, therefore, was allowed this night and all of the next day to make his arrangements for a retreat, and on the morning of the 5th his army had begun its homeward march. We have not the space to give the pathetic picture which the author draws of Lee's thoughts on the evening of the third day, nor to make more than a short reference to his excellent criticism on the battle. He shows that the principal causes of Lee's defeat were the absence of Stuart's cavalry, in consequence of which the battle was brought about by chance, in an unknown position; the too great extension of Lee's line, and the lack of control over his subordinates. On the other hand, the Army of the Potomac "conquered at Gettysburg because chance afforded it strong positions, which Buford and Reynolds preserved for it, and which Meade turned to excellent account. . . . He was not indebted for this victory either to the inspirations of his genius or to the possession of extraordinary qualities," but he made the most of his troops, and gained the devoted support of his subordinates. He should, however, have gone to Gettysburg himself the first day, instead of sending Hancock; he should have concentrated his army more speedily, given more specific orders to Sickles, not taken so many troops from his right on the 2d, made more ample preparation to receive Pickett, and finally made his victory decisive by a vigorous counter-attack against Lee's extreme right on the evening of the third day. It is probable that the calm judgment of history will sustain the author in all of these criticisms.

The book is concluded by the account of Lee's retreat from Gettysburg to the Rapidan, and the subsequent manœuvres of the autumn, first to Bristoe Station and afterward on Mine Run. The pursuit of Lee by Meade, after the battle of Gettysburg, is characterized as being extremely feeble, and, although General Humphreys has lately written in defence of his former chief on this question, the argument of the Comte de Paris is much the more full and conclusive. Everything showed that "Meade did not intend to have a new encounter with his adversary north of the Potomac. . . . Moreover, he had not that confidence in himself indispensable to a chief about to assume great responsibilities." Called to the command of a great army without warning, at the most critical point of its career, and forced to fight a decisive battle but a few days afterward, the impressions of those days must have been fixed indelibly upon Meade's mind; and the most forcible of them all was the observation that Lee made the assault and was repulsed. The following analysis is therefore doubtless very near to the truth:

"The recollection of the check experienced by the Confederates in their ineffectual assaults upon the Unionist positions will haunt the mind of Meade as long as he finds himself alone confronting Lee. He will think of nothing but obliging Lee to renew those assaults; he will constantly avoid assuming the offensive when he finds Lee posted in his front; and, as the Southern General is above all anxious to be sparing of his troops, battles will be followed by manœuvres. The Army of the Potomac, which, since its arrival at Fort Monroe, has fought eleven pitched battles in sixteen months, is now going to remain ten months without renewing those great contests."

It only remains to say, in conclusion, that the translation of this volume is excellent; it is very spirited, and, although sufficiently literal to show the French idiom at times, yet the sense is never obscure. The language is always fluent and at times eloquent and brilliant. It is in every respect a great improvement on the translations of the preceding volumes. It is also very well edited by Colonel John P. Nicholson, who has supplied several omissions and corrected not a few errors, one or two of which are of considerable importance.

JAMES CLERK MAXWELL.

The Life of James Clerk Maxwell, with a Selection from his Correspondence and Occasional Writings, and a Sketch of his Contributions to Science. By Lewis Campbell, M.A., LL.D., Professor of Greek in the University of St. Andrews, and William Garnett, M.A., late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge; Professor of Natural Philosophy in University College, Nottingham. With three steel portraits, colored plates, etc. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882. 8vo, pp. xvi.–662.

James Clerk Maxwell was born in Edinburgh on the 13th of June, 1831, and died in Cambridge, England, on the 5th of November, 1879, while holding the chair of Experimental Physics and directing the magnificently equipped Cavendish Laboratory, founded by the Duke of Devonshire. This account of his life is divided into three parts. The first part (463 pp.), the biography in the strict sense, is by Professor Campbell, though, as he tells us in his preface, much from the pen of Professor Garnett is indistinguishably interwoven with his own composition. The second part (111 pp.), wholly by Professor Garnett, is a sketch of Maxwell's contributions to science. It is very able. The third part (75 pp.) is a selection of Maxwell's poems, or rather verses. He made no claim to poetical genius, but was a facile and generally correct versifier. A very good index completes the work, which has still one great defect that must not pass unnoticed: it should have contained a catalogue of all Maxwell's published writings. Most of these are mentioned incidentally, but such mention by no means supplies the place of a regular consecutive bibliography.

Maxwell's reputation in the scientific world rests chiefly upon his contributions to electrical science and his speculations in "Molecular Physics." Of the substance of his labors in these departments our limited space does not permit us to speak; but if we inquire what were the qualities of the man which enabled him to accomplish so much, we think the most important moment will be found in an almost unique union of certain mental and physical powers. It may afford some gratification to phrenologists to be informed that, as indicated by the portrait of him given in the work, the development of the organs to which they apply the names "form," "color," "weight," "size," etc., can hardly be characterized by any other epithet than "enormous." The physical organization through which these mental powers operated was wonderfully fine. Although Maxwell was somewhat short-sighted, yet this perhaps only increased his power of minute observation of objects when once brought within the range of his vision. He had a fine musical ear. His hands were models of symmetry and beauty, and, in his command over them, perhaps no man ever surpassed him.

Maxwell also presents one of the most remarkable examples on record of the influence of heredity. For more than 200 years nearly every generation of the Clerk family had had its representatives at the bar, on the bench, in the East India Company's service, in various high Government offices. Its members were even more remarkable for their excellence in what are usually regarded as accomplishments. Proficiency in music, in drawing, in painting, in works which require quickness of perception and delicacy of touch, seems to have passed down without a break from generation to generation. They were preëminently persons who could "do

things." This tendency to keep in constant relation with material things was most markedly developed in Maxwell's father. Although he had had a university education, and was a lawyer by profession, a machine was always more interesting to him than a brief, and the courts were far less attractive than the meetings of the Royal Society and the Society of Arts. By a rare coincidence, Maxwell's mother (*née* Frances Cay) belonged to a family of very similar characteristics. Many of the Cays, though not professional mathematicians, were remarkable for their expertness in calculation. Mrs. Cay, Maxwell's maternal grandmother, painted with a skill far beyond the average of amateurs. His mother was a woman of great executive ability, prompt, courageous, self-reliant. She played the organ well, and was noted for her skill in knitting, which, as then practised, was an elaborate and complicated art, and regarded as a great accomplishment. Both the Clerks and the Cays were orthodox, and somewhat strict in their religious views, and their moral character was unsullied.

With all these excellent qualities, Maxwell also inherited a fortune which, though not large, placed him above all the petty annoyances and anxieties of the man who is compelled to earn his bread, and all hindrances, arising from want of means, to his scientific development. Had his fortune been much smaller, that development would have been checked by the necessity of devoting a larger portion of his time to earning a living. Had it been much larger, the same effect would have been produced, perhaps, by the temptations, more probably by the responsibilities, of wealth.

The course of Maxwell's education was, on the whole, singularly fortunate. He was less than three years old when his father abandoned the law and removed from his Edinburgh residence to his estate of Middlebie. The estate had been much neglected, and there was no house upon it fit for the permanent residence of the laird. Mr. Maxwell and his family went into temporary quarters, and he immediately commenced laying out grounds and erecting a mansion and outbuildings according to plans made by himself. He was his own landscape gardener, architect, and builder. The construction of the "great house" was to James a source of continual delight. Not a lock was set, not a bell was hung, but he was ready with the importunate demand, "Show me how it does," or "What's 'the go' o' that?" No vague or general answer satisfied him; "but," he would persist, "what's the 'particular go' o' it?" Although he lost his mother in his ninth year, yet, so far as possible, this loss was made good. When, a little more than a year afterward, he entered the Edinburgh Academy, he went to reside with his paternal aunt, Mrs. Wedderburn, the widow of James Wedderburn, at one time Solicitor-General of Scotland. She was a woman of great beauty and accomplishments, and regarded as an ornament of Edinburgh society at a time when, in culture and refinement, it was not surpassed by the society of any capital in Europe. When not with Mrs. Wedderburn, he resided with his maternal aunt, Miss Jane Cay, also an accomplished lady especially in drawing and Berlin-wool work. Drawing patterns for his aunt, and assorting and matching colors for her work, cultivated that sense of form which made him the first geometrician of his class, and that fine appreciation of color which he afterward showed in his optical researches, particularly on the subject of "color-blindness." In the Academy his teachers were above the average; in the University of Edinburgh his teacher in logic and metaphysics was Sir William Hamilton. It was, no doubt, a fortunate circumstance that a mind so preëminently mathematical as Maxwell's was brought in daily contact with the mind of a man who showed such a cordial hatred and such a dense ignorance of all mathematical science. At Cambridge, Maxwell's tutor in mathematics was William Hopkins, a man who, as a teacher of mathematics, occupied much the same position that Karl Czerny did as a teacher of the pianoforte. For many years the number of his pupils was limited only by his powers of endurance and his unwavering determination to maintain his reputation as the greatest "coach" in England.

Not only in his teachers, but also in his friends, Maxwell was equally fortunate. Sir William Thomson, Tait, Tyndall, Faraday, and a host of other distinguished men, were ever ready to encourage and assist him, and his intercourse with them, either personal or by epistolary correspondence, was active and constant.

A noticeable trait was his sympathy with all living things. In his early childhood he had a "horror" for nothing that had life. When only three or four years old frogs were his especial favorites. He would take a young frog, put him in his mouth, and let him jump out again. No Buddhist ever refrained more carefully from harming anything living. This love of animals seemed to be reciprocated by them. His skill in training dogs was something marvellous. When he went to the Cavendish Laboratory, he was always accompanied by one, often by two or three, and they often afforded him substantial assistance in his electrical and optical researches. He was a bold and skilful horseman. His favorite saddle-horse was a high-spirited animal, which he himself had broken in after several others had pronounced him incorrigible. His wife was a fine rider, and her horse had also been broken in by Maxwell with a side-saddle and a piece of carpet to represent a lady's habit. Indeed, in almost every kind of exercise which requires perfect command of the limbs Maxwell excelled. He went through a Scotch reel with the skill of a dancing-master, and his expertness in swimming called forth the admiration of his fellow-students at the university. The most casual reader of his biography cannot fail to be impressed with the endless variety of his acquirements. It is doubtful whether any clergyman in Scotland could repeat so much of the Bible by heart, and few clergymen had so extensive an acquaintance with the works of the celebrated English divines. His knowledge of English literature, especially of English poetry, was very minute and very accurate. He read with ease many different languages, and was thus able, in his scientific researches, to go always to the fountain-head. With all these acquirements and accomplishments, Maxwell was singularly free from any tinge of self-conceit. In general society he was reserved, almost shy, but in a circle of friends he was the wittiest, the gayest, the most genial of companions.

Maxwell died of the same disease, and within a few months of the same age, as his mother. In the case of a man in whom hereditary tendencies were so strongly manifested, the obvious inference would be that, with so many excellences, he had also inherited the fatal drop which poisoned the whole cup. But, from a careful examination of the facts, we are satisfied this inference would be only partially true. It is quite probable that the particular form of disease in which the decay of his vitality manifested itself was determined by an hereditary tendency. But we think that, had he lived somewhat differently, he would have filled out his seventy years, and have accomplished far more than he actually did. The truth is, the man was worn out before his time. He was continually spurred on by the demon of restless, unceasing activity. His "particular go" was to go at the top of his speed. Had he gone slower, he would have gone further. Had he done less, he would have done more. There was little distinction between his work and his play. Whether investigating Saturn's rings or examining his dog's eyes, integrating functions or spinning tops, he did it as we are commanded to love the Lord: with all his heart, and soul, and strength, and mind. He always had a great number of irons in the fire. At Cambridge, at Aberdeen, in London, in addition to his college duties, he lectured regularly to workingmen. If the solution of a problem and a night's rest contended for the possession of the small hours of the morning, the problem was pretty sure to win. If a friend or one of his family was sick, he was always ready to watch by the bedside with all the skill and more than the faithfulness of a professional nurse. When we turn over the pages of his biography, and reflect on the extent and variety of his correspondence, on his labors as teacher, lecturer, examiner, contributor to scientific journals, experimenter, and his other multifarious occupations, and recollect that his constitution was naturally not strong, we wonder, not that he died at forty-eight, but that he lived beyond thirty-eight.

We would gladly have said something of Maxwell's domestic life, of his charming wife, of his religious opinions, and many other matters, for all which we must refer our readers to this most interesting book.

George Sand. By Bertha Thomas. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers.

MISS THOMAS has achieved a rare and positive success in carrying out the plan she proposed to herself, "a careful review of those facts in the life of George Sand which most justly represent her character as a whole, and which were the determining influences on her career and on her work." It is difficult to see how it could have been better done within the limits prescribed by this series. To a rapid and concise account of outward events and material circumstances are added clear and attractive sketches of the books which best lend themselves to such a résumé, and which are most important as illustrations. Some of these last are especially happy—the few lines devoted to 'Horace,' or the statement of the real substance of 'Elle et Lui,' so universally overlooked in the personal discussions about the book:

"A study of the attraction that so often leads two exceptional but hopelessly irreconcilable spirits to seek in each other a refuge from the isolation in which their superiority places them. . . . Thérèse is a faithful picture of a woman not quite up to the level of her own principles, which are so high that any lapse from them on her part brings down more disasters on herself and on others than the misdemeanors of avowedly unscrupulous persons."

Miss Thomas writes with a noble enthusiasm for her subject, but with a temperance and discrimination which enforce the justice of her views, and which would make even an opponent admit her statement as a fair one for her side of disputed questions. She is not blind to defects nor lenient to faults, but she is steady in the determination not to reopen scandals, not to revive gossip.

"Her moral worth so infinitely outweighed the alloy, as to leave but little call, or even warrant, for dwelling on the latter. . . . She was apt—she has herself thus expressed it—to see people through a prism of enthusiasm, and afterward to recover her lucidity of judgment. Great, no doubt, was her power of self-illusion; it betrayed her into errors that have been unsparingly judged. For her power of calm and complete disillusion, she was perhaps unique among women, and it is no wonder if mankind have found it hard to forgive."

It would be a fortunate thing if this book should serve as an introduction for the younger generation to treasures of imagination and feeling which have been obscured in the almost lurid light of later French fiction The author has well brought out the two predominant qualities of heart and mind which, all other things apart, may make Mme. Dudevant the great example to the members of her own sex, be they with genius or without: her unwavering affection for quiet home life and for her children, and her unfailing power for constant work. The 'Histoire de ma Vie' is beautifully sketched at length:

"There is no reader whose own recollections of childhood have not grown faint, but will feel the profound truth of the spirit of the narrative, which is of that kind that occasional exaggerations in the letter cannot depreciate in value as a psychological history."

"Her composition is like a gossamer-web, that must be shown in its entirety, as to slip it up is to destroy it."

"That incomparable style of hers is like some magic fairy-ring that bears the wearer, safe and victorious, through manifold perils—perils these of prolixity, exaggeration, and disdain of careful construction."

"Because these romances express and enforce with earnestness, sincerity, and fire the sentiments of a poetic soul, a generous heart, and an immense intelligence, on subjects of consequence to humanity, they have a higher value than can attach to skilful development of plot and intrigue, mere display of literary cleverness, or of the storings of minute observation."

The printing and the proof-reading of the b[illegible] have been most imperfect, with the effect, we are sorry to see, of some undeserved criticisms upon the author's style. The addition by the American publishers of an essay from the *Galaxy* by Justin McCarthy is an inexplicable mistake. It is in a totally different key, loud and harsh, a jarring discord in the grave, sweet tones of the rest of the book. Philosophic criticism Miss Thomas modestly did not attempt, but nothing of it is to be found in the contradictory extravagance, in praise and blame alike, of Mr. McCarthy. The judgment that can pronounce without qualification, "Life and society receive no impulse and no direction from the influences out of which the novels of Dickens, or even of Thackeray, are made up," is scarcely trustworthy upon any point. Had any further appreciation been necessary, it should have been taken from the pages of Sainte-Beuve or Scherer. There is a review of George Sand's life and works, written by Zola at the time of her death, which has not had the attention it deserves in this country, both as the verdict of a leader in the school so opposite to her own, and as a heartfelt tribute to a great intellect and a great heart. It is further remarkable for the likeness of the general impression it conveys to that given by so different a person as Matthew Arnold in his recollections of a visit to her at Nohant.

Outlines of the Constitutional History of the United States. By Luther Henry Porter. Henry Holt & Co. 1883. 12mo, pp. 311.

THE first part of Mr. Porter's 'Constitutional History' is so good that it is a real disappointment not to find the rest of the book equally good. Sixty-nine pages are devoted to the period before the formation of the Constitution, and in these pages we find no less than seven important documents given in full—the charters of Virginia, Maryland, and Connecticut (illustrating the three types of colonial government); the Declaration of Rights of 1775; the Declaration of Independence; the Articles of Confederation, and the Ordinance of 1787. This affords sufficient material for the study of institutions during this time, and material which is on the whole as well selected as could be desired. The remarks also which accompany them are good. After this date the documents cease, with the exception of the Constatution, the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions, and those of the Hartford Convention, and the student is *told* things, instead of being led to study them at first hand. This is a pity, because a first glance at the book led us to expect something radically different from the old type of school book. However, even as it stands, a text-book that contains eleven of the most important and instructive documents in American constitutional history, deserves a hearty welcome.

Examining the details, we find that ample room could have been found for the desired material by a more judicious arrangement. The entire text of the Constitution is given twice—once as a whole and once by clauses; and in many cases the commentary which accompanies the several clauses hardly does more than repeat the substance of the clause in an amplified [illegible]. This is worse than useless for purposes of instruction. The pupil should be encouraged to make his own commentary from the personal study of the text, and the editor's work should have been to give such special interpretation, acts of legislation, and historical illustration, as cannot be deduced from the mere text. But we are not told, for example, of the rule prescribed by Congress for the election of Senators, nor (upon the article guaranteeing a republican form of government) of the important controversy in regard to the bearing of the article upon the question of reconstruction. Instead of such weighty matter as this, we have pages of rather thin commentary, and, for instance, on page 101, a tabulated statement of the number of members assigned provisionally to each State—information which has been given twice before.

As the book draws near its close, its inadequacy is more and more striking. There is no mention of the controversy upon the Missouri Compromise line in 1850, so that its repeal in 1854 is deprived of that justification which, in the eyes of its supporters, it certainly had. The questions of the war and reconstruction are hardly touched upon—perhaps on the ground that they are too near to be treated impartially; but the Northern sympathies are throughout so pronounced that this cannot be a valid reason. We find on page 276 the surprising statement: "The Democratic party has remained almost intact in name and form from 1789 to the present. It is the party of conservatism. The Federal, Whig, Abolition, or Republican party has continually changed in name and form. It is the party of liberalism, of ideas." In the useful table upon page 35 it is erroneously stated that the Governor of Massachusetts was elected by the people at the period before the Revolution. On page 97 it is said that in England representatives of the people "were first regularly assembled about the twelfth century." There is an index, and an appendix containing a good deal of useful statistical matter in a very convenient form.

Stories from English History. By Louise Creighton. Thomas Whittaker.

THIS little book is designed to enlarge the information given in child's histories. It consists of fifty four well-chosen episodes narrated in a generally interesting manner, and occasionally illustrated by woodcuts, as the "Family of Sir Thomas More," after Holbein, and various designs from old prints, frescoes, monuments, etc. Battles, sieges, political executions, and stirring adventures have been preferred to incidents in the progress of peaceful civilization; a solitary exception (if we omit the voyages of discovery) being the chapter devoted to the Stephensons. The Pilgrim Fathers and the Boston tea riots, which serve to define the limits of the American connection, are judged from the American point of view. India is the only other British possession which furnishes a topic; the book ends with the siege of Lucknow. Dates stand at the head of each story, and had the reigns and sovereigns in the intervals been added in a few lines, this collection would both have had a certain independence of the primary histories, and have been better calculated to make an orderly impression on the young reader's mind.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. F., jr. A College Fetich. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Annuaire Diplomatique et Consulaire des Etats des Deux Mondes. 1883. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Ashley, W. J. James and Philip Van Artevelde. Macmillan & Co.
Auerbach, D. Master Bieland and his Workmen. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Baxter, W. E. Winter in India. Funk & Wagnalls. 15 cents.
Bunce, O. B. Bachelor Bluff: His Opinions, Sentiments, and Disputations. New ed. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cts.
Burnett, Mrs. F. H. Vagabondia. Ganter, and Other Novelettes. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.
Chadwick, Rev. Geo. A. My Emotional Life. Cassell & Co. 40 cents.
Collections of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. Vol. ix. Madison, Wis.
Dean, Prof. A. The British Constitution. Chicago: Townsend MacCoun & Co. $1.
De Foe, D. Robinson Crusoe, edited for school use by W. H. Lambert. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Dumanoir et Lafargue. Le Gentilhomme Pauvre. [Théâtre Contemporain.] William R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 9, 1883.

The Week.

THE most prominent features of the industrial situation are still the same as they have been for several months, viz.: over-production and consequent declining prices, resulting in an increase of business failures. During the past week the failures have been in the leather trade, which had heretofore escaped the general liquidation and readjustment of credits which had already been experienced in the iron and cotton trades. The greatest, in fact the only great element of danger in the general commercial situation at any time, is the excessive expansion of credit, based upon the presumed value of commodities for which there is no market at the presumed price. The failures in the past year, but more particularly in the last month or two, have removed this element of danger from the general business situation, and have compelled a contraction of the lines of credit in nearly all businesses. The only element of disquietude remaining is the dissatisfaction of labor; but the general decline in the prices of all labor products will necessarily cause a proportionate reduction in wages. The money market continues overburdened with unemployed money, which is offered for loan on collateral security at rates extraordinarily low. The situation as regards capital is very much as it was a year after the panic of 1873, the result of which, at least, was a great advance in the prices of all undoubted securities. The apprehensions of interference with the general railroad traffic of the country as a result of the telegraphers' strike have had a depressing effect upon prices of stocks during the last week; the fall ranging from ½ to 4 per cent., the latter on Wabash. One of the prominent and abnormal features of the financial situation continues to be the higher rates of interest for money in London than in New York. The balance of trade is acknowledged to be largely in favor of the United States, and yet the difference in the rates for money prevents the movement of gold to this country, and sustains the rates for sterling exchange.

The first general election in Utah, under the new Edmunds law, was held on Monday, and the result is not encouraging. This will not be a surprise, as few persons who have studied the provisions of the law closely and have watched its preliminary working in the Territory, have had much faith in its efficacy as a destroyer of the Mormon system. The election of Monday was for members of the Legislature, Sheriffs, Probate Judge, and other local officers, who were to fill the places made vacant by the law. The provisions of the law deprive polygamists of both sexes of the right to vote or to hold office, but Mormons who are not polygamists are permitted to exercise both rights. A registration of voters in accordance with these provisions was made by the Commissioners, proceeding under the act, and candidates were nominated for the vacated offices. While the polygamists were thus deprived of actual participation in the election, it seems to be clear that they exercised supreme control over the nominations, and allowed no men to be selected who could not be depended upon to be completely subservient to the Mormon Church. Not only were mere "dummies" selected for the Legislature, but in many instances persons so notoriously incompetent were selected for the other offices that the obvious intent was that they should never enter upon their duties after election, but should allow the offices to revert to their present holders through the refusal of the officers-elect to qualify. So general was the belief among the Gentiles that the election of such candidates as these was a mere farce, that few of them took the trouble to go to the polls. The Mormons voted solidly for the new officials, and the result is therefore a complete Mormon triumph. The candidates all passed for approval before the authorities of the Mormon Church before they were allowed to stand. They owe their nomination, therefore, to the grace of the Church, and they owe their election entirely to Mormon votes. This makes their servitude complete, and the Church will rule Utah as despotically as it did before the law was passed. With the canvass of this year's election the powers of the Commission end. It can decide upon the certificates of the members of this Legislature, but when once they are admitted to their seats they become the lawmakers for the Territory.

The Minnesota Democrats decline to accept the view of their Pennsylvania and Ohio associates, that the tariff is a philanthropic agency for the amelioration of the woes of mankind, and put themselves on record as being still in favor of the old but distrusted plank of "tariff for revenue only." Next to the Iowa free-trade flyer, this is the boldest Democratic utterance of the season, and may be due partially to the fact that Minnesota, like Iowa, is a Republican State. There is slight disposition manifested in other States to adhere to the old formula in its pristine entirety, though individual efforts have been made to prune it into harmlessness. General Butler created a slight ripple of enthusiasm some time ago by discovering that "tariff only for revenue" was a much safer battle-cry than "tariff for revenue only"; but the enthusiasm subsided when some contemplative person begged leave to ask wherein the difference lay. A later emendation has been the striking out of the word "only," and there are several statesmen who think that this change is all that will be required to carry the party to victory next year. While the party is not harmonious, therefore, these profound and searching suggestions show that the subject is receiving the most thoughtful consideration.

The *Sun*, a day or two ago, by way of objection to the plan of a postal telegraph as a remedy for telegraphers' strikes, asked what was to prevent Government telegraphers from striking, any more than Western Union telegraphers. There is nothing to make such a strike impossible, but there are several things which would make it very unlikely. One is the passion for the Government service which pervades a large part of the salaried class throughout the country—in fact, one may say, all that part of it which does not expect to get out of the salaried state. This class was very eager to get into the Government service when it was most precarious. Now that there is likely to be a fair degree of security in it against arbitrary dismissal, they will probably be more eager than ever, and will avoid, when in, doing anything to put their places in peril. Another is that there would be no use in striking for an increase of wages in the Government service, because wages in that service are fixed, not by a board of directors or a superintendent, but by law. The chief officer of a postal telegraph, therefore, could not raise wages. He would be tied down either by a fixed schedule or by the amount of his appropriation. Employees who wanted their salaries raised would, accordingly, have to proceed, not by strikes and general public disturbance, but by agitation, by appeals to public opinion and petitions to Congress, which could hardly, if reasonable, fail of success, because the United States Treasury, unlike that of corporations, is not bound to provide dividends for stockholders, and is always full to overflowing. In fact, a strike against the United States would be so ridiculous that no "Brotherhood" would ever attempt it.

The gradual change for the better in Southern sentiment toward the negro was demonstrated in a notable manner by the action of a recent Episcopal Convention at Sewanee, Tenn. Delegates were present from thirteen Southern States, comprising bishops, ministers, and laymen. It was resolved, apparently without opposition, to memorialize the General Convention of the Church, which meets in the fall, in favor of establishing schools for the education of colored men who desire to enter the ministry, and of granting to all colored ministers of the church equal rights and powers in all church councils. Only about a year ago the mere proposal to send a fraternal message of greeting from the Methodist Church South, assembled in Convention at Atlanta, to the Methodist Church North, also in convention in a Northern city, excited in the former body a discussion which continued for several days, and in which violent opposition was developed on the ground that such a message would be a confession that the Southern Church had been wrong in upholding slavery and supporting secession. The proposal was finally carried and the message was sent. That victory was regarded as an important advance. The Episcopal Church is on the way to a still greater advance, the ultimate effect of which cannot fail to be an important improvement in the position of the colored race.

The moral of the Boston shoe and leather failures is that they furnish a second and striking illustration, on a great scale, of the effect of too much tariff. The iron trade has been dosed nearly to death with tariff, and is now reduced almost to chronic depression, with occasional intervals of convalescence. The shoe and leather business has at last shared the same fate. The men who start the new factories have their heads so filled with the idea that they must look to Congress, and not to consumers, to find out how much leather they can sell, that they have lost the habit of carefully examining their market, and have no longer the kind of judgment that is needed to do so with efficiency. They always flatter themselves that if sales grow difficult and stocks accumulate on their hands, all they have to do is to go to Washington, declaim about the pauper labor of Europe, and get the tariff put up a peg or two. They overlook the fact that even if the tariff were prohibitory, as long as their only market is the home market, nothing but a fall of prices would stimulate consumption, and in articles like shoes even that not very much, because but few people buy shoes for display and none for accumulation.

The Boston *Advertiser* says "the real significance and real effects of the Boston failures remain to be recounted." Time is running by rapidly, and there is great uncertainty about the future among business men, so that the *Advertiser* should not delay its elucidation another day. If it is not the tariff or over-competition which has done the mischief, it must be something else easily described, at least in outline, and the surviving members of the trade ought to have it at once. A correspondent in the trade writes to us that the "failure of Shaw Brothers was due simply to reckless and imprudent management, and the extension of their operations far beyond their capital and ability properly to superintend"; and the moral he draws is, that "a prudent and conservative business policy does not rely too much on credit, but restricts its operations within controllable limits." This is, however, the moral of all panics and of most failures, and unhappily does not do away with the necessity for going further back, and explaining why people get reckless and imprudent, and extend their credit beyond their capital, or, in other words, why the business judgment of large numbers of persons becomes periodically unsound.

Mr. Thomas Hamilton, "one of the most prominent negro politicians in South Carolina," has published a letter advising the colored men to abandon the Republican party and vote henceforth with the Democrats. He says that "all the negroes get for their fealty to the Republican party is a few minor appointments." In all South Carolina only one negro has a good position, the post-office at Columbia, and he is held in it by Senator Hampton, who is a Democrat. When the Republicans controlled the State, teachers' certificates were worth only forty cents on the dollar, while under Democratic rule they are worth one hundred cents. The difference was due to the fact that the "Republicans deliberately stole the money intended for education and applied it to fast horses, gold watches, and diamond pins," and Mr. Hamilton thinks they would do so again if the Government were to trust them with the funds for educating the negro. He says the Democrats have done more toward educating the negro youth in two years than the Republicans did in ten, and it is time the negroes showed some recognition of Democratic services. The Republicans give the best offices to the white men and the leavings to the negroes. Mr. Hamilton asks if the Democrats could do worse than that, and says the negro has only two questions to consider: "First, What is best for the negro? second, What is best for the country?" As a final argument against its being "best for the negro" to stay in the Republican party, he cites the fact that there are "about 150 white Republicans in the State, and 130 of them hold Government offices." It is not strange that Mr. Hamilton should place the welfare of the negro before that of the country, and should look upon a political party merely as an office-distributing agency. He and his race have been taught that view by the noble army of Republican patriots who went South after the war to teach the freedman the duties and privileges of citizenship.

Secretary Chandler comes before the public in a new light. His merits as a politician have long been known. He adds to them now the attributes of a humorist and philosopher. He and the caucus system which he represents having been disastrously defeated in New Hampshire, he hails the result as "patience's perfect work," and assures the President that the "Republican party in New Hampshire is reunited, courageous, and invincible." If cheerfulness in the presence of adversity be a sign of greatness, Mr. Chandler is a great man The Senatorial contest which ended last week has been from beginning to end a rebuke to him and his school of politics. Any one who has followed it closely is aware of this. The full power of the party machinery had been devoted to the election of a Legislature which would reelect Mr. Rollins to the Senate. When he was chosen in 1876 the caucus system was so powerful that the mere issuing of orders for his election was sufficient to secure it. The same order was repeated when the Legislature came together two months ago, but it was not obeyed. Many of the Republican members refused to attend the caucus or to be bound by its choice. Although Mr. Rollins was able to secure a nomination from a majority of those who did attend, he was never able to command the votes of more than 127 of the 195 Republican members. His vote dropped steadily each day until he withdrew his name. As soon as the hopelessness of his case was apparent Secretary Chandler appeared upon the scene, "clothed," as one of our contemporaries eloquently remarked, "in the robes of a Cabinet officer," and offered himself as a candidate. His reception was more discouraging than that which had been given to Mr. Rollins. His highest vote at any time was only seventy-seven, and it dwindled steadily to only one on the final ballot. Mr. Pike's election would have been effected sooner had he not been hampered with a suspicion, aroused chiefly by Mr. Chandler's professions of friendship, that he was not entirely free from Machine control. When this suspicion was dispelled Mr. Pike was elected.

This blow to the caucus system is an important addition to a series which has swelled to encouraging length during the past two years. It began with the election of Senator Mitchell in Pennsylvania in the spring of 1881, when the Cameron machine received its first shock. Next came the famous contest in this State which ended in the retirement of Messrs. Conkling and Platt. In Minnesota, early in the present year, Mr. Windom received the regular caucus nomination, but could not command the votes of a majority of the Republican members, and was defeated. When the State Convention met subsequently, an effort was made to have a vote of censure passed upon the members who had defied the caucus, but the motion was defeated by a vote of 148 to 92, showing that the temper of the party was opposed to caucus dictation. In Michigan, also, Senator Ferry was defeated under precisely the same conditions, although it required eighty-one ballots to convince the caucus adherents that the independent element was too determined to be either driven into subjection or tired out. Taken together, these successful attempts to assert the right of independent judgment in party affairs are most encouraging. Their influence will be felt in many ways. They will make future revolts easier by showing the well-disposed but more timid members of the party that caucus dictation can be defied without injury to party standing. The men who revolted in New Hampshire, Michigan, Minnesota, Pennsylvania, and New York will not be "read out" of the party. That threat, which was the most powerful weapon of the bosses a few years ago, has been shorn of its terror and is not even used any longer. Secretary Chandler shows his philosophic penetration by recognizing this fact and hastening to claim that the party in New Hampshire has been "reunited" and made "invincible" by tactics which he and his school have regarded for years with feelings akin to horror. It has been suggested that these several revolts portend an abandonment of the caucus system in the choice of United States Senators, and this may prove to be the case. Whether there is a formal abandonment or not will not matter much, for the precedent is pretty well established of disregarding the caucus when it makes an objectionable choice. A caucus which is only obeyed when its work is worthy of approval is an entirely harmless institution.

The end of the pauper immigration "scare" has probably been reached. The official report of the Commissioners to the Treasury Department, instead of proving any baleful intent on the part of the British Government to unload their paupers upon our shores, shows that extraordinary care had been taken to have only those persons sent here who would be certain not to become a public burden. Out of the

hundreds and even thousands who have come, only a few families were returned as paupers, and the British officials had no reason to suspect that the promises of homes for these, which had been sent in letters from this side, were less genuine than in other cases. The wonder is that so few mistakes were made.

General Crook's report, in directness and absence of pretence, in practical wisdom and certainty of judgment based upon mastery of all the facts, resembles the now famous campaign which it describes. The difficulties of the recent operations hardly appear through the veil of General Crook's modest restraint, and his account of them must be read with some imagination. Probably it will even then be impossible for most readers to realize the nature of the country described as "the roughest imaginable," "very precipitous," or "extremely rugged." All physical difficulties, however, appear slight in comparison with General Crook's initial feat of courage and resolution in risking his reputation and life and the lives of his handful of troops upon his judgment of the fidelity of the Apache scouts.

The Scott liquor law in Ohio appears to be working satisfactorily both as a source of revenue and as a restriction upon the traffic. Returns from seventy of the eighty-eight counties in the State show that 8,412 saloons have paid taxes aggregating $1,494,200, and that 1,019 saloons have been closed through an inability to pay the taxes. In Cincinnati the proportion of saloons closed is 12 per cent., and the income from the others is so large that a reduction in the rate of taxation is considered to be possible.

The inconvenience of the telegraphic strike to the public has not been nearly so great as was expected. The Western Union is, in fact, greatly aided in meeting the demands upon it by the great diminution in these demands. If telegrams came in on it in the old way, the outcry against it would, doubtless, be very great, but they are not coming in in the old way, or anything like it. The consequence is that it is not only making a good show of being able to keep up with its business, but it is getting time to break in its new men to their work. The falling off in the number of messages offered, in consequence of the uncertainty as to speedy delivery, shows, among other things, how largely the telegraph has come to be used as a luxury. Fifteen or twenty years ago a telegram was to most people not only an expensive but an alarming thing. It was apt to throw a quiet family into consternation, and was opened too often with trembling fingers as the probable herald of death or misfortune. It has since become not only comparatively cheap, but, to people who are not compelled to count their cents, a favorite mode of communicating with their friends about all sorts of trifling matters. Many who dislike letter-writing make it do all the work of letter-writing, and more. They telegraph what they would like for dinner, what train they are coming on, a welcome or good-by to dear Hattie or Harry, or congratulations on a horse-race or a big fish. A large part of the summer telegraphing is of this description. Probably a third of the messages which fly about the country between June 1 and October 1 are mere luxuries. If they cannot be sent, it does nobody any particular harm, and can be dropped by most people as simply little episodes in idle holiday life. This the strikers probably did not foresee, and are likely to suffer for not foreseeing it.

No duellist or apologist of duelling has yet explained what was settled by the Elam-Beirne duel. That a duel is not a simple fight like fisticuffs, but a determination of controversy, its friends always assure us. When the late Elam-Beirne duel was proposed we therefore took it for granted that it was to decide whether Beirne was a liar and pretender, which Elam alleged, or Elam was a low fellow and a friend of mixed schools and marriages, which Beirne alleged. These gentlemen felt uncomfortable, each under one of these accusations, and the duel, we thought, was to relieve the innocent one and consign the other to infamy. From this point of view, the extraordinary efforts they made to get at each other, by travelling night and day in buggies through the mountains and forests, were quite comprehensible and even meritorious. The result was that Elam had a bullet lodged in his hinder parts, while Beirne went unscathed. We concluded, of course, that this convicted Elam of Beirne's charges. It was a very odd mode of proof, to be sure, but that was not our affair. It now looks, however, as if this was all a mistake; for Elam is back in Richmond, nearly cured of his wound, and has been received by his friends, and he himself has been talking as if the duel was not meant to decide anything at all, and was apparently fought in resisting an attempt of Beirne to convert him to Funder principles. He says, referring to it in a speech made in his office, that he "did not see why a man should not lay down his life for a political conviction as readily as for a religious belief." All those who have laid down their lives for a religious conviction died because they refused to change or repudiate their creed. In this controversy, however, there was not the slightest intimation from Beirne that he would shoot Elam in the hip if he did not become a Funder. So that the object of the duel is involved in more mystery than ever.

The demand of the Irish landlords for compensation in the shape of state loans for their losses through the Land Act comes almost simultaneously with the Tory proposal, last formulated by Lord George Hamilton, for the purchase of the soil of Ireland from the landlords, to be rented on long credits to the tenants. In either case nothing short of an advance of from $1,000,000,000 to $1,500,000,000 from the British Treasury would do any good, and the English taxpayer naturally stands aghast at this new phase of the Irish question. As recipients of state bounty the landlords are probably more meritorious, in the financial sense, than the tenantry, as they would probably repay their loans, or could be made to repay. Very few, however, are prepared to maintain that a general loan to all the Irish farmers would ever be repaid. An agitation in favor of repudiation would soon spring up, and, when once begun, would carry everything before it, and the Government would be powerless. It could not offer the island for sale, under the sheriff's hammer, and if it did would get no bids. The landlords have, however, a good claim on the English people, for nothing is more certain than that, if they had not had England at their back, to support them in their peculiar mode of managing their property, they would ages ago have come to terms with their tenantry, and the land question would never have been heard of. The Irish land system is really the creation of English law, and if it has not turned out well, the English people are fairly bound to pay some of the loss on it to their protégés.

The Bradlaugh affair continues to furnish food for popular excitement in England. He announced some time ago to the Speaker his intention of again trying to take his seat, and about the same time began an action against the Sergeant-at-Arms, to which the House has ordered the Sergeant-at-Arms to plead. Sir Stafford Northcote thereupon moved and carried a resolution providing for Mr. Bradlaugh's further removal from the House in case he should attempt to carry out his threat, Mr. Gladstone refusing to take any charge of the matter. Bradlaugh, however, is evidently not a man to be put down, and the popular temper, at least in the towns, seems to be rising behind him. An enormous meeting — estimated, doubtless wildly, at 30,000—was held in London on Monday, at which he was encouraged to engage in another trial of physical strength with the Sergeant-at-Arms and the policemen. Bradlaugh is not a very admirable person, but neither was Wilkes; but he bids fair, like Wilkes, to go down to history as the champion of popular rights, not against the Crown or the aristocracy, but against the House of Commons. What adds to the interest of the struggle is the fact that the line of demarcation in English politics has lately become more than ever before a social line, and the Bradlaugh contest is taking on more and more the character of a fight between the non-church-going working class and the well-to-do church-going middle class represented in the House of Commons.

The famous trial of the Jews at Nyiregyhaza, Hungary, for "ritual murder" of a Christian girl for the purpose of using her blood in the Passover ceremonies, has ended in a verdict of not guilty, and the discharge of the ten accused persons, the state being ordered to pay the costs of the trial. The latter provision is not less just than the verdict of acquittal, since the case is amply proved to be pure persecution for religion's sake, and it may possibly have the effect to stimulate those proceedings against the devisers of the savage and horrible invention which the Hungarian Government must find itself compelled by the public opinion of the world to undertake.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, August 1, to TUESDAY, August 7, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE striking telegraphers received their first payment from the striking fund on Wednesday, each being given enough to provide for present necessities. The Signal Service has been seriously interfered with by the strike, the midnight despatches from which morning "Indications" are usually made up having almost entirely failed. A storm prevailed east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio on Thursday, still further interrupting telegraphic communication. On Saturday a bill of grievances, as if on behalf of the telegraph operators employed by the Delaware, Lackawanna and Western Railroad Company, was presented to its officers. The chief cause of complaint was that the operators were compelled to transact commercial business usually handled by the Western Union Telegraph Company. On Monday President Sloan replied, declining to accede to the requests. It was believed that the railroad operators would be ordered to quit work and that the strike would begin at noon, but the men, with few exceptions, continued at their keys throughout the day. On Monday night about sixty of the direct wires of the Western Union between New York and Boston were interrupted. The strikers denied that it had been done by their authority. On Tuesday the Western Union offered $1,000 reward for the conviction of each and every person interfering with their wires. A strike was expected during the day, on the Wabash system, of railroad operators, but the men continued at work. About two o'clock one-third of the railroad operators working on the Pittsburgh division of the Baltimore and Ohio quit work.

The cigarmakers' lockout was ended in this city on Thursday, by mutual concessions. Ten thousand five hundred men were out of work.

The failure was announced on Monday of Mr. Bradley Barlow, of St. Albans, Vt. The St. Albans Trust Company and the Vermont National Bank were obliged to suspend in consequence.

Charles H. Ward & Co., boot and shoe manufacturers, of Boston and Brockton, Mass., failed on Wednesday. Their liabilities are about $750,000. Charles W. Clement's shoe factory at Dover, N. H., was attached on Saturday. The liabilities are about $500,000.

The Lancaster (Pa.) Watch Company suspended on Wednesday, throwing 250 hands out of employment.

The total number of claims for rebate of tobacco taxes received at the United States Treasury Department to August 4 is about 35,000, aggregating $3,000,000. Ten of the smaller districts are still to be heard from. Their claims will, it is estimated, swell the total to $3,500,000.

During the month of July the decrease of the United States public debt was $7,900,590.

It is asserted that the Confederate bond movement in England is founded on the belief that $11,000,000 in European banks to the credit of the late Confederate Government, which was deposited for the payment of the coupons of July, 1865, can be collected on the presentation of those coupons.

The Hill Investigating Committee held its last session in Washington on Friday, prior to the preparation of a report which will probably not be ready until September 1.

For some time Mr. D. L. James, one of the heaviest Star-route contractors in the South, has been under suspicion. Charges were made that the names signed to his bonds were of persons unknown to the locality in which they were alleged to live. The matter was put in the hands of Detective Booth, of the Post-office force, and he soon obtained evidence that warranted him in charging James with the wholesale forgery of names and certificates to his bids and contracts, the sums running up into very high figures. Booth has placed the suspected man under arrest. James has contracts for $200,000 a year.

President Arthur formally opened the Louisville (Ky.) Exhibition on Wednesday. He made a short speech, and was received with cordiality, but not enthusiasm. He is now on his way to the Yellowstone Park.

The annual Convention of the Civil-Service Reform Association in session at the Channing Memorial Church, Newport, on Wednesday, listened to an address by Mr. George William Curtis. He gave a general review of the successes of civil-service reform during the last year, and, speaking of the attitude of President Arthur to the reform movement, said that "it will not be denied by fair men of every party that a President whose accession by means of a most tragical event was generally regarded as a serious misfortune, if not calamity, has not only allayed all apprehension of a gross misuse of the patronage of the Government, but by his pacific and temperate administration has gained the general approval of the country."

In the New Hampshire Senatorial contest on Wednesday Mr. Chandler received only 12 votes and Mr. Austin F. Pike 89. On Thursday Mr. Pike gained 8 votes and Mr. Chandler lost 6, on the first ballot of the day. On the third ballot of the day there was a bolt for Mr. Pike, and he received 181 of the 203 Republican votes cast. The Democratic candidate, Mr. H. Bingham, received 112 votes. Forty-three ballots were taken during the long contest. Mr. Pike is sixty-four years of age, and has been active in State politics. He was a member of the Forty-third Congress. His election pleases all Republican factions in the State.

The State Convention of Pennsylvania Democrats was held at Harrisburg on Wednesday. Robert Taggart was nominated for Auditor-General and Joseph Powell for State Treasurer. The platform favors a civil-service reform which will "redeem and purge the departments of the general Government from that corruption and fraud with which they have been permeated under Republican rule"; the tariff question is dodged in the same manner as in the Ohio resolution; the administration of Governor Pattison is unqualifiedly approved; the abolition of the entire internal-revenue system is advocated, and the Wharton Barker scheme for the distribution of a surplus revenue is denounced. The nominees of the Convention are considered to be strong men, and they were not dictated by any machine. The Convention, however, was in the hands of the friends of Governor Pattison, Mr. Randall manifesting his influence only in the tariff plank of the platform.

The Minnesota Democrats on Thursday nominated M. W. McNair for Governor. The platform denounces excessive revenue, declares for a tariff for revenue only, against sumptuary legislation and the submission of a prohibition amendment; favors river-improvement appropriations, with a provision giving the President power to veto items of bills; demands a revision of the patent laws, and denounces the Republican party. Mr. McNair, on Monday, refused the nomination, and another candidate will be chosen by the State Committee.

The Kentucky election on Monday resulted in the choice of Proctor Knott (Dem.) for Governor by a majority of about 30,000. The complexion of the Legislature is not changed. The popular vote was in favor of calling a State Constitutional Convention.

Thomas Hamilton, one of the most prominent negro politicians in South Carolina, has written a letter to the Charleston *News* roundly denouncing the Republican party, and insisting that the negro has rights which must be respected.

In Utah, the election on Monday resulted in a victory for the Mormons in each district of the Territory, with one exception. The majority of the Gentiles refrained from voting.

The Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* has printed a table, giving returns from seventy of the eighty-eight counties in Ohio, showing the effect of the Scott law. One thousand and nineteen recognized drinking saloons in those counties have been closed; 6,530 paid the $200 tax, and 1,882 the $100 tax. The aggregate amount realized from this tax is $1,494,200. In Cincinnati it has made a reduction of taxation possible. The proportion of saloons which have been closed by the law is 12 per cent.

Further alleged Kuklux outrages are reported from Georgia. The stories tell of negroes terribly whipped, and in one case of great indignities to which a woman was subjected.

Eighteen of the trustees of Union College met in Schenectady on Thursday, and passed a resolution by a vote of 9 to 8 requesting the immediate resignation of President Potter. That gentleman was present, but his vote, which would have made a tie, was ruled out, because he was on trial and his salary was at stake. None of the ex-officio trustees who are State officers were present.

Mayor Edson, of this city, on Friday appointed S. Hastings Grant, his private secretary, to be Comptroller of the city, to succeed Allan Campbell, resigned. Mr. Grant is a skilled accountant, and is about fifty-five years of age. He was for many years Librarian of the Mercantile Library, and for nine years was Superintendent of the Produce Exchange. Mr. John Kelly expressed himself as satisfied with the appointment. On Saturday Mr. Grant took the oath of office and entered upon its duties.

FOREIGN.

It was announced in Paris on Friday that Tuduc, the King of Anam, died on July 20 and was succeeded by Phudac. A French council of war was held on July 27, and a river attack on Sontay was planned. The London *Times's* correspondent at Hong Kong says the negotiations between France and China in regard to Tonquin are at a standstill. The general opinion is that the aggressive policy assumed by M. Challemel-Lacour and the appointment of M. Tricou as French Minister to China were unfortunate circumstances, and that a peaceful solution of the difficulty is impossible. The Chinese consider that the French are determined upon the annexation of Anam, and that they desire to quarrel with China. On Saturday it was announced from Paris that M. Challemel-Lacour, French Minister of Foreign Affairs, had had an interview with the Marquis Tseng, the Chinese Ambassador, and that the former demanded the withdrawal of the Chinese troops from the Tonquin frontier.

The French have issued a proclamation to the Tonquinese promising to punish their oppressors and to destroy the city of Huê if necessary. A reconnoissance shows that Sontay is strongly fortified, guns commanding the river. A probably decisive blow will soon be struck, the troops attempting to capture the entire land force of Black Flags while the fleet attacks Huê.

An extra budget for 1884 was submitted on Wednesday to the French Chamber of Deputies by the Government. It provides for a loan at 3 per cent. interest of 300,000,000 francs, of which 121,000,000 francs are to be devoted to military and naval purposes.

The relations between England and France have been much modified in a pacific direction. M. Waddington has informed Lord Granville that the French advices from Tamatave state that Admiral Pierre had had no

such differences with Consul Pakenham as had been represented. The French Admiral, he said, did not interfere with the English Consulate. The relations between Commodore Johnstone and the French commander have always been courteous. If this statement of the case proves to be true, France will probably ask for some sort of an apology from England for the charges made against Admiral Pierre.

It is believed that M. de Lesseps has expressed his readiness to reopen negotiations with England in regard to the Suez Canal scheme, and that he is disposed to agree to more liberal terms. M. de Lesseps, however, denies that he is willing to make concessions.

The answer of President Grévy, of France, to the Pope's recent letter concerning religious affairs in France, has been received in Rome. The letter has resulted in accord on the principal question at issue. Instructions in accordance with the arrangement have been sent to the Papal Nuncio at Paris. The letter justifies the position taken by the French Government against the attacks of the clergy, and says that France has no intention of making war upon the Church.

The Comte de Chambord is convalescent.

It was rumored in Paris on Friday that a plot to restore the monarchy had been discovered. The newspaper *France* professed to give the details of the plot. It said that 25,000 muskets for a popular rising had been ordered, and that attempts had been made to tamper with the army. It also asserted that three conspirators had been arrested. These proved to be servants and small tradesmen, and the whole affair to be of little importance.

Pierre Auguste Cot, the French painter, died on Saturday. One of his most popular pictures, "Spring-Time," was exhibited at the French Salon in 1873.

King Alfonso and Queen Christina, of Spain, arrived at the royal palace of San Ildefonso, La Granja, on July 31. The King went to the frontier to meet his spouse. This fact is against the theory that the two had quarrelled.

A military rising took place at 1 o'clock Sunday morning in the Spanish province of Badajoz, on the Portuguese frontier. It was in the Republican interest. The garrison of the town, numbering 700 men, pronounced for a republic, the Constitution of 1869, and Ruiz Zorilla for President. Several regiments of Spanish soldiers were despatched on Monday to Badajoz to suppress the rising. Four hundred citizens joined the soldiery. It is believed that Zorilla planned the rising. General Blanco started from Madrid on Monday with a strong force. At seven o'clock on Monday evening it was officially announced in Madrid that the revolt was at an end. The insurgents fled to Portugal in a very undignified manner. It is said in some quarters that the outbreak was only a part of the programme of a gigantic stock-jobbing operation, conducted by a certain clique which has for a long time been making extraordinary efforts to destroy the improving credit of Spain.

The examination of O'Donnell for the murder of James Carey was resumed at Port Elizabeth, Africa, on Wednesday. The eldest son of Carey deposed that his father and O'Donnell had been on friendly terms throughout the voyage, and that they had often played cards. He also said that he found a check for £100 in his father's pocket after the shooting. Mrs. Carey deposed that she was in an adjoining room when her husband was shot, and that he ran toward her, saying, "Maggie, I am shot; O'Donnell has shot me." It was then that O'Donnell, replying to her question, said he had been sent to do it. On Friday O'Donnell was committed for trial on the charge of wilful murder. He will probably be tried at the Port Elizabeth Assizes in October. Irishmen in Kansas City, Mo., believe that O'Donnell is Capt. Thomas Phelan, once a resident of that city. A despatch from Cork asserts that Phelan is in that city. On the other hand, a Cornelius O'Donnell, of Chicago, claims to be a brother of the assassin.

The steamer *Pathan* has arrived at Melbourne, Australia, from Adelaide. Kavanagh, Joseph Hanlon, and Joseph Smith, informers in the trials of the Phœnix Park murderers, who were on board, were identified and prohibited from landing. Seven other persons on the *Pathan* were suspected of having been witnesses for the Government in those trials, but were not identified. It is asserted in Dublin that the informers were prevented from landing because a plot to murder them had been discovered. Earl Spencer, Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, is much annoyed by the murder of Carey, and the prevention of Kavanagh from landing. He has, it is said, had angry correspondence with prominent officials on the subject.

The trial of O'Herlihy, Featherstone, Deasy, Flannigan, and Dalton, who are charged with having in their possession explosives for the destruction of buildings and lives, was begun in Liverpool on Tuesday. All the prisoners pleaded not guilty to the charge.

James McDermott was arrested in Liverpool on Monday on his arrival from America, and was remanded to jail on a charge of being engaged in a conspiracy to murder public officials. A warrant for his arrest was issued in Cork, where he had been seen in company with O'Herlihy. Some correspondence with O'Donovan Rossa and James Stephens was found upon the prisoner, who said he was an American citizen, and would call upon the American Government to protect him. It is supposed in this country that McDermott is the man who was shot in this city on July 21, for supposed treachery to the Invincibles.

A box of dynamite to which a lighted fuse was attached was discovered on Friday in a large linen factory at Cupar-Fife, Scotland. The fuse was extinguished before it reached the explosive. The attempt to blow up the factory is attributed to Fenianism.

A statement signed by Lords Dunraven, Gough, and other landlords in Ireland has been sent to Mr. Gladstone, pointing out the losses of rent and the depreciation in the value of land that have taken place in consequence of the passage of the Land Act, and suggesting state aid in the shape of a loan for the relief of landowners.

Mr. Parnell submitted to his Parliamentary colleagues for their judgment a pressing invitation which he had received from America to visit that country. His colleagues generally are of the opinion that he will be urgently needed in Ireland. He has accordingly telegraphed that he cannot come until after the general elections in Great Britain and Ireland.

The Irish National League has decided to call a series of conventions in all the counties of Ireland, with a view to choosing a Central Executive Council. Arrangements are being made to resume the propaganda for securing an Irish Parliament, a peasant proprietary, and the adoption of other measures desired by the Irish.

Motions were defeated in the House of Commons on Monday night directed against Mr. Gladstone's policy in the Transvaal and Zululand.

The Australian Agents-General in London have presented a long statement to Lord Derby, Minister of the Colonies, relative to the reasons of the Australians for desiring the annexation of, or the establishment of a protectorate over, the Western Pacific islands and a portion of New Guinea. They point out the anarchy existing there and the danger of the establishment of French penal settlements. The Agents-General give direct assurance that the colonies will recognize the necessity of contributing to the cost of the policy they ask England to pursue.

Earl Granville, British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, has instructed the British Minister to Morocco to make an earnest appeal to the Sultan of Morocco to consider whether it is not time to place his empire on a level with other civilized Powers by abolishing slavery.

In the House of Commons on Thursday afternoon, Mr. Evelyn Ashley, Under Colonial Secretary, said that the papers relative to the indemnity for the violence done to American fishermen at Fortune Bay were being prepared. The Government had received no answer from the United States concerning the proposition for joint measures to prevent a recurrence of similar troubles. Mr. Gladstone said he hoped the session of Parliament would be brought to a close by August 23.

The Agricultural Holdings Bill passed its third reading in the House of Commons on Wednesday.

A great demonstration took place on Monday in Trafalgar Square, London, the object of which was to protest against the exclusion of Mr. Bradlaugh from the House of Commons. 30,000 people were present. The meeting passed a resolution favoring resistance by Mr. Bradlaugh of the mandate of the House of Commons.

A movement is on foot in London for the erection of a memorial to, and the raising of a fund for the assistance of the family of, Captain Webb, who lost his life while endeavoring to swim the rapids below Niagara Falls.

Another severe shock of earthquake was felt on the island of Ischia on Wednesday evening, which put a stop to the work of searching the ruins for victims. King Humbert of Italy visited the scene of the earthquake on Wednesday, and directed the distribution of money and provisions to those in need.

Emperor William has directed that the 400th birthday of Martin Luther be observed by all the Protestant schools of Germany. The students of the universities will celebrate at Erfurt, on August 8, the entry of Luther into that town.

The condition of Prince Bismarck's health requires his complete repose.

The officials of the German universities are preparing severe measures against duelling.

The total number of deaths from cholera in Egypt up to August 1 were, according to the London *Daily News*, 16,000. There were seven deaths in Alexandria on Monday. Orders have been issued to thoroughly disinfect cargoes of rags arriving at British ports from Egypt.

An alleged Moabite manuscript of Deuteronomy on leather leaves, copied 700 years B. C., has turned up, and is said to have satisfied eminent Hebraist experts. The owner, Shapira, a dealer of Jerusalem, notorious some years ago in connection with forged potteries, asks the British Museum $5,000,000 for the manuscript.

The trial of the ten Jews at Nyiregyhaza, Hungary, who were charged with murdering Esther Solymosi, a Christian girl, in the synagogue at Tisza Eslar, in order to procure her blood to mix in the Passover bread, was concluded on Friday. A verdict of not guilty was returned. Great excitement ensued in Hungary over the result. A mob of anti-Semites gathered at Pressburg, and were so hostile against the Jews that the military were ordered out to disperse them.

The Jewish residents of Ekaterinoslav, Russia, were attacked by a mob on August 2. The soldiery had to be called out to disperse the rioters, about 100 of whom were killed or wounded. The trouble was caused by a Jew insulting a peasant woman. The Town Council of Ekaterinoslav has resolved to give the Jews 5,000 rubles to compensate them for their losses, and to provide shelter for those who were rendered homeless.

THE LAST STAGE IN THE TELEGRAPHIC STRIKE.

THE telegraphers' strike has apparently entered on its last stage. The call for aid from the railroad operators is, even if responded to, a confession of failure. The railroad operators are not employees of the telegraph companies. They help the Western Union or other companies to transact their business, it is true, but so do the employees of the wire manufacturers and of the acid manufacturers, and so, for that matter, do the tailors, butchers, and grocers who supply the wants of the superintendents and directors. Once the strikers begin to seek aid outside their own body, they not only admit that the Company is too strong for them, but they enter on a path in which there is no natural stopping-place short of calling on the whole community to boycott everybody connected with the telegraphic corporations. Moreover, there is not the least likelihood that even if the railroad operators strike, it will produce any effect beyond some temporary inconvenience to railroad managers, and the loss of their places by a number of deluded young men. The trains will be run under the rules, which on every line provide, among the other contingencies, for the suspension of telegraphic communication between the stations. This may mean slower time or fewer trains, but it will probably mean simply greater caution, until the places of the strikers can be filled. Even those journals which did most to encourage the strikers by predictions of success, and by thoroughgoing justification of their course, are now beginning to tell them that the attack on the railroads is a mistake and can do them no good. As this attack is, however, their last card, this is simply a warning that the game is up.

It apparently never had any chance of success, first and foremost because the telegraphic art is not such a mystery as the operators, with not unnatural pride in their calling, seem to have thought it. Their own experience ought to have taught them better. They are largely young fellows who began as boys in telegraph offices and learned to use the instruments without any special or laborious training. In fact, it appears that anybody can become an expert telegrapher with from two to three months' practice, and can learn to telegraph slowly in a shorter period. A trade so easily acquired is a very dangerous trade to strike in, particularly when the greater proportion of the strikers must go without the stimulus of numbers. It is only in the large cities that the telegraphic strikers enjoy the company and support of a crowd of their fellows. The majority of them probably have to strike alone, or in twos or threes, and solitary strikers are not apt to have much heart or hope.

The principal reliance of the strikers, clearly, was on the sympathy of the public and the unpopularity of the Company. From the combination of these two influences they doubtless expected an outpouring of indignation, and probably numerous suits, with accompanying mandamuses and the like, before which the directors would have to cower. We have already explained why these hopes were futile. No suits could be brought to bear on the Company in time to affect the existing dispute, nor would any court decide how many offices the Company should keep open. It probably might content itself with one in each large town, for anything the judges would have to say in the matter. And then popular sympathy is a dreadfully poor reliance for a man who wants money by a certain day. What the public has done in the present case is simply to cut down its telegraphing in a way which has greatly helped the companies in meeting the crisis. The strikers were probably deceived on this point by the newspaper fire against Jay Gould, Cyrus W. Field, and the other "monopolists."

There is one other point on which the strikers have undoubtedly been led astray. They have been mistaken in supposing that the business men of the country were really on their side. No disgust with corporate mismanagement has ever, or probably will ever, bring the business community to believe that strikes of the employees, ordered or superintended by trades unions, are a proper cure for it. Bad as our corporations may be, no substitute for them in conducting our great railroad and telegraphic interests has yet been discovered. We are and must remain dependent on them for an indefinite period for the means of carrying on most of our trade and commerce and manufactures. Nearly all the trained talent of the country in the field of transportation is in their service. Their defects must therefore be amended by law, after careful investigation. Very few responsible people in any part of the country think they can be amended by promoting strikes among their employees. Moreover, there is among business men a vast amount of secret but thoroughgoing sympathy with the refusal of the Western Union to treat with "the Brotherhood," for the simple reason that they feel that no employer can manage an army of officials such as our corporations employ, if they have two masters to serve, or if they can be withdrawn from duty any day by blowing a whistle on the order of a committee of outsiders. Discipline is the life of all large organizations, and divided authority is fatal to discipline. The strike, under such promptings, of masses of men such as the railroads and telegraph companies employ is a tremendous affair, as that of 1877 showed. It almost amounts to a social convulsion, and everybody who buys and sells, gives and takes credit, and has money sunk in goods or buildings, shrinks from everything likely either to bring such disturbances about or to foster a state of preparation for them. In saying all this we are not discussing what should be done to protect the employees of corporations against maltreatment. We are simply explaining why strikes against corporations do not succeed.

HONOR IN THE ARMY.

THE army officers have not been cutting a very good figure of late. Nearly every week brings news of a fraud or defalcation among them. After having for a century stood exceptionally high in character, they have apparently begun to embezzle and cheat and lie just like any other class in the community. Drunkenness used to be their special vice, which people were inclined to excuse in consideration of the vacuity of their lives. They were supposed to drink because they had so little else to do. Now they are adding to it the vices of our busiest men. The last case, that of a Lieutenant Robertson, who has been travelling about the country getting duplicate pay accounts cashed by persons who retained the old-fashioned confidence in an army officer's veracity and honesty, is peculiarly painful. He has fallen, it appears, from a greater height than most of the others, because he was recently detailed to examine the workings of the French Artillery School, and in his report made a comparison between the *morale* of the French officers and that of his own comrades which was very unflattering to the latter. His fall, consequently, is the fall of a preacher, which is always more impressive than that of an ordinary sinner. It seems, it is now said, as if, when he was speaking of the moral defects of the American army, he was speaking from self-knowledge.

There is, we fear, little doubt that the moral decline of the army will be welcome news to a certain kind of politicians. The class in which Brady and Dorsey got their training has long been wearied and disgusted by the arguments in favor of civil-service reform drawn from the high character of the officers of the military service. They were fairly sick of hearing them cited as examples of what fixity of tenure will do in raising the tone and maintaining the integrity of public servants. They are consequently secretly rejoiced to find that military men swindle and peculate as freely as anybody. We fear, too, a great many people who do not belong to the Dorsey and Brady class will begin to conclude that there was some mistake about the nature of military honor, and about the value of the example which officers of the regular army used to be thought to show to the youth of the country in their relations both to the Government and to their fellow-citizens, and to doubt whether military training and discipline are not snares rather than helps to morality.

There is, however, a lesson of considerable importance in these scandals both for civil-service reformers and every other kind of reformers, which they will do well to take to heart. The good character of army officers, either in our service or in any other, is not due to any peculiar excellence in the men themselves. They are not selected for the service on account of their moral tone. Youths do not seek the service because their consciences are unusually tender, or their moral perceptions unusually keen. Our soldiers, like those of other nations, represent the ordinary citizen in his ordinary mood. Whatever moral elevation the officer receives in the army comes from the fact, not that more is expected from him than from the civilian, but that if he fails to come up to the moral standard of the community in which he lives, the punishment is quick and remorseless. Every man of decent education is *expected* to behave like "an officer and a gentleman," but when he disappoints people he either does not suffer for it at all, or suffers but slightly.

His default is not investigated, and even if his guilt be established, the worst he has to fear is getting the cold shoulder from a few of his more rigid acquaintances.

In the army, on the other hand, a man who does not behave like an officer and gentleman is tried for it, and if convicted, is publicly stigmatized or ruined by being driven out of his profession. It is this quick and remorseless operation of condemning opinion which has made the military sense of honor so nice, and which everywhere gives military men whatever extraordinary confidence they enjoy, and not any natural superiority. It is not the uniform or the character of their calling (which is in many ways full of great moral temptation), it is the discipline—the steady and unfaltering enforcement of certain rules of conduct by punishment of tremendous severity. Without this an army—a collection of men kept trained in readiness to kill people—would be an unmitigated curse to any community.

Now, the honest truth is, that we have apparently been for some time past trying to maintain such an army here. "Influence" has now been at work for some years at Washington to procure not only the remission of the severer penalties, but full restoration to the service of officers convicted of all sorts of disgraceful offences. There are now in the army, bearing United States commissions, through the scandalous if not wicked leniency of the Executive, worked on by "influence," men convicted of all sorts of crimes, from habitual drunkenness up to fraud and embezzlement. Pardons are granted for disgraceful conduct with a frequency which must make discipline almost impossible; and to judge of their power of mischief we must remember that there is no service in the world in which the character of the officers is of more importance than in ours, owing to the large number of small and remote commands into which the army is broken up, and the isolated and monotonous life led by most of these detachments, and the powerful temptations to social and moral downfall with which such a life abounds.

Apart altogether from the effect on the army, however, this laxity deserves attention as an illustration of the dangers which still beset civil-service reform. The provisions made by law for the discipline of the army could hardly be improved as regards completeness and efficacy. But the discretion allowed to the administrative power in regard to their execution is so much abused that they have all the consequences of very bad legislation. The civil service is now, and probably will continue to be for some time, in much the same position. The reformatory legislation is, as far as it goes, excellent, but the amount of good it will do depends largely on the use which the executive authority makes of the discretion which it necessarily retains in putting this legislation in force. This use, therefore, will need for a long while to be zealously watched.

BOARDERS' RIGHTS ON THE SEASHORE.

We print elsewhere a letter which gives in strong terms an illustration of the conflict between the Boarder and the Cottager at our leading summer resorts, and especially those of the seaside. What our correspondent says confirms very fully the accounts we have given twice already in these columns of the steady progress made by the Cottager in driving the Boarder away from some of the most attractive places, both in the hills and on the seaboard. Among these Bar Harbor occupies a leading position. It was for fully fifteen years after its discovery frequented exclusively by a very high order of Boarders, and probably has been the scene of more plain living and high thinking than any other summer spot on the seacoast. It was, in fact, remarkable at one time for an almost unhealthy intellectual stimulation through an exclusively fish diet. But the purity of the air and the grandeur of the scenery brought a yearly increasing tide of visitors from about 1860 onward. These visitors were, until about five years ago, almost exclusively Boarders, and the development of the place as a summer resort was prodigious. The little houses of the original half farmers, half fishermen, who welcomed, or rather did not welcome, the first explorers, grew rapidly into little boarding-houses, then into big boarding-houses, then into hotels with registers. Then the hotels grew larger and larger, and the callings of the steamer more frequent, until the place became famous and crowded.

All this while, however, the hold of the Boarder on it remained unshaken. He was monarch of all he surveyed. No one on the island, except the landlords, held his head higher. There was one distinction between Boarders, but it was not one to wound any body's self-love: some were "Mealers," or persons eating in the hotel where they lodged; and others were "Haul Mealers," or persons who were collected and brought to their food in wagons. But this classification produced no heart-burning. The Mealer loved and respected the Haul Mealer, or wished him in Jericho, and the Haul Mealer in like manner the Mealer, on general grounds, like other persons with whom he came in contact, without any reference to his place of abode. All were covered by the grand old name of Boarder, and that was enough. A happier, easier, freer, and more curiously dressed summer community than Bar Harbor in those early days was not to be found on our coast.

We do not know exactly when the Cottager first made his appearance on those rugged shores, but it is certain that his approaches were more insidious than they have ever been anywhere. He did not proclaim himself all at once. The first cottages were very plain structures, which he cunningly spoke of as "shanties" or "log huts," in which he simply lodged, and went to the hotels or neighboring farm-houses for his food in the simple and unpretending character of a Haul Mealer. For a good while, therefore, he excited neither suspicion nor alarm, and the hotel-keepers welcomed him heartily, and all went on smoothly. Gradually, however, he threw off all disguise, bought land at high prices, and began unblushingly to erect "marine villas" on it, with everything that the name implies. He has now got possession of all the desirable sites from the Ovens down to Great Head, and has surrounded himself with all the luxuries, just as at Newport. The consequence is, as our correspondent points out, although the sea and sky, and the mountains and the rocks retain all their charm, the Boarder is no longer happy. He finds himself relegated to a secondary position. He is abashed when on foot or in his humble buckboard he meets the haughty Cottager in his dog-cart or victoria. He has neither dog nor horse, while the Cottager has both. He was once proud of staying at Rodick's or Lynam's; now he begins to be ashamed of it. He finds that the Cottagers, who are the permanent residents, have a society of their own, in which he is either not welcome or is a mere outsider. He finds that the very name of Boarder, which he once wore like a lily, has become a term of inferiority. Worse than all, he finds himself confounded with a still lower class, known at Bar Harbor as "the Tourist"—elsewhere called the Excursionist—who comes by the hundred on the steamers in linen dusters, and is compelled by force of circumstances to "do" Mount Desert in twenty-four hours. He therefore enters on his task without shame or scruple, roams over the Cottager's lawn, stares into his windows, breaks his fences, and sometimes asks him for a free lunch. The Boarder, of course, looks down on this man, but when both are on the road or on the piazza of the hotel, how are they to be distinguished? They are not, and cannot be.

The worst of it all is, however, that the Boarder finds that the Cottager has enclosed some of his favorite walks. He can no longer get to them without trespassing or intruding. He can only look wistfully from the dusty highroad at the spots on which he probably once "rocked" with the girl who is now his wife, or chopped logic with professional or clerical friends, whom "the growth of the place" has long ago driven to fresh fields and pastures new. There is something very interesting and touching about these old Mount Deserters of the first period, between 1860 and 1870, who fled even before the enlargement of the hotels, and to whom cottages at Bar Harbor are almost unthinkable. One finds them in undeveloped summer resorts in out-of-the-way places along the American coast, often on the Alps or in Norway, or on the Scotch lakes, still tender, and simple, and unassuming, and cheery, older of course and generally stouter, but with the memories of the mountains, and the rocks, and the islands, of the poor food, "which made no difference, because the air was fine," still as fresh as ever, but without a particle of bitterness. They wander much, but wander as they may they find no summer resorts which can have for them the charm of Frenchman's Bay or Newport Mountain, and no vehicle which touches so many chords in their hearts as the primeval buckboard, in the days when it could only be hired as a great favor, and the driver was unwilling to wait for you if you fell off.

It is not wonderful that under these circumstances the Boarders at Mount Desert should be diminishing in numbers, as our correspondent says they are, and that the hotel-keepers should be becoming seriously alarmed, and should be regretting that they sold so much land to the Cottagers. We presume there can be little doubt that Bar Harbor and every other

place of the kind are going the way of Newport. There the Boarder was once preëminent and happy; now the hotels find it difficult to pay expenses, so completely has what is called "cottage life" taken possession of the place. The future at all such places, in truth, belongs to the Cottager, and it is really useless to resist him. His march along the American coast is nearly as resistless as that of the hordes who issued from the plains of Scythia to overthrow the Roman Empire. He moves on all the "choice sites" without haste, without rest, with the calm and remorselessness of the man who knows that the morrow belongs to him. He has two tremendous forces at his back, against which no Boarder can stand up. One is the growing passion, or fashion, if any one likes to call it so, of Americans to live in their own houses both summer and winter. This is rapidly taking possession of all classes, from the New England mechanic, who puts up his shanty or tent on the seashore, to the millionaire who builds his hundred-thousand-dollar villa on his thirty-thousand-dollar lot. Everybody who can seeks to be at home all the year round, let the home be never so small or humble, and the life in it never so rough. This is a change in the national manners which nobody can regret, but it is a change from which the Boarder must suffer, and which must cost him much wandering and many tears. The other is the spread of the love of the seashore among the vast population of the Mississippi Valley, whose wealth is becoming great, and for whom long railroad journeys have no terrors, and who are likely now to send their thousands every year to compete with the "money kings" of the East for the best villa sites along the coast. And be it remembered that although our population doubles every twenty-five years, our rocky Atlantic shore, which is what all most love and seek—the sand is tame and dreary in comparison—remains a fixed quantity. It only extends from New York to Eastport, Me., and it only contains a limited number of building lots. These are now being rapidly bought up and built on, or held on speculation, and in some places, where land only brought ten dollars an acre fifteen years ago, are held at monstrous prices.

To fight against these tendencies is useless. The wise Boarder will not do so, nor waste his time in bewailing his fate. It is absurd for him to expect that long stretches of delightful shore will be left wild and uninhabited and unimproved, for him to walk over for three or four weeks every summer. Not even the Henry George régime would oust the Cottager, for under it he would simply rent what he now owns; a Cottager he would still remain. The best solution of the Boarder's trouble about the seashore, to which we believe he has a common-law right of access, has been found at Newport, where the resident proprietors have provided a pretty and commodious walk along the cliffs. This will doubtless have to be done at Bar Harbor, but this is probably all that can be done. Finally, the Boarder must remember that though the Cottager, like woman, when he is bad is very bad, when he is good is delightful. Nothing the American summer has to show can surpass a good Cottager, and we rejoice to know that the number of good Cottagers every year grows larger and larger. At his best, though he may be stern in the assertion of his rights of property, there is no simpler, sweeter, honester gentleman than he, and the moral earnestness with the want of which the more austere Boarder has been apt to reproach him, grows very rapidly after he gets his lawn made and his place in order.

A FRENCHMAN ON OUR ENGLISH DRAMA.

WHOEVER has looked over the volumes of plays published formerly by Lacy and now by French (the series is called "The Acting Edition") may well doubt if there is any modern English drama. M. Léo Quesnel, writing in the *Revue Critique*, is more hopeful. He does, indeed, utterly and most justly reject the claims of Burnand and Byron and their like to any standing among dramatic authors. To begin with, their pieces are all borrowed. It may be worth while to reproduce here the list of imitations which he gives, though it could be enlarged tenfold:

"Reade copies, under the title of 'Drink,' Zola's 'L'Assommoir'; Sydney Grundy gives, in 'Mammon,' 'The Snowball,' and 'In Honor Bound,' imitations of 'Montjoye,' 'Oscar,' and 'Une Chaîne'; Merivale takes Ponsard's 'Lion Amoureux' and calls it 'A Son of the Soil'; of the 'Voyage de M. Perrichon' he makes 'Peacock's Holiday'; Labiche's 'Moi' becomes simply 'Us' under the pen of Burnand; Albery, the great adapter, uses 'Les Dominos Roses' under the same name, 'Pink Dominos,' and a dozen others with a change of title. 'Les Bourgeois de Pont-d'Arcy' and 'Les Fourchambault' are called now 'Crisis' and 'Duty.' As to Sims and Burnand, their tone, manner, everything, is drawn from our minor stage, and, except that the words are English instead of French, one might believe one's self at the Palais-Royal."

But this is not all; they not merely borrow, they spoil. French dramatic writers have a moral end always in view—they try to resolve some social problem. (Have we not read Dumas's prefaces?) Even Zola has his moral thesis. The English seek only to amuse. They have partly found and partly made a public that does not want to think—that wants little more than to digest its dinner comfortably. To satisfy this public they serve French plots, reduced to English standards of decency, and garnished with a profusion of puns. There are farces in both capitals, but what earns success in Paris before the best audiences is a real comedy, full of true humor and refined wit; in London the reward of long runs and seats crowded with rich people is given to compounds of cheap sentiment and verbal wit, destitute of any serious aim, and not even refined in style. Fortunately, Messrs. Byron and Burnand are not the only playwrights. Theyre Smith, Sydney Grundy, Merivale, and Gilbert receive more praise from M. Quesnel. Of the first he names only "My Uncle's Will"; the second he calls a true *littérateur;* but Merivale, though he has made a concession to the ruling taste of the public in adaptations from Labiche, is credited with real literary merit in such character pieces as "Alone," "The White Pilgrim," "All for Her," "Forget Me Not," "The Cynic" (of which the leading idea comes from Goethe's 'Faust'). Merivale has lyric moments, a touch of irony; he is not afraid of passion; he is, apparently, in M. Quesnel's opinion, a writer of greater power than the much more popular Gilbert. Yet M. Quesnel does not decry Gilbert, though it is noteworthy that his acquaintance with him is not through the stage. He does not allude to those of Gilbert's texts by which he is best known in this country—"Engaged," "The Sorcerer," "Pinafore," "The Pirates of Penzance," "Patience," and "Iolanthe"—but comments only on those which are contained in the first-published volume, "Pygmalion and Galatea," "The Palace of Truth," "The Princess." His merit he recognizes, yet thinks that both in psychology and style there is a lack of depth. M. Quesnel points out, very justly, that in "Galatea" Gilbert fails in tracing the gradual development of human intelligence disengaging itself from the trammels of matter.

The truth is, however, that Gilbert had to deal there with an almost insuperable psychological difficulty. A human soul can be imagined to be created in an instant with all the instincts of a person born of parents, and all the knowledge which would belong to a woman who had naturally grown up to that age; or it can be supposed to come into existence a mere tablet, with capacities only, and with neither knowledge nor any of the results of heredity. Either of these imaginings is a marvel, the first far the greater miracle; but neither is suited for a play. With the first there would be no development—the statue warmed to life would have no greater interest than any ordinary person. The dramatist was between a Scylla of improbability and a Charybdis of dramatic impossibilities. His heroine must know something in order to understand anything that was said to her; and if she spoke at all, every word implied a knowledge which she in the marble never could have acquired. Gilbert was, therefore, driven to adopt an entirely illogical middle course. He gave his statue some feminine instincts that could only have been inherited from a long line of mothers, and a great deal of knowledge that could only have come to her from living; and yet, to produce that incongruity which is the soul of humor, he represents her as ignorant of the commonest things. The result is charming when one first sees the play, but on reflection the inconsistency appears; one asks why, if she knew so much, she should not know more. *Miranda*, carefully brought up on a desert island, is delightful in her naïveté, and yet natural; but why should a piece of marble turn into a *Miranda* more than into an *Aspasia?* M. Quesnel reproaches Gilbert with not properly tracing *Galatea's* mental growth; he does not see the enormous difficulty of compressing the work of centuries into an hour or two.

A third class of dramatists is recognized by M. Quesnel—those whose works are not suited to and often are not written for the stage—Tennyson, Browning, Swinburne; and the greatest of these is Swinburne. His "Chastelard," "Bothwell," and "Mary Stuart" "form a trilogy of which the nineteenth century may well be proud"—a series of three plays published at long intervals, in which the age of the hero and the character of the feelings depicted correspond with the respective ages of the author, beginning with the stormy passions of youth, following with the calm and sustained force of the mature man, and ending with the deep passions which survive the experience of life. But even this magnificent work and the closet plays of his two compeers will not make a national drama, such as England had in the Elizabethan age. France alone in our day can boast a national stage.

THE SUEZ CANAL QUESTION.

THE ENGLISH VIEW.

LONDON, July 21, 1883.

THE negotiations of the Ministry with M. de Lesseps for the construction of a second Suez Canal are still uppermost in the public mind. The newspapers contain every morning reports of meetings of chambers of commerce, at which

the terms of the provisional agreement are discussed, and every evening Government is assailed by a storm of questions in Parliament, most of which are, of course, not so much requests for information as controversial strokes, intended to hit some weak point in the Ministerial armor. Public sentiment has already passed through two or three phases, and may have others still to pass through before one can say where it will seem to rest. Meantime several points have come out pretty clearly, and the discussion, which was at first vague and random, now turns not so much on the details of the agreement as on the legal and political situation, the claims of the Suez Canal Company, and the possibility of inducing or forcing them into stipulations more favorable to the interests of England.

It is generally admitted, even by the political adherents of the Government, that it has made some mistakes in its conduct of the affair. In the first place, there was a want of judgment in the suddenness with which the provisional agreement was sprung upon Parliament and the country. Public opinion, except in shipping circles, had not been greatly occupied with the question, and few people had examined it sufficiently to understand what were the difficulties in the way of a new arrangement. The strength, whether apparent or real, of the position of the company had not been realized, and men, therefore, did not suspect that M. de Lesseps was holding so firm an attitude and cared so little to make concessions to us. If the Ministry, when they stated the terms of the agreement, had also stated something of the position, explained their view of the situation and the reasons which had induced them to believe that the arrangements they propose were as good as any that could be got, and on the whole a great gain to British commerce, these arrangements would have been more favorably considered. By laying them nakedly and without any recommendatory words before Parliament, they allowed hostile criticism to have the first word, and when they made their defence two days later, through the mouth of Mr. Childers, a strong prepossession had already been created against the scheme. It is urged on their behalf that they did not foresee, and could not have foreseen, the disappointment of the public, but to this it is answered that they ought to have privately consulted persons who could represent or gauge the ideas of the mercantile community, and who would probably have warned them that defence and explanation were needed.

Then, besides, they are understood not to have even apprised their friends in the press of the nature of the scheme, and indicated to them what line ought to be taken in recommending its acceptance. It often makes a great difference who has the first word. If the organs of Liberal opinion had received hints as to the considerations which had determined the British negotiations, and which ought therefore to tell upon the public, they might have come out next morning with telling arguments in its favor, and prevented hostile critics from seeming to have it all their own way for three days. These are, however, minor matters. The heavier charge which is laid at the door of the Government is, that it ought not to have so directly and completely admitted the legal impregnability of the company's position. When in the course of the discussions it yielded to their claim to have an exclusive right to canal communication across the Isthmus, and still more when in publicly defending its action it announced that the law officers had given their opinion in favor of the company's exclusive right, and that it had proceeded upon the view that this right was unquestionable, it surrendered itself into the company's hands and enabled them to exact any terms they chose. It virtually, so its enemies insist, put itself and England out of court, creating insuperable difficulties in the way of such future negotiations as we may desire to take if these fall through.

By answering that it was bound in honor to proceed on what it believed to be the true legal view of the case, and that it was bound by constitutional usage to adopt and rely on the opinions of its law officers, the Government has raised the further question whether the law officers were right. Their opinion, backed as it is by the authority of so eminent a lawyer as the present Lord Chancellor (better known to American lawyers as Sir Roundell Palmer), is no doubt entitled to much respect. However, two other opinions of eminent lawyers have been obtained and published: those of Sir Hardinge Giffard, Solicitor-General under Lord Beaconsfield, and of Mr. Horace Davey, Q. C., now the most conspicuous practitioner at the Equity bar. These two high authorities, while not agreeing altogether with one another, differ from the law officers; and although the first impression of the case may be that the words "pouvoir exclusif" in the Khedive's concession, on which the company rely, do in fact give it a monopoly (if one may use that term) of water communication across the Isthmus of Suez, still there are other provisions in the documents founding the company, and other facts affecting the whole transaction, which make it very doubtful whether such a monopoly as the company claim would be recognized by the courts of most European countries as legally vested in them. This is no place for discussing the question. It is enough to remark that professional opinion in England is on the whole opposed to the law officers, though of course something may be set down to national feeling, and to the fact that the English bar is mostly Conservative in its politics.

Admitting, however, that much may be said to impugn the company's claim to a monopoly, people are beginning to feel that the matter has a moral and political as well as a purely legal side. Even if there were a court which had authority to decide the question, and that court were to pronounce against M. de Lesseps, it might not be fair or prudent to disregard him and set to work to construct, upon a new Egyptian concession, a rival canal. He has conferred immense benefits on the world by his energy and perseverance. His company has grown up in the expectation of exclusive possession of the Isthmus traffic, and has only lately entered into the large profits which that traffic now yields. If it be found that the company's pretensions cannot be reconciled with the commercial necessities of the world, ought not the company at least to receive ample compensation for the loss of its monopoly? The legal question is at any rate sufficiently doubtful to give it a fair claim to compensation, even if a judicial decision were to be given against it. The awkwardness and even danger of the situation lies in this, that the Egyptian Government, by whom both the legal question and the further question of compensation ought to be settled, is in the eyes of Europe merely the creature of England. Although we may try to leave it to itself and profess to respect its independence, it is virtually at our mercy; and whatever it does will be ascribed to our pressure. Especially will this be the view taken by the French, who are passionately jealous and suspicious with regard to Egypt, from which they think we have ousted them. Although France as a state has nothing to do with M. de Lesseps and his company, except in so far as a government is entitled to demand that high-handed injustice shall not be inflicted on its subjects, still French opinion identifies the company with the nation, and would complain of any measure, however just and even liberal to private pecuniary claims, which would remove the Isthmus trade from the control of a company domiciled in France. Hence, whatever the Egyptian Government might do would be charged on us, and we should be accused of acting through it as judges in our own cause.

It cannot be denied that much of the heated language which English speakers and writers have been using in condemning the provisional agreement springs from the notion that Egypt is now our property. People say that we have conquered it, that we have set up the Khedive, that our troops hold the country, and ask whether we have done all that only to see ourselves flouted by a French company and our shipowners fleeced by exorbitant tolls and dues. They forget that we went to and still remain in Egypt on totally different grounds, and hint that it is only the timidity of the Government which prevents our practical control from being openly asserted as equivalent to sovereignty. This unwise talk, and the tone of Chauvinism, or "Jingoism," as it used to be called, which pervades many of the assaults on the Government proposal, have provoked a reaction in favor of the Government and the more conscientious views they put forward.

The same result is following from the hastiness of the Tory leaders in seizing on the affair as a means of damaging, or upsetting, the Ministry. They have been pressing Mr. Gladstone to fix an early day for the discussion of the scheme, in order, it would seem, that they may draw him into a pitched battle before the effervescence of mercantile feeling against the agreement shall have abated. This obvious intention to gain a political advantage is telling on the Liberal party in the great towns, who are rallying to the Government irrespective of their judgment on the agreement itself. However, it is hardly to be expected that this reaction in the Government's favor will go so far as to enable them to obtain the assent of the House of Commons to that loan of eight millions which is the basis of the whole arrangement. They would have to face, not only the hostility of the whole Tory party, and of the Parnellites (who would welcome any opportunity of injuring the Government), but also the disaffection of a considerable number of their own supporters. Some few are normally disaffected, and enjoy injuring Mr. Gladstone; others, especially among the commercial men, dislike the agreement, and would rather defeat the Government than let it go through. The opinion now prevails that the scheme will be somehow shelved; that if not definitively dropped it will be postponed or referred to a committee, or that fresh negotiations will be opened. However, as Mr. Gladstone has promised a statement on the subject on Monday next, you will know the course he contemplates before these lines reach you.

Y.

THE FRENCH VIEW.

PARIS, July 19, 1883.

THERE is a curious kind of vacillation in the French Foreign Office. After the unfortunate war of 1870, the *mot d'ordre* was an absolute policy of non-intervention. Everybody spoke of the Mexican war as one of the causes of the downfall of the Empire. France, it was said, must not look beyond her frontiers; she must concentrate her forces and prepare only for defensive wars. It is difficult to say how, in a few years, this feeling gave place to a new policy, but it is obvious that Gambetta was the chief

instrument of the change. His ardent nature did not like rest, and he imagined that France, while preserving a very quiet position in Europe and in European affairs, must have an active colonial policy. He was the first inspirer of the Tunisian expedition, and the present expeditions to Tonquin and Madagascar may be considered his legacy. Gambetta was even ready in the last years of his life to engage in some common action in Europe with England. He had a very high idea of the importance of Great Britain, and thought that he could safely embark with her in some great enterprise. He tried to take England to Greece, and afterward he tried to go with her to Egypt. Public opinion in France did not follow him. At the first intimation of a possible Greek expedition, there was a general outcry against it, and Gambetta was too cautious and too fond of popularity to attempt a vain struggle against this instinctive feeling of the French masses. The Egyptian expedition was abandoned in its turn. In vain did Gambetta enlist in his cause some of the most active Republicans, some of the most influential newspapers. It seemed tempting to go hand in hand with England to Egypt, to continue with her the *condominium*, to achieve with her a certain triumph over Arabi and his followers, to show to the East the tricolor flag beside the English flag, as in the days of the Crimean war. An invincible repugnance hindered France at the last moment from uniting herself completely with England. The Tunisian expedition seemed at the time an act of great imprudence; and in order to be reconciled to it, France had to be assured that Prince Bismarck had almost forced us into it—that he favored the extension of France in Africa, and that we had absolutely nothing to fear from Germany. Tunis was on our frontier in Africa, and we drifted into the Tunisian expedition without too much difficulty. A war in Egypt was quite another affair, and nobody would hear of it. Public opinion received, however, a sort of shock when it became apparent that an expedition to Egypt would not have been a very serious matter. The victory of England was a very easy one; and while it is admitted by everybody that the military arrangements of England were excellent, that the campaign was conducted with skill and with an admirable mixture of prudence and of dash, it became clear to everybody that a European army could not in our time find any dangerous resistance in the valley of the Nile. There was, perhaps, some regret felt that we had not joined England in her fortunate campaign.

A sort of consolation was found in Tonquin. Before the defeat and death of Rivière, it was said that the conquest of Tonquin was the easiest thing in the world—it was an Oriental dream: the population were opening their arms to us, and asking to be protected by us against bands of Chinese marauders; France had within her grasp immense provinces, a new Asiatic Empire, full of unbounded wealth. Things are not quite so pleasant: we have found out, to our cost, that war is war even in Tonquin; we have had unexpected difficulties with the Chinese Government, and there is every probability that the conquest of Tonquin will be a serious, if not a difficult, affair. At the same moment, France is making an expedition to Madagascar; and though this expedition presents no difficulties in a military sense, the incidents of our occupation have already caused some uneasiness in England and in France. I was speaking, a few days ago, to a Republican Deputy, of the English missionaries in Madagascar, of the ambassadors of the Hovas, and of their visit to London, and I expressed some fear lest we should have trouble with the English in Madagascar (this was before the communication made by Mr. Gladstone to the House of Commons on the subject of Admiral Pierre and his rumored treatment of the English consular authorities), and the Republican Deputy replied: "England ought to be aware that we shall have no Pritchard affair; we shall deal with the Pritchards in another way from what Louis Philippe did." It is certain that some astonishment was felt in France when England appeared to resent the new colonial policy of the Republic, and that this astonishment has been followed by anger. The French Republicans were innocently persuaded that England would show sympathy for all their undertakings. They have lost their illusions, and are beginning to understand that this sympathy is limited by many interests, by many jealousies, even by many instincts.

The most difficult question which has arisen of late is the question of the Suez Canal. The history of the canal is well known: the opposition of England and of Lord Palmerston, the difficulties thrown in the way of M. de Lesseps, are facts familiar to everybody. England might, if she had chosen, have built the canal herself. She would not do it; her engineers, her merchants wanted faith in it. They contended that the route by the Cape of Good Hope would continue to be the great commercial thoroughfare of the world; and perhaps they would have been right if navigation by steam had not completely superseded navigation by sail. The canal had difficult beginnings—it was not immediately adopted by trade; but now the Isthmus of Suez has become the highroad of the commerce of the East, and it can be prophesied with safety that the basin of the Mediterranean will become again what it was in antiquity. All the great ports of the Mediterranean will become again what they were under the domination of Greece and Rome. It must be remembered, in fact, that there are in Asia about 400,000,000 of men, who work for the smallest imaginable wages, and who are capable of the most skilled work. If England had developed the system of Indian railways more rapidly, there would be already an immense amount of Indian flour in the markets of Europe; if ever railways are built in China (and the time will probably come when the opposition of the Chinese Government to railways will be conquered), there will be an unbounded field of exportation to China: all the goods of India, of Japan, of China will find their way to Europe through the Suez Canal. It is therefore not surprising that the question of the Isthmus of Suez should have assumed an extraordinary importance. The question at the present moment stands thus: It is universally admitted that, even with the actual ratio of increase of trade via Suez, the canal is no longer sufficient. The company has been obliged to establish stations in it, so that two ships cannot obstruct each other; ships are sometimes thrown out of their narrow way and are stranded; delays are consequently frequent, and there is only a choice between widening the canal and cutting a new one parallel to the first and connected with it by sidings. For technical reasons which it is not necessary to enumerate here, the cutting of a second canal would be the cheapest and the best solution. It would be next to impossible to widen the present canal without interrupting the navigation, and navigation cannot be interrupted.

But who is to cut this second canal? M. de Lesseps very naturally maintains that he alone has a right to do it, and he offers to do it. He needs, however, in order to do so, more land than he has obtained from the Khedive; and thus it is that he comes in contact with the English Government, as the Khedive is now in reality England. There is no doubt that if the concessions of land to the present company allowed it to cut the second canal, M. de Lesseps would simply issue new shares or make a new loan; he would easily find 200 or 300 millions of francs in France. He would cut his second canal on his own granted lands, and it is difficult to imagine how anybody could make any opposition to his schemes. But being under the necessity of having new concessions of land made to him, and being at the same time desirous to give new facilities to the trade of the world, and especially to English trade (as out of ninety tons which go through the canal, eighty tons are English), M. de Lesseps has entered into a negotiation with the English Government. The result of this negotiation has been an arrangement which is now submitted to the English Parliament. Strangely enough, the press in France at first looked on this arrangement as an abandonment of French rights, a diminution of French influence in Egypt. In England, on the contrary, there has been a terrible outburst of anger against the Government; Mr. Gladstone and Lord Granville have been almost branded as traitors. The British merchants have expressed sentiments which, if they are not always very equitable, are always very clear: what they want in reality is to be masters of the canal, to be masters of its tariffs, masters of all its regulations. They have come to look upon the canal as a piece of the open sea; they must have it; the fate of British commerce, and therefore of the British Islands, seems to depend on freedom of passage between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean. From a commercial point of view, there is much to be said on that side; it is clear that the Isthmus is and must remain the highroad of British and European commerce. The question is not wholly between a financial corporation and a state; it is really a question between limited interests and unlimited interests. But among what I call the unlimited interests I place also the interests of justice. The company which has cut the Isthmus ought not to be punished for having cut it; it may be dispossessed by Europe, by England, by the Egyptian Government, but it has rights which must be respected. How will the French Government act in this difficult question? Will it back M. de Lesseps, or leave him to struggle alone? Thus far our Foreign Office has been in the background, and awaits the result of the discussion which is soon to take place in the British Parliament.

IRISH POLITICAL CYCLES.

DUBLIN, July 23, 1883.

ANY one who has at all studied Irish politics and who can look back for forty years, must be struck with the recurrent circle in which public feeling here moves—now violently and passionately agitated, and again relapsing into long periods of calm. It has been so more or less since the Union, but I can only speak with certainty of the period referred to. Each generation appears driven on to assert itself, wisely or unwisely, against the dead pressure of its surroundings. It is beaten down, discouraged, or bought off. Somewhat is gained—seldom exactly in the direction of the sentiments which ostensibly inspired the agitation—but in the main, with almost startling rapidity, the movement which seems to have been carrying all before it subsides. On the one hand the feeling is, "All is lost," and on the other, "The contest of 700 years is at length ended."

So we had the Repeal agitation, culminating in the Young Ireland movement of 1848. The impassioned eloquence, the high hopes, the vows of eternal persistence, appeared to vanish like smoke after the State Trials and the banishment

of the chief leaders in the cause. The Queen came over in 1849, and was received with almost slavish loyalty; and within a few years matters had so quieted down that free pardons were nearly forced upon such men as Smith O'Brien and John Martin. Well do I remember an article upon Ireland in the *Times* of that period, in which, congratulating himself upon the heartfelt nature of the conquest, the writer supposed there were scarcely six persons of intelligence to be found in Ireland who then really desired Repeal. But as a younger generation grew up, inspired with hopes which had died down in older breasts, popular national feeling again began to assert itself, and after the premonitory mutterings of the Phœnix conspiracy we had the miserable Fenian years of 1865, '66, and '67. The milder Home-Rule development of nationalism followed, as the acute Young Irelandism followed O'Connell's Repeal movement. (Young Irelandism had been to a considerable extent developed through a consideration of the miseries of the famine and a conviction that O'Connell's moral-suasion sentiments had only brought contempt and disaster upon the country. Home Rule, in so far as it was not the outcome of Protestant exasperation after Disestablishment, had its rise in convictions, forced on by the devotion and honesty of the Fenian leaders, that some form of nationality was necessary for Ireland.) A very few years saw the cycle again complete, and Home Rule as an effective force as apparently dead as Repeal had once seemed. How long this grievance would have continued it is difficult to say, but for the bad harvests which followed 1877. The Land League agitation sprang into being, and we had the usual and ever recurrent phenomenon of Irish agitation—unguarded language, passions aroused, the military occupation of the country, the suspension of the Constitution, violence on both sides, arrests, trials, and imprisonments, with or without trial, of political leaders, murder and personal outrage, and the calling over of the executioner.

There is one fact that must be apparent—that these succeeding convictions primarily and mainly arise not from the passions or ambition of individuals, but from forces and necessities, however diversely and unwisely or wickedly expressed, inherent in the Irish body politic. Each political generation is, as I have said, bought off, or discouraged, or broken down. A few years pass over, a fresh set of leaders is thrown forward, and the struggle is renewed under a different name or in a different form. The continuity of leadership has been almost uniformly broken. The wish of men possessing statesman-like abilities and brilliant talents to exercise those talents is so great, that opportunity has almost always been found to attach them to the cause of the Empire at home or abroad; and once thus attached, the ties of society and position and surroundings are so strong that such men have never returned to active political life, unless under the banner of one or the other of the recognized and respectable political parties. It is true that men like the late Sir John Gray have carried their national sympathies on through life in efforts for the good of their fellow-citizens, judiciously availing themselves of, without committing themselves to, each successive wave of popular feeling. John Martin was a notable exception; but he was not a practical politician in the ordinary sense, and his convictions regarding the wants and necessities of Ireland lay too deep, and his life was too entirely apart from "society," to make it possible that he should not sympathize to some degree with each recurring development of Irish ideas. Looking among some papers lately, I was supported in my opinions regarding the hitherto ever-changing character of the *personnel* of Irish politics. I came upon the ballot list of persons proposed for the council or governing body of the Home Government Association in 1870—presumably a list of those men most prominent in Irish national politics. There were some sixty-three names, and of those but two can be said to be actively engaged at present. Many had died, others had become Conservatives or Government supporters; the majority had fallen back into that quiescence which years are so likely to bring, more especially to those attached to a cause in which there is nothing to be hoped for in the way of personal advancement.

In Sainte-Beuve's 'Causeries' there is a suggestive essay, *Les Regrets*, in which he points out the tendency of older French politicians to condemn and withhold sympathy from the younger generation that takes up the prominent or popular position once held by themselves. Perhaps it is much the same in all countries the basis of whose content is as yet unsettled, as was the portion of France when the great essayist wrote. The essay is certainly most applicable to Ireland. The bitterness of the rival writers for the favor of the country is as nothing to the bitterness of those who have been broken down or worsted in former contests. I can remember some of the survivors from "Ninety-eight," and how they despised and scorned O'Connell. It was so for the most part between the Old and Young Irelanders, the Young Irelanders and the Fenians, and later between the Fenians and the Land Leaguers. I have never heard severer condemnation of Mr. Parnell and his party than from men who were themselves Nationalists and had been bitter opponents of the Government in every form a few years ago. Perhaps it is not so with Irish Nationalists resident abroad, who appreciate the difficulties less, and are willing to side with whatever party in the present represents their hates and aspirations; but certainly it is the case in Ireland. Is this want of progressive sympathy—this antagonism to men who succeed us in public sympathy—common to the rest of the world, or is it peculiar in the Celtic nations (if it is correct to call Ireland a Celtic nation); is it, I say, a characteristic which will prevent our ever settling down in that confidence and trust which characterizes the Germanic and Anglo-Saxon nations?

I have spoken in the past tense of the phenomena which have attended the subsidence of successive political convulsions in Ireland. At present, so far as I can judge, for the first time since the Union, an Irish political party has survived the catastrophe which it brought about, and the granting of those measures of relief which it was believed would disintegrate it. Some members, like John Dillon, have broken down in health, and have for the present retired from political life; others have withdrawn from principle, unequal to those sacrifices of feeling and perhaps conscience which Mr. Parnell's Parliamentary adherents at times may have to submit to. Some have found intolerable the position of a Parnellite member in London, on very narrow means, unsustained by that consideration and respect which are accorded to other members of Parliament. There have been numerous defections for various reasons; but in the main Mr. Parnell's Parliamentary position is stronger than it was three years ago. His ablest lieutenants have gathered strength and form and experience. Their strategy may be less daring and striking, it is certainly more gentlemanly and dignified, and therefore all the more effective and formidable. This state of things is no doubt largely due to Mr. Parnell's force of character, and to the exasperating and solidifying effects of Mr. Forster's government of Ireland.

It is a matter of surprise to me how so many of these young men, with their own bread to earn and their own way to make in the world, have been able so unreservedly to give themselves to the service of their country. They have made nothing directly from the movement. At most they have been recouped for "cash out of pocket." I speak of the prominent leaders—men like Mr. Healy and Mr. Sexton. No doubt crowds of "organizers," and "agents," and underlings of the Land League were largely attracted by the open-handed expenditure of funds. Indirectly all have, of course, gained in consideration and in having what is so naturally dear to most clever men—an opportunity for the display of abilities and talents. Doubtless many have been brought forward and have secured engagements, as correspondents or otherwise, which would never have fallen to them but for their prominence as politicians. But if there were not some conviction behind they would never have continued to serve as they have done. That conviction must have its origin in most of them having so directly and immediately sprung from the people, whose spirits and wants and aspirations they represent. The places of those who have fallen away have been filled with tolerable facility. Many of these new recruits are raw and inexperienced material enough. But Mr. Parnell has the Napoleonic faculty of knowing his men, and his party has in the past developed so much unexpected ability from unknown material that we must be careful how we judge as to its future.

As for Mr. Parnell himself, I doubt whether his prestige ever stood higher than it now does. The Parnell tribute, which to-day touches £20,000, subscribed in the United Kingdom, and in the face of unlooked-for discouragement by the Church, is a surprising and solid proof of the people's faith in him and their gratitude for the devotion with which they believe he has served them. Until we know how he decides to apply this large sum, it would be idle for us to speculate as to the effects its collection may have upon his future prestige and conduct.

The Government has then for the first time, as I have said, to deal with an Irish National party which has survived the storm that swept them into power and influence—a party sobered by experience, and, it is reasonable to suppose, conservatized by years. Will this party take up and maintain such a position as will oblige and render it wise for the Government to treat with them for some permanent settlement of the Irish question, or will that party, so far as the main question of nationality is concerned, also be added to the list of Irish failures? Is it possible to hope for a settlement in our time, or will the next generation of British statesmen have to renew the conflict with untried and inexperienced men? D. B.

THE PRUSSIAN CAPITULATION.

BERLIN, July, 1883.

THE King having signed the Church Bill on the 11th instant, it has now been published in the *Reichsanzeiger* as the law of the land. It will take effect on August 1, instead of November 10 (the four-hundredth anniversary of Luther's birth), as Deputy Dove, of Göttingen, sneeringly proposed in the first Chamber. Thus the triumph of Rome has been gloriously achieved and the defeat of Prussia ignominiously consummated. I do not blame the Ultramontanes for crying and shouting victory; they know that they have never humiliated Prussia more. She has not laid down her arms on the fencing-ground, as Bismarck said some months ago, but despairingly thrown them away. It is

the greatest success which Rome has won in this century. The pusillanimous policy of Frederick William III. toward the Archbishop of Cologne, and the vacillating conduct of Frederick William IV. in all his dealings with the Church, appear firm and manly in the light of to-day's experience.

It is quite a new sort of compromise at which the Chancellor has arrived: he grants everything and obtains nothing. While Prussia has unconditionally surrendered her former proud position, Rome has obtained everything, even more than she had demanded. To keep up appearances, she complained in a diplomatic note that the Prussian Government had settled all these intricate questions with its legislature without first consulting and negotiating with her; but at the same time she is hardly able to conceal her satisfaction and heart's content, for practically the Falk laws have been abolished. Some minor items, which do not trouble much for the present, will soon follow suit; their revocation is only a question of a few months. The Pope and his cardinals, of course, praise the great diplomatic skill of Bismarck, and smilingly accept his advances, but they openly declare that they require more, and do not doubt that they will obtain further concessions.

What I blame Bismarck for most severely is, that he renewed Rome's lease on the superstition of men for several generations, by dealing with the Pope as a political power and as the compeer of a great empire. Leo XIII. is only a deposed worldly ruler, and at present nothing more than the first bishop and high-priest of those who believe in him. He has, however, never resigned his claims as a political potentate, and still expects to be reinstated. His diplomatic agents for years have worked in this direction. The so called *Kulturkampf*, as you will remember, would never have broken out if the Prussian King, in 1871, had been willing to restore the Pope as a sovereign. As the Polish Cardinal, Ledochowski, was at that time the chief promoter of this plan, so now the Polish nobility agitates the cause of the Pope at all European courts. Formerly, the aristocratic Poles dealt in revolutionary plots and outbreaks; to-day, out of spite against Germany and Prussia, they are the pivots of the Catholic Church, and, by their intimate connections with some ruling dynasties, they are at least able to cause much mischief and trouble. The Radziwills, for instance, are cousins of the Hohenzollerns; the Czartoryskis and Branickis have family connections with the Bourbons; and the Papal Nuncio in Paris, whose German ancestor's name was that of the celebrated Ulrich von Hutten, is one of the ablest Catholic intriguers: he inspired the Pope's late offensive note to Bismarck. These political adventurers are eager for a war between Russia and Germany, and make themselves useful to the courts in order to get their reward at the final settlement in the reconstruction of Poland. I do not think that they will succeed, but in the meantime they can and will do much harm.

Thus Bismarck, by losing his whole moral and political prestige, has all over Europe effected a coalition of the elements which are hostile to Prussia, to Germany, and to the whole Protestant world. We already see the effects of this retrograde movement in our immediate neighborhood. To please the Polish clergy, the Prussian Government in May last consented that the German should not form the chief language in the intermediate schools in the province of Posen. The priests now, of course, want to have it abolished altogether, and continue the contest which the Government thought ended when it yielded to Rome. On the eve of the celebration of the four-hundredth anniversary of Luther's birthday, Catholic writers publish the obscenest pamphlets against the great reformer, attributing the whole movement to Luther's voluptuousness in wanting to get married, etc. No honest man will exact admiration for Luther from Catholic priests or writers, but at least they should show a common respect for decency and a better appreciation of the historical development of mankind. A gentleman by the name of Joh. Jansen, "a Catholic professor of history" at the gymnasium of Frankfort, is publishing a history of the German people, three great volumes of which, out of six, have already appeared. He begins with the close of the fifteenth century, and tries, with an appearance of impartiality, to prove that Germany never made greater political and economical progress than at that period, while students of history know that there was hardly a corrupter time or a greater degeneration of the Church, as was afterward proved by the success of the Reformation, which, so far from being a misfortune, was a necessity and a real blessing.

The German people has itself to blame for the present unsatisfactory state of its public affairs. They will mend with a better political training. To show you our shortcomings in one word, Hamburg, a city of 400,000 inhabitants and our largest seaport, at the beginning of this month elected a Social-Democrat, Mr. Bebel, as deputy to the Reichstag. His party was in a minority, and if all the Liberals and Conservatives had stood together, Bebel's success would have been quite impossible; but there was so much petty jealousy, so much injudicious exasperation and bitter denunciation, that on election-day about a thousand Conservatives remained at home and turned the scales in favor of the Social-Democrat. A change for the better will not take place as long as the middle classes remain divided. The reactionary parties know better; they rule by dividing the people. There is a brotherly union between the old Prussian Conservatives and the Ultramontanes; in doubtful districts they even help the Social-Democrats, or are assisted by them for their common benefit. Bismarck's baneful influence on the whole country has been to decompose the social fabric, to incite one interest against another, and to loosen everything. † † †

Correspondence.

THE PRESERVATION OF MT. DESERT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Returning to Bar Harbor after an absence of four years (I have known the place for twenty), I have found myself among Californians and Westerners, with a large representation from New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. Boston and New England make the minority. I am greatly pleased to hear all these people express for the scenery an enthusiastic admiration which, if anything, surpasses what we used to hear long ago on the first discovery of this island as a watering place. It is true they see more than we did, thanks to the new roads and the abundant supply of horses; but the variety and beauty of the landscape deserve all that can be said by way of praise. There is, besides, as a paramount attraction, the coolness of the climate, which the place shares with all the Maine coast. It far more than counterbalances the fog, and people better and better understand the value of it as a factor in the summer rest. The anxious mother, with her group of energetic boys and girls; the tired clergyman, the harassed man of business, all know that their holiday will be worth infinitely more if spent where it is cool.

It is, then, a matter of great importance to the whole country that such a place should be known and enjoyed by the greatest possible number of people. It is beyond the reach of the vulgar and noisy crowd to be found near great cities, and it should be the resort of thousands of persons of moderate means. Mount Desert Island is large enough for 10,000 people in it, to choose the way of life each likes: the gayety of the hotel, or the quiet of the many comfortable boarding-houses along the forty miles of shore. Bar Harbor is, of course, the centre not only for amusement but for obtaining the appliances of cultivated life—from the skilful physician and druggist to the Jacqueminot rose—so that the future of the Island depends greatly upon the future of Bar Harbor. The large hotels are in the hands of the same families who inhabited the houses of the little hamlet twenty years ago. Little by little they have improved and added to their resources, so that now the hotels are more than fairly good, some of them quite good enough. To have done this is, it seems to me, an emphatic testimony to the teachableness and the adaptability of New England character.

But, alas! at the very moment when they might have expected assured success to reward them, they find the number of visitors is at a standstill, if it is not lessening. They are ready to sit down in dust and ashes and repent their own short-sightedness in giving up their land. To borrow your own figure, the red squirrel has gained a footing and has begun his fatal work. The cottagers do not like, and do not mean to have, if they can help it, "transient people." The land that was once dear at $50 an acre is not to be had for $1,500. For five miles each way there is no enjoyment of the shore except on sufferance more or less polite. A or B, from some distant city, builds his cottage and bars his gate entirely. Consequently the native at Otter Cliffs, whose wild land never bore so much as a blueberry, thinks himself magnanimous to allow the buckboards to enter at twenty cents apiece.

This shore was the precious birthright of the people of Maine, and they have sold it for worse than a mess of pottage, for chains in which they themselves are to be bound hard and fast. "What!" said an indignant New Yorker yesterday, "shut up this place to fifty families, as against the whole American people!" But this, I fear, must happen unless some most strenuous efforts are made. It is a question of the same kind as that at Niagara, and the scale is not so very much less, since this is "the only neighborhood of mountain and sea on all our Atlantic coast."

Morally and æsthetically, it concerns the thousands of families of moderate means to whom this island may be a summer resort. Shall the few very rich refuse to share it with them? If Bar Harbor is shut up, it will put back for twenty years the development of the coast. Practically, it is of the utmost consequence, in the first instance to the merchants of Portland, and next, to all New England, that the thousands of dollars which would be brought to the coast by Californians and Westerners shall not be lost to their trade. The islanders are divided among themselves now. They know that danger is ahead, but each is so busy frying his own little fish that he does not see that the fire on which all depend is already going out. United effort on their part, led by the hotel-keepers and backed by the steamboat and railroad corporations, may avail something yet. But it must be done quickly.

As to the cottagers, they ought to see that it is to no effort of theirs, but to the patronage of the transient company they dislike, that they owe the steamboats, railroads, stages, telegraphs, telephones, and the thousand and one comforts now gathered at Bar Harbor. Some concessions

from them would be prudent as well as graceful. Moreover, there is a certain fine and delicate consideration by which legal rights might be enjoyed without awakening an irritating sense of usurpation. A. R.

BAR HARBOR, July 25, 1883.

LAW OF OUR AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the description of "An Unaltered Swiss Colony," in the *Nation* of August 2, "J. D. B." states that the handful of 108 persons who founded the colony of New Glarus in 1845, by its increase numbers 4,000. I wish he had stated how many remain a part of the colony, or how many of them are in adjacent towns. As a radius of six miles is afterward named as a population without Yankees, there is evidently an overflow into adjacent towns; but it is not easy, without just the information "J. D. B." probably could have given us, to know how many of the 4,000 have entirely left the colony.

New Glarus is by no means a densely-settled town. Under a mistaken impression from the description, that a dense population was spoken of, I had peculiar reasons for a little examination of other information regarding that remarkable community. The towns here referred to are townships six miles square, or containing 23,040 acres each. The numerals in the diagram below represent the relative position of New Glarus and all the towns which touch it. The central town (5) is New Glarus. The upper tier of towns is in Dane County, and the rest are in Greene County, Wis. They are all rural towns, no railroad passing within, say, six miles of any of them. The following table presents their population for a series of decades, beginning with 1850. In 1840 there were not 1,300 people in the forty-three townships now forming Dane and Greene Counties. The numbers used for the towns correspond to the positions indicated for each on the diagram above.

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9

No.	Town.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.
1	Perry	638	837	1,051	924
2	Primrose	334	889	1,015	888
3	Montrose	372	1,184	1,287	1,108
4	York	191	904	1,088	1,049
5	New Glarus	511	960	958	1,060
6	Exeter	459	1,040	949	893
7	Adams	275	840	1,007	930
8	Washington	307	838	901	882
9	Mt. Pleasant	579	1,240	1,164	1,086

This table is strongly illustrative of a general law of the tendency of the agricultural population of the United States, to the effect that, when a farming town is so occupied that its land is all brought into use, the population is at its maximum. Special reasons will modify this truth, as fruit-farms or market gardens, but as a general rule it will show in the experience of the country, from Maine to the older towns west of the Mississippi. The first settlers have about them increasing families, relatively large, till the older children start out for themselves. On migration, a disproportionate number of old people and childless families remain, shown often in the decrease of the number of children of school age. There is also a disposition of the elderly people to retire from farming to a village or other compact community. Many counties of States west of the lakes lost population between 1870 and 1880, and in many counties the gain shown was through the growth of their included cities, while their agricultural districts had lost inhabitants.

In large portions of the country the census of 1850 showed the population that was beginning to occupy the new land. There was a general, considerable increase to 1860 in these localities. Where that increase brought all the land into proprietary use, emigration began, seeking relief by taking new land rather than in subdivision and closer cultivation. In the little table of nine towns herewith, it will be seen that New Glarus and Exeter each lost in the decade from 1860 to 1870, when presumably all the land of these towns was brought under personal control. In the decade from 1870 to 1880, every one of the nine towns, except New Glarus, lost population, and New Glarus only gained enough to make an increase of 100 in twenty years. Four of the towns lost enough in the last decade to make a loss from their population of 1860.

The experience of New Glarus in this regard is the more notable, as the settlers began with small farms and high tillage. They now occupy land enough to give almost every person, infants included, a farm of twenty-two acres, such as they worked in the beginning. They seem to have grown to the American style of occupancy and of emigration for more opportunity.

These towns form a body of land extending into the county containing the capital of the State and a part of the beautiful and fertile Rock River Valley, whose advantages have not prevented even a higher rate of migration from it in this present decade, as definite statistics of the recent movement to Dakota would probably tend to show if they were available.

Yours truly, JAS. H. BLODGETT.

WASHINGTON, D. C., August 3, 1883.

TEACHING AND SECTARIANISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The hope expressed by "Professor," in the *Nation* of July 26, that our "State colleges" may cure the evil of selecting professors for their religious preferences mainly, and their scientific value secondarily, will, I fear, hardly succeed if we are to judge by the practice of city boards of education in the Western States. From some years of experience and observation, I can speak with confidence on this point. I know of many towns in which an incompetent superintendent of schools has been retained for years simply by religious or church influences, and of instances in which very able men have lost their places, or failed in getting them, for the reason that they were no-church members.

Now, our public schools are removed as far as possible, in theory, from religious influence, being supported by general taxation. Yet in most towns you will find some one church strong enough to make its leanings felt and obeyed in selecting a superintendent. The case of Superintendent Kiddle, of New York, a few years ago, is in point. In fact, I believe that even our denominational colleges are freer from this fault than many of our towns and cities.

SUPERINTENDENT.

NEW CASTLE, IND., July 30, 1883.

HONORARY DEGREES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your editorial of July 5, in favor of the abolition of honorary degrees, was read by myself, and, I doubt not, by many others, with great interest. I can mention at least one college which has never given, and, let us hope, will never give, an honorary degree. I refer to the University of Virginia. It were a "consummation devoutly to be wished" if every other college in the country would follow the example.

Respectfully, R. H. DABNEY.

MUNICH, July 19, 1883.

CONVICT INDEXING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I find a sad case of "convict indexing" in the catalogue of the Boston Public Library. Under "Mathematics" there appears the following entry:

"FRANCE. *Ministry of Public Instruction.* Œuvres de Lagrange, publiés par les soins de J. A. Serret. . . ."

The absurdity of this entry would remain even if we found the title repeated when we came to Lagrange, which, however, is not the case under "Mathematics," though some other editions of a few of his works are there given. X.

Notes.

SHAKESPEARIANA will be the title of a new monthly magazine, to appear in November under the auspices of the Leonard Scott Publishing Company, 41 Barclay Street. As the name implies, its aim will be exclusive. Its several departments will be a Society Column (not to be confounded with the common feature of certain journals, and more properly to be designated Societies Column), a Dramatic Column, a Notes and Queries Column, and a Review Column. The editorial direction is as yet anonymous.

Nearly two years ago we commented on the report of the Philosophical Faculty of the University of Berlin, concerning the effect of admitting graduates of the real (practically non-classical) schools to the universities, and the comparative value of classical and non-classical training for the higher education as deducible therefrom. Perhaps in consequence of Mr. C. F. Adams, jr.'s late onslaught upon the Greek, a translation of this report is now about ready to be issued by Ginn, Heath & Co., in connection with the inaugural address of Dr. A. W. Hofmann on the cognate theme of a division of the philosophical faculty, delivered in 1880, and likewise noticed by us.

The Rev. J. I. Mombert, of Paterson, N. J., proposes to reprint with critical collations the little-known first edition of Tyndale's version of the Pentateuch, made directly from the Hebrew. To do this a long residence abroad will be necessary, and the enterprise depends upon the obtaining of subscribers to 1,000 copies at $5 each. The sum thus realized will cover first expenses, and the book will then be given to the trade at double the price just named. Subscriptions may be sent as above, but the privilege will cease on October 1, 1883.

Charles Scribner's Sons will publish 'Recollections of a Naval Officer,' by Captain William H. Parker, who began midshipman U. S. N., in 1841, and twenty years later resigned his commission to enter the Confederate service. They have also in preparation a complete and uniform edition of the works of Donald G. Mitchell, in ten volumes, of which three will contain much new matter. 'The Reveries of a Bachelor' will introduce the series.

A 'Handbook of the Earth; or, Natural Methods in Geography,' by Louisa Parsons Hopkins, is announced by Lee & Shepard.

Mr. W. M. Griswold's thirteenth index is to "articles relating to History, Biography, Literature, Society, and Travel, contained in collections of essays, etc." (Bangor: Q. P. Index). It fills but forty-six pages, yet it refers to no less than 799 volumes enumerated in the key. The reference is by the conventional number, since in the nature of the case the page is not available. We should add that the works indexed are in English, French, and German, and that the key is so arranged as to show the authors of es-

says in collections like Mr. Griswold's own *Monograph*. This tireless worker announces as in press an index to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, beginning with September, 1870. Should it meet with a favorable reception, the volumes for 1848–70 will subsequently be treated in the same way, as will also the *Revue Germanique* and *Revue Contemporaine*.

Drs. Gray and Trumbull conclude their review of De Candolle's 'Origin of Cultivated Plants' in the current number of the *American Journal of Science*.

With its twenty-fifth issue *Science* presents an index to vol. i. (February–June, 1883), which is thorough in a degree not common with periodicals. The typography of this paper has of late been much improved in the direction of greater openness and attractiveness.

In the August number of the *Magazine of American History* Capt. Reuben M. Potter concludes his highly readable series of papers on the history of the revolt, independence, and annexation of Texas, which he relates with much humor and insight. Mr. B. F. De Costa makes an interesting rejoinder to Mr. George Bancroft, in defence of a former criticism of this writer's latest edition of his 'History of the United States.'

Editions of Shakspere, Early Social Life in New England, and Madison's Administrations, are the topics of the double July-August number of the *Monthly Reference List* (F. Leypoldt).

The enduring value of literature as such is nowhere better illustrated than in the vitality of certain historical works which, though followed by generations of more accurate books by better informed writers, never lose their popularity or the glory of constant new editions. Perhaps there is no better instance of this than Voltaire's 'Charles XII.,' which has just reappeared in Roberts Brothers' very neat and attractive "Classic Series." Like Herodotus, Voltaire, as an historian, has been, the last thirty years, appreciating in value. It has been shown that he did not rely upon his imagination for any of his facts, employing that faculty only in trimming and dressing his anecdotes. But while criticism has proved him to have been industrious and painstaking, it has not acquitted him of carelessness, and his description of Catherine I. contains one of the most amusing blunders in historical literature. While an editor may properly feel bound to make no change in his author's text, he should not repeat, without a hint of its incorrectness, so obvious an error as the following. Voltaire wrote: "Sa mère était une malheureuse paysanne nommée Erb-Magden," his authority for the fact being an anonymous work, published in 1727, which reported that "ein solches Erb-Mädchen [or Erb-Magd] nun war auch die leibliche Mutter der Czaarin."

The 'Tourist's Guide Book to the United States and Canada,' which bears both a London imprint and that of G. P. Putnam's Sons, is obviously a foreign production, as a single line from the "introductory information" will show: "The express system [for railway baggage delivery] is *to a certain extent* a convenience." In general, the editing is trustworthy, even if one meets with such unaccountable omissions as that of Long Beach among New York seaside resorts, and of the new Old South among the notable churches in Boston. We can commend this work also for its literary quality, which is above the average, and the print and binding, which are in excellent taste. An elaborate section is devoted to the shooting and fishing resorts of North America. There are numerous maps and some illustrations—the latter not remarkable.

Col. T. W. Knox reappears as the traveller's friend in his new 'Pocket Guide around the World,' uniform with his 'Pocket Guide for Europe' (Boston: Lee & Shepard). The first chapter will reconcile the purchaser to the whole cost of the book. The author's racy humor makes the reading a pastime. Thus, "in travelling in the interior of Japan or China," he says, "as well as in other countries, the passport is often of decided advantage. A man who can't read the document will often respect it more than one who can. . . . A theatre handbill or an advertising placard has been known to serve the purposes of a passport." An ingenious improvement in this guide book consists in putting the names of hotels in the index only (annexed to the name of their respective places), so that changes can be made without disturbing the stereotyped pages of the text.

The first volume of Prof. Henry Morley's new "Universal Library" (Routledge) contains Sheridan's plays, with a perfunctory four-page biographical and critical sketch of the dramatist by the editor. The second volume is more original and curious; it is called 'Plays from Molière by English Dramatists,' and contains Dryden's "Sir Martin Marall" ("L'Étourdi"); Vanbrugh's "Mistake" ("Le Dépit Amoureux"); Wycherley's "Plain Dealer" ("Le Misanthrope"); Fielding's "Mock Doctor" and "Miser" ("Le Médecin malgré lui" and "L'Avare"); and Colley Cibber's "Non-Juror" ("Tartuffe"). All students of Molière will be glad to have these six adaptations in a single handy volume, while well aware that the plays of Vanbrugh, Wycherley, or Cibber are not in any way representative of Molière. They are strong and interesting, but, in spite of free borrowing, they are not Molière's. Prof. Morley's introductory note reveals no special study of the French dramatist.

The Chicago method of establishing relations between the public schools and the public library is related in Mr. Poole's eleventh annual report. At his suggestion, a class at a time from the high schools or upper forms of the grammar schools was brought to the Public Library on Saturday forenoon, to be initiated into the mode of research in studying a particular subject. The proper books were laid out in advance, and the teacher delivered a little lecture. The books were then examined, and afterward a glimpse was given of the library's contents and management. The result has been very gratifying.

M. Alfred Bougeault has published (Paris: Plon) a study of the mental condition of Rousseau and his death at Ermenonville, concluding, in accordance with the general opinion, that he became a monomaniac and committed suicide. But *Le Livre*, speaking of Houdon's death-mask in the late Paris exhibition, which shows the wound in the head, says that it does not discredit M. Castellant's theory that Rousseau was murdered by Thérèse Le Vasseur—a theory not new, of course, but based in this case upon long study.

The music of a Japanese sailor's song and of a nursery air is given on the last page of the *Chrysanthemum* (Yokohama.)

—We remarked, a few months ago, in reviewing the 'Imperial Dictionary,' on the cyclopædic tendency of what used to be called the common dictionary. Webster's departure from the standard has been greatly surpassed in the 'Imperial,' and now we have the frankly designated 'Encyclopædic Dictionary,' edited by Robert Hunter, M.A., and published by Cassell & Co. (2 vols. in four separately bound parts—A–Destructionist). Without being either a gazetteer or a biographical or historical dictionary, it will make, we estimate, not less than eight volumes, or two for one of the 'Imperial.' Comparing the two works still further, we find the later somewhat less attractive typographically, and its arrangement of definitions, though logical, sometimes rather too formal for clearness and ready reference; its vocabulary is not everywhere more inclusive, nor the articles always longer. On the other hand, the execution of the 'Encyclopædic Dictionary' strikes us as praiseworthy both for freshness and for accuracy; the numerous woodcuts, if not the finest, are always pertinent; and in several particulars it may claim both distinction and superiority. Some of the peculiarities are the large proportion of Scotch words and of obsolete words; the subjoining of obsolete spellings to the present form of words (*e. g.*, assail, assaile, assayle, asaile, asayle, asayli); the placing of compounds under the leading root, with an arbitrary hyphenizing which leads to such vain repetitions as cube, . . . cube-numbers, cube numbers, . . . cube-ore, cube ore, . . . cube-spar, cube spar, etc.; the secondary qualifying of a substantive as an adjective when used in compounds (*e. g.*, bilge, *s.* . . . *adj.* . . . bilge-board, bilge-water, etc.)—a needless refinement, and not consistently observed (for example, no adjective sense is noted under bill and brine for their compounds). The definitions are generally good, and we can cite a perfect one in a crucial Americanism—carpet-bagger: "An American slang term for those petty politicians who, after the civil war, migrated into the Southern States for temporary residence and personal advantage." And while America is in question, let us remark that the editor, under beaver, refers for the whole subject to Mr. L. H. Morgan's monograph. The scientific definitions seem to us cautious and trustworthy. In some instances the definer's "personal equation" amuses, as in the sentence (of the banana): "It and its congener, the plantain, are, *in the writer's opinion*, the finest of all tropical fruits." Of the same character is the interjected phrase, "as if the captain had been a beleaguered British camp in Afghanistan or Zululand," when telling, under boycott, of the relief expedition. The same precision which leads to a very frequent giving of chapter and verse for the illustrative passages cited, insures our learning that the Irishman Burke who added a verb transitive to the language, "was executed in Edinburgh on January 28, 1829." The definition of closure is a good specimen of late and full information as to the origin of a neologism. We need say no more of the present instalment of a dictionary not much more costly than works of the same class, and pretty certain to meet with popular favor.

—Mr. Henry J. Morgan's 'Dominion Annual Register and Review' for 1882 (Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co.), is the best executed and most interesting of a series which has been highly praiseworthy from the start. We have before commended it to the attention of political thinkers on this side the border. Nearly all our "questions" arise also in the Dominion. Thus, in 1882, that country anticipated us in reforming its civil service, as the result of a Government commission of inquiry. The abuse was not in the tenure of office, but in the appointments, which were the prerogative of the Administration, and hence became prostituted to party ends. The act passed on May 11 established a board and all the other machinery of competitive examinations, and, while permitting the officers known as deputy heads of departments to be removed by the Governor-in-Council, compelled the reasons therefor to be reported to Parliament—a valuable safeguard. The Canadian Pacific Railway Royal Commissioners reported in April that the construction had been unnecessarily costly, slow, and imperfect by reason of political appointees "selected on party grounds, irrespective of the question whether their engagement would be ad-

vantageous to the public interests." In other respects the railway seems to be giving no concern, the payments to the syndicate being offset by the sale of land-grant bonds. The Intercolonial Railway, too, is at last making both ends meet, and an act passed last year authorizes a subsidy to be paid on the completion and satisfactory working of a ship-railway between the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Bay of Fundy—from Tignish on Baie Verte, to the mouth of the River La Planche. Subsidies have also been promised to certain steamship lines, and the Dominion is pressing the mother country for a reciprocity treaty with the Sandwich Islands, while stiffly maintaining its new policy of protection. To this policy the electors committed themselves afresh on the dissolution of Parliament, and though the large Government majority was slightly reduced, the Opposition met with the great misfortune of having their weightiest leaders shelved. There was a new apportionment of representatives, in consequence of the census of 1881, not without charges by the Opposition of gerrymandering; and by one of the clauses of the act each candidate is obliged to deposit $200, to be returned in case his vote is at least half that of his successful rival. The immigration during the year amounted to 113,000. An alarm was raised about the influx of Chinese on the west coast, but was stilled when the Government protested that the Pacific Railway could not be finished without them.

—The relations of the Dominion to the mother country have been significantly affected during the year. The deceased wife's sister bill, recovering from its defeat the year before, was handsomely carried in both houses, and is now law. What Mr. Goldwin Smith called a bid by both parties for the Irish vote—the Parliamentary memorial to the Queen on the beauties of Home Rule as exemplified in the Dominion—should at least not have displeased this critic as a sign of national independence. To this was added an attempt to get permission to negotiate commercial treaties directly, instead of through the Imperial Foreign Office. On the other hand, the Imperial Privy Council sustained the Government in passing laws to regulate the liquor traffic, in contravention of provincial statutes, on the ground that the temperance act in question (local option) was for the maintenance of "the peace, order, and good government of Canada." The Federal relations have been ruffled by the unsettled dispute over the northern and western boundaries of Ontario, the present Government repudiating the arbitration authorized by its predecessor, and demanding a settlement by the Supreme Court or in England. The executive veto of local legislation has also caused much feeling, and appears to be a somewhat vague power. The right to take certain members of the Cabinet from the Senate has been challenged as an encroachment on the province of the House. Mr. Morgan makes his customary review of the progress in education, literature, science, and the arts. Parliament has abolished the postage on newspapers and periodicals mailed from the office of publication. A Royal Society of Canada has been formed, amid some jealousies, seeing that the first members were not strictly those "who had published original works or memoirs of merit, or had otherwise rendered eminent services to literature or science." An Iroquois Lexicon, by the Abbé Cuoq, is perhaps the most noteworthy work published during the year. In the Obituary occur the names of two brothers, the last of the Loyalist family of Ryerson. One of these, the Rev. A. E. Ryerson, was the author of a recent work on the Loyalists, of some magnitude and importance.

—In the preface to his 'Essais de littérature anglais,' M. James Darmesteter (it is to be noted how often Frenchmen who have any acquaintance with English literature have English names) strongly recommends the study of the English language. For the scientific man, he would prefer German, of course; but for commerce, German will give him access to only 80,000,000 buyers, English to 300,000,000, and Spanish to the rest of the world. In literature, France has already learnt more, and has hereafter more to learn, from England than from Germany. The German spirit is too far removed from the French; it must be filtered through the English before it can have any effect. And, finally, England is the only country in Europe from which France can draw political lessons, the only country that can teach her respect for the individual and his rights—respect for the law, not as an abstract theory, but as a living fact; and, finally, that progress must start from the actual present, and not from an imaginary state of things, and that society may be transformed, but cannot be created. It is curious to find M. Darmesteter declaring that America is becoming Germanized; that more gratitude is felt toward the one German volunteer in the Revolutionary war than for the army and the fleet that France sent; that because Bancroft declares that German sympathy sustained us then more than French, in a century American school-histories will teach that La Fayette was a German.

—The English Conservatives complain of the Americanization of English politics, manners, food, and magazines. American humorists laugh at the English airs put on by a small number of our own countrymen. Japan is fast losing all its charm in its imitation of Occidental ways and costume. A French grumbler sings the same pæan. It is not merely that people take leave *à l'anglaise*—that is, without a word to the hostess—or that young ladies conduct themselves *à l'américaine*—that is, as if they were already married—and that the *rastaquouères* (the foreign element at Paris) crowd the theatres and give a hundred nights' run to dull plays, flock to the exhibitions though they cannot distinguish a Delacroix from a photograph "thrown up" if the Delacroix is not signed, substitute paste for diamond, make all sorts of stupid things successful, swallow the fashion whole, exaggerate the eccentricity of costumes, applaud any notoriety—all this is not enough, but the French, it is complained, prefer everything exotic. Their tailors are English, so are their hats; their tapestry is Chinese; their jewelry is made in America; their leather-work comes from Vienna; their table linen is Russian; their furniture is Anamite, with incrustations, or Chinese, of teak; their chandeliers Flemish; their prima-donnas American; their wines Spanish; their very cookery—the famous French cookery—is taking on foreign ways. Even Faure sings in Italian, and only Judic, who has gone to London, and Bernhardt and Théo, who have just returned from America, keep up the old French traditions. Such is the lament. Is it not wonderful that, with such a mixture of the fluids in this great vessel of the world, there is any national flavor left?

—The death is announced, in recent English journals, of Mr. Edward B. Eastwick, an English Orientalist, whose name is attached, as that of editor, translator, or author, to a goodly array of volumes. Among the various ventures which Mr. Eastwick essayed in literature, his translation of the first edition of Bopp's 'Comparative Grammar' unquestionably ranks foremost in merit. His English versions of Persian, Hindustani, and Hindi works are deservedly held in no special estimation. Nor is his 'Hindustani Grammar' an advance, in any one point, on its numerous predecessors, though it was executed at a time when they might all have been easily thrown into the shade. To say truth, the quality of the books which he produced is noticeably out of proportion to their quantity; and the latest of them is almost as faulty as the earliest. Far short, consequently, of a place in the first class is that which he achieved as a scholar. Mr. Eastwick, who died at Ventnor on the 16th of July, was in his seventieth year.

—The annual reports of the officers in charge of two of the chief observatories of foreign governments include some points worthy of special note. The Astronomer Royal, W. H. M. Christie, F.R.S., records the gift by the Misses Lassell to the Greenwich Observatory of the great two-foot reflecting telescope, constructed by their father, with which he discovered the Saturnian satellite Hyperion in 1848. This instrument has two specula, and will be brought into active use at once by the Greenwich observers. The regular subjects of observation with the meridian circle continue to be the sun, the moon, the planets, and fundamental stars. A new working-list of 2,600 stars, comprising all those down to the sixth magnitude, inclusive, which have not been observed since 1860, has been prepared, and was brought into use in March last. An unusual number of meridian observations of comets have been made during the year. The observations of the moon with the altitude-and-azimuth instrument, which have heretofore consumed so large a part of the attention of the observers and computers, are now restricted to the first and the last quarters of each lunation, the intermediate semi-lunation being sufficiently provided for by the meridian observations. There results from this arrangement a great economy of the working force of the establishment, and its consequent availability for other research of greater interest and importance. More than one hundred and fifty measures of the displacement of lines in stellar spectra have been made for determining the motions of stars in the line of sight. The observations of the spectrum of Sirius during the past winter tend on the whole to confirm the impression that the rate of recession of this star has diminished progressively since 1877, and that the motion is now on the point of being converted into one of approach. The brilliant aurora of last November was spectroscopically observed, and the spectrum of comet *a* 1882 showed the remarkable yellow sodium lines with great brilliancy just before perihelion passage. Photographs of the sun were taken on two hundred days, on seven of which the disc was observed to be free from spots. The magnetic and meteorological observations have gone on as in former years, substantially unchanged. Not only are the numerical reductions of all the observations reported in an extraordinary state of forwardness, but their value is greatly enhanced by the promptness with which they are put in print, the volume of 'Greenwich Observations for 1880' having been distributed in July of last year, and the volume for 1881 having been passed for the press early in the present year.

—The report of Admiral Mouchez, the director of the Paris Observatory, places on record signal improvements in the Observatory itself—the extension of its grounds, the installation of a new form of instrument styled "équatorial coudé," and the construction of subterranean chambers for the study of terrestrial physics. The revision of Lalande's star catalogue has been carried so far that the printing of the 'Catalogue général de l'Observatoire de Paris' is already commenced. This catalogue will contain more than forty thousand stars, and will be

completed in eight volumes. In connection with this work, 110,000 observations have been made during the past four years. The special meteorological service has been separated from the Observatory, and only such meteorological observations are now made as will serve the purpose of determining the proper corrections for astronomical observations. The Paris Observatory is the first to employ the captive balloon in the study of the state of the atmosphere at a considerable elevation above the Observatory. The construction of the great telescope, some sixteen metres in length, is progressing. The dome covering it will be about twenty metres in diameter—the largest in existence—and will be mounted in an entirely novel manner, being floated by an annular caisson plunged in a receptacle of similar shape, and filled with some liquid not liable to freeze. The brothers Henry, who went up the Pic du Midi to an altitude of nearly eight thousand feet to observe the transit of Venus last December, reported on their return so extraordinary an atmosphere that Admiral Mouchez has taken immediate steps toward the erection of an observatory there. During the intervals of unfavorable weather at Paris, it is proposed to send two or three astronomers up to this auxiliary observatory to make use of the brilliant sky of the Pic du Midi.

—Since writing our review of Professor Vámbéry's 'Origin of the Magyars' (*Nation*, No. 936), in which we exhibited the looseness and intrinsic weakness of his speculations on the original affinity of his nation to the Turkic tribes, in antagonism to the better supported and almost generally accepted Finnic theory of Paul Hunfalvy, Budenz, and others (see *Nation*, No. 889), we have received a pamphlet from the pen of Hunfalvy devoted to a thorough criticism of that work ('Vámbéry's Ursprung der Magyaren besprochen . . .'; Vienna and Teschen, 1883). It is intended to counteract the impression which Vámbéry's German publication (his work appeared both in that language and in Hungarian) might produce on the learned public outside of Hungary, to which the best writings of the leading Pesth philologists and ethnologists are sealed books. That it could not have been a hard task for Hunfalvy to expose the hollowness of many of his opponent's assertions and argumentations, and the levity with which he proceeds in his archæological researches generally, we need not state after what we said and pointed out in the review above referred to. The pamphlet seems to us, however, to contain too much Magyar philological matter to be sufficiently intelligible and palatable to scholars unfamiliar with that language and the controversy about its affinities, and, on the other hand, not sufficiently exhaustive and convincing on many points learnedly touched upon. The tone in which Hunfalvy replies to Vámbéry's attacks on the results and products of so many years of his literary labor, is neither one of supercilious superiority nor of indignation roused by flimsy opposition, but of politeness, more or less sincerely assumed at the beginning, gradually exhausted, and finally yielding to contempt. He begins by designating Vámbéry as his "famous countryman," then mildly blames his want of perspective and similar deficiencies, and subsequently points out the inadequacy of his knowledge of his native tongue, and finally impugns his veracity by alluding to the deceptions once practised by him, as false dervish, on the credulity of ignorant Turkomans—deceptions spoken of with much self-complacency in the book of travels in Central Asia which, twenty years ago, procured him his world-wide renown. That this recital of travels has also been—as even recently in our columns by a correspondent in Vienna—assailed as based on borrowed knowledge and on personal experiences mainly invented, Hunfalvy nowhere hints at, either from a total disbelief in the accusation or from regard for the honor of a writer and scholar whom Hungary has distinguished, and Europe acknowledged, as one of her celebrities.

RECENT NOVELS.

Arden By A. Mary F. Robinson. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Tiger Lily, and Other Stories. By Julia Schayer. Charles Scribner's Sons.

For the Major. By Constance Fenimore Woolson. Harper & Bros.

The Ladies Lindores. By Mrs. Oliphant. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Master Bieland and his Workmen. By Berthold Auerbach. Translated by E. Hancock. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

Princess Amélie. [No-Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros.

A Foolish Virgin. By Ella Weed. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Aut Cæsar aut Nihil. By the Countess M. von Bothmer. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Senior Songman. By the author of 'St. Olave's.' Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Noris: Mœurs du Jour. Par Jules Claretie. Paris: Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern.

Le Collier d'Acier. Par Fortuné de Boisgobey. Paris: Plon; New York: F. W. Christern.

THREE reflections will be made upon 'Arden' by the discriminating reader: First, it contains many exquisite little pictures of English landscape; second, lovely as is the heroine, and worthy as are most of the characters, there is no coherency, no reality in the story; third, the American youth, as portrayed at second-hand from Mr. James's pages, is an even more provoking figure in its misconceptions than the American girl as just now rendered in English fiction. The author should, however, have the credit of some quite good imitations of fashionable art-talk.

'Tiger Lily' is the first of five short stories written with a vigor and a brightness that will win a reading for them. At the same time, it is evident that the writer starts with preconceived and not very original notions about the ordering of human affairs, which are only a hindrance to her in the understanding of the real life which she could describe so well if she but saw it.

Miss Woolson has made 'For the Major' a very fresh and original story, though using what belongs to the most common of stock materials: a doting old man, a young and pretty second wife, a stepdaughter, beautiful, proud, and ready for any jealousy, and a fine young clergyman. The reader will find none of the old combinations, but a story of sweet and devoted self-sacrifice. It turns upon a disguise successful for its intended purpose, and so well described that most readers will believe in it. Cleverly as it is imagined, a doubt will arise whether, easily as the world might be deceived, it could be maintained in the innermost privacy without presupposing a senility which is not at all the author's intention. The villain of the piece is nothing worse than a ne'er-do-weel, and there is no humiliating discovery, but only Mme. Carroll's own accusations of herself. The impressions from the story would be more harmonious if the change after her confession had not been so great. The disillusion is made too complete. A woman scarcely fifty could still be beautiful, even though she owned to all her years. It would be a nice question in casuistry, how far it is right to avail one's self of an illusion not of one's own creating. Is it strictly honorable? Since the gentle little lady had only good motives, and used her advantage only for the happiness of those she deceived, we willingly lend ourselves to the belief that her design might have succeeded, when, if evil had been meant, every reader would have protested against its probability.

It was skilful art to put the young lovers a little out of the centre of the picture, to keep them back from the foreground; but the closing chapter is a mistake. The repetition of the marriage ceremony with an uncomprehending old man is a theatrical incident out of keeping in a story otherwise so well balanced. If it were actually necessary, then it upsets the whole plot, for no law recognizes the deed of an imbecile. It is made out as a satisfaction to Mme. Carroll's own feeling, but that does not help the matter. A woman might have her fancies, but the rector should have been able to convince her, on the one side, that, sincerely believing herself a widow, she had been purely and truly married in the sight of God; and, on the other, that no law of man would be satisfied by a clergyman's blessing given in a bed-chamber without certificate and without witnesses. Better to have left her, as the world believed her, a true and faithful wife.

The little neighborhood about Dalruzlian and Lindores has in it a less attractive group of people than those we are used to expect from Mrs. Oliphant, but she could not tell a dull story. It is a tale of suffering scarcely compensated by a late-come happiness, "a wistful pale sky, clear-shining after the rain." The tragic part of the story is well contrived, and illustrates, though perhaps unintentionally, the truth that is little realized (because, fortunately, the circumstances seldom occur), that confession is not always a duty. The reader feels that moral justice is done, though legal acumen is entirely at fault. The two or three delightful old servants are worth knowing. Miss Barbara's two women, "who made her comfort and credit the occupation of their lives," are well matched by Rolls, the butler, who, in fact, is nothing less than the *deus ex machinâ*. Agnes, the housekeeper, lamenting the death of the old laird, says,

"with a sort of admiring wonder, 'Eh, to think when ye have a man, that ye shouldna be able to take care of him!' She had never attained that dignity herself. Janet, who was a widow, gave a glance upward at the pensive old maiden of mingled condescension and contempt.

"'And if ye had a man, ye would be muckle made up wi' him,' she said. 'It's grand to be an auld maid, for that—that ye aye keep your faith in the men.'"

Rolls, besides all the rest he has to do, enlightens us, like a Greek chorus, with sage moral reflections upon the play the novelist presents to us, summing up at last: "Marriages, in my opinion, is what most shakes your faith in Providence." There is an amusing variant upon what, since Mrs. Oliphant has taken it up, will soon be called the *usual* American episode. There is a Nellie, a rare and charming damsel. "Lady Reseda thought her very like Daisy Miller." Yet it is not upon her that the Marquis of Millefleurs bestows his expectations of a dukedom, but upon her plain faced, plain-spoken maiden aunt.

The date of 'Master Bieland' is fixed by the Philadelphia Exposition, which figures in its pages, but in it Auerbach returned to the same theme which was long ago the *motif* of 'Edelweiss'—coöperation in handicraft. Then it was the clockmakers', here it is the shoemakers'. There is in it that same comprehension of the significance of all the littleness of the life of a small community which was the success of his first stories, though there is less of picturesque

detail such as made us intimate with the Black Forest. But there is a new force to be reckoned with in the workshop and the tavern; and in such a character as Rabenalt, Auerbach shows how it creeps, hardly suspected, into every place. In the end the cheat, the hypocrisy of the Socialist emissary is punished, but it is evident that the old peace of those little towns and villages has been once for all broken. The translation is an easier English than usually comes out of the cumbrous German, but in some places equivalents rather than literal renderings seem to be needed. The man who is called the "bank-attorney" is obviously a much more important personage than those words imply to English ears.

'The Princess Amélie' gives us, in what might be called a Franco-German dress of the eighteenth century, the old story of an early betrothal or marriage, a long separation, and then a falling in love as between strangers. It is very ingeniously contrived to bring upon the scene, not unnaturally, many persons notable or famous in history just before the outbreak of the Revolution. A more intimate acquaintance with English society a hundred years ago would, however, have prevented the introduction of the Duchess of Kingston. Whoever begins the book will doubtless care to finish it, for it has an easy, rapid movement.

'A Foolish Virgin' is a young lady just out of college, "with a liberal education on her hands," and ready to devote herself to "frills," as her schoolgirl vocabulary designates polite accomplishments. She takes to china-painting, since "in Cincinnati one must do something." The story is only what the author herself would call a "skit"; and as to plot, nothing but a pretty vivacity makes it worth a half-hour's reading. The Cincinnati setting is a novelty. It is drolly given, with a good deal of *vraisemblance*—a sort of mean proportional between ancient Boston and the true West, wherever that may be. There is seldom found in the class to which the book belongs a better bit of delicate satire than the account of the Boston lady's art-lecture and the audience thereat.

'Aut Cæsar aut Nihil' has material enough in it for fifty such books as the two preceding, too much for successful handling by less than genius. As the title suggests, much of the scene is laid in Russia. Only the stereotyped history or myth about the Nihilists is given, but for the first time in fiction not Turgeneff's, that we remember, a distinct place is given to the moderate Liberals. "They wait and they hope." The theory of the character of the late Czar is quite the author's own, which she herself contradicts directly at the last. The book will remind those familiar with the French versions of the novels of the Hungarian Jokai, of 'Le Tapis Vert' and 'Le Mariage de Pouchkine.' With less power and beauty of imagination, it attempts to describe Russian society in the seventh decade of the century as they do in the second and third. The striking figure to English readers will be Bianca, a girl of mixed blood, but of English training. Her character is well developed from the wayward, headstrong child to the grave, saddened woman. It may be thought unnatural, but study will show it rather to be exceptional.

Whoever has known the brooding sunshine, the creeping shadows, the delicious quiet which make the charm of an English cathedral close, will recognize the scenes of the story of 'The Senior Songman.' The title is but one of the old names which are now merged in the far less expressive term, chorister. "He was buried by the singing-men of Salisbury," wrote a contemporary of George Herbert, of his funeral. The romance of the book is a double, if not a treble, one, the first interweaving with the placid monotony of the Close and a drowsy English town the passionate hopes that waken under an Italian sky. The second blooms and fades, or reopens to glad fruition in the very home of the songman as he goes in and out, ever graver and sadder with the pain of memory and the keen disappointment of present loss. There are two heroines. No two could be more different in their nature or their fate, but to each of them came the truest peace that each of them could have asked, "the peace of living up to the best they knew." The chords are minor chords, but patience, endurance, forgiveness, and faith make the music a tender harmony. The Senior Songman will be remembered as a gentle and modest companion in the little group of which the Warden of Hiram's Hospital is first.

There are living French novelists of greater renown and ability than M. Jules Claretie, yet we doubt if any living French novelist has written a more truly typical French novel than 'Noris,' which is M. Claretie's latest story, and in many respects his best. There is a dramatic vigor and directness in the handling of the chief situations which foretells the future appearance of 'Noris' on the Parisian stage, where 'M. le Ministre' has already been received with honor; and if the story is not one for young men and maids, as it must be frankly confessed it is not, the tone of the book is healthy. 'Noris' is as moral a book as 'Criquette,' and not altogether unlike it, for in both tales the heroine, having fallen in love with an unworthy object, and having fallen through that love, holds herself unworthy of the honest man whom she loves later when a fuller understanding of life has come to her. Noris and Criquette both see their duty plainly, and do it simply. Criquette dies, and Noris lives—and in this M. Claretie's story is stronger and truer than M. Halévy's: death cuts the Gordian knot a little too conveniently sometimes. The living of Noris is a truer expiation of the primary fault than the dying of Criquette. Next in importance to Noris herself is the Prince de Chantenay, the model of all fast and fashionable young Parisians, always correct, the leader in style—*Fleur de Chic*, as they call him—and as corrupt and contemptible a little fellow as the Duke of Septmonts in the 'Étrangère' of M. Dumas *fils*. Admirable is the gradual revelation of the Prince's character to the reader and to the heroine, from whose eyes the scales fall one by one until she sees that the prince of her fairy tale is made of very ordinary clay.

If 'Noris' is M. Claretie's best novel, the 'Collier d'Acier' is not one of M. Boisgobey's best. Like all his others, it is the story of a crime and of the hunting down of the mysterious perpetrator. In other words, it is a variation on Poe's immortal 'Murder in the Rue Morgue.' Poe, being translated into French by Baudelaire, was imitated by the late Gaboriau; and M. Boisgobey's friends declare that a major portion of the late Gaboriau's mantle is now on M. Boisgobey's shoulders. But the man in France now who has the secret of Poe in his keeping is surely M. Jean Richepin, the author of the astounding series of short stories called 'Les Morts Bizarres,' and fully justifying that defiant title. Gaboriau at least played the game fairly, while M. Boisgobey has a marked pack, and now and again deals from the bottom. In this very 'Collier d'Acier,' for example, the perpetrator of the crime, whom he punishes at the end of the book, has been presented to us by the author during three hundred pages, at least, as an eminently respectable person. Even in the lower grades of detective-story writing there is art and there are laws. Yet the story is interesting, as it is in duty bound to be, and it opens with a delightfully exciting situation. A wedding party is banqueting, and as the bridegroom stands, glass in hand, a shot through a window in front of him kills him instantly. Who fired the shot? And why was it fired? And who will be punished for it?

ATLANTIC COAST OPERATIONS.

The Atlantic Coast. By Daniel Ammen. [The Navy in the Civil War.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

In the three volumes on "The Navy in the Civil War" the division of the subject is not clearly defined. 'The Blockade' was on the "Atlantic Coast" and also on the "Gulf" and the "Inland Waters" connected with the sea on both sides of the Florida Keys. This ambiguity leads to repetition, and the same events sometimes appear in two of the volumes. Apart from the blockade, the work of the Atlantic squadrons was largely in getting control of the line of sounds or inland seas which skirt the coast south of the Capes; in occupying the important rivers, harbors, and towns along them; and in simplifying the blockade by substituting for it, when possible, a military occupation. This involved many ventures, planned with care and carried out with vigor and daring. These were usually on a moderate scale and for comparatively trifling ends. Many were very similar in detail, and more useful than brilliant. Some of them, however, were of exceptional daring. Such were the famous exploits of Lieutenant Wm. B. Cushing, then a tall, slender youth of twenty-one, which are also recounted in the first volume of this series. His adventures were remarkable for their boldness of plan, skill in conduct, and heroic bravery in action. He finally blew up with a torpedo, with his own hand, the Confederate ram *Albemarle*, and in about twenty-four hours, all alone and half-drowned, succeeded in reaching the *Valley City* at the mouth of the river. All the rest of his party of fifteen were lost or captured. Another notable attempt against the same vessel had been made by a coxswain, two firemen, and three coalheavers, who volunteered for the service from the *Wyalusing*. They went up the Middle River in a boat, taking two torpedoes with them. These they carried across the swamp to the Roanoke River on a stretcher. Two of the men swam the river with a line, and pulled the torpedoes over to the Plymouth side. The plan was to guide them down across the bows of the *Albemarle*, and for a man on the opposite shore to explode them at a signal. When within a few yards of the ram, the line fouled on a schooner, one of the men was seen and fired on, and the scheme was foiled. All the six men got safely back to the fleet, though some of them were several days in the swamp. All these disconnected expeditions, large and small, are given conscientiously in this book. They were attended with steady success, and in a short time the national flag was flying over all its old coast defences, except at Mobile, Savannah, Charleston, and Wilmington.

In spite of its want of workshops and mechanical skill, the South from the first showed great enterprise and perseverance in adopting the new modes of naval warfare. Its attempts were generally better in design than in execution. There was more activity of this sort at Charleston and Wilmington than anywhere else. Torpedoes of many patterns, floating and sunken, torpedo-boats and ironclad rams were frequently tried, with varying success. All but the last were treacherous servants. The torpedoes were dangerous to place, and the torpedo-boats more than once drowned their crews. But it is clear that they caused no little perplexity and dread to our navy. There was no estab-

lished system for coping with them, and an officer once attacked had to rely on untried theories or trust to the inspiration of danger. It is hardly to be wondered at that sometimes a vessel like the *Miami*, for example, found safety in a retreat, or at least sought time to think of some means of offence other than those which she had tried in vain. The general inefficiency of these novel engines was no doubt partly due to their inherent defects, but at the same time it must be allowed to speak loudly in praise of the watchfulness and steady courage maintained by our navy.

The three principal operations on the Atlantic Coast were the attacks on Port Royal, Charleston, and Wilmington. The last, as is well known, was taken at the second attack. There is a question whether it might have been taken by assault after the first bombardment. Admiral Ammen intimates that it should have been. It seems to us, however, clear from the reports of the eminent army engineer officers who advised against it, and from the testimony of the Confederate General Whiting, that the fort was practically unharmed for defence, that General Butler decided wisely. The second bombardment had very different effects from the first, and the defences were in a very different condition at the time of the second assault. Connected with the first attack was the curious and original delusion of the powder-boat. A suggestion was made to demolish the fort by the explosion of a quantity of powder in a vessel afloat near it. The idea was pooh-poohed by the army engineers, and cannot have seemed promising to any one who had considered the effects of explosions of mines, powder-houses, magazines, or men-of-war. Moreover, the parapets and traverses of the fort were simply flat hillocks of beach-sand—perhaps the most uncompromising material in existence for violent measures. How the suggestion originated is doubtful. Perhaps some drowsy worshipper in the blockade saw a practical bearing in the text, "The little hills shall skip like lambs," or, listening to the reading of the destruction of Jericho, may have dreamed that if its walls could be so shaken by the blowing of rams' horns as to fall flat at the shouting of the people, much more might Fort Fisher be so shaken by the guns of the fleet as to fall flat at the greater noise of an explosion, so that the people should go up to the fort "every man straight before him." The measure was resolved upon, and an old steamer, the *Louisiana*, loaded with 400 tons of powder, was towed near the fort and anchored. The fuses were set for an hour and a half, but the explosion did not occur for nearly two hours. As soon as the fuses were lighted, her convoy started at full speed to secure a safe offing, and was already hove-to, at a distance of twelve miles, when the boat blew up. The fleet was anchored for safety twenty-five miles off. The explosion was seen as a faint flash of lightning on the horizon. A fair wind enabled a faint sound to be heard, and, two hours after, a smoke drifted through the fleet. The next morning, early, the fleet stood in and began its first attack on the fort, which, it is hardly necessary to say, was none the worse for the sacrifice of the powder.

At both Fort Sumter and Fort Fisher, assaults on land were made by sailors from the fleet. At Fort Sumter, by chance, Admiral Dahlgren and General Gillmore had hit on the same night for the same scheme. They were generally at variance, and any concert of action between them was difficult. In general, it might be hard to say whether the prospect were worse for soldiers acting in boats or sailors who acted on shore. On this occasion the soldiers had the advantage. Low water detained them at their rendezvous till the naval attack had failed, and then their own was abandoned. The preparations for the naval attack were made in full sight of the fort, and put it on its guard. It was made by five divisions of boats commanded by Captain T. H. Stevens, and numbered, including marines, about 400. Nearly 120 effected a landing, all of whom were killed or taken prisoners. The total loss was 3 killed, and 10 officers and 104 men captured. Those who landed were, "in fact, entirely helpless, and, when they agreed to surrender, were taken around to another face, and helped to get within the fort."

The fate of the storming party at Fort Fisher was still more disastrous. 1,600 sailors and 400 marines were detailed for the assault. The order to commanders of vessels "directs that the sailors shall be armed with cutlasses, well sharpened, and with revolvers. . . . When the signal is made to assault, the boats will pull around the stern of the monitors and land right abreast of them, and board the fort on the run in a seamanlike way. The marines will form in the rear and cover the sailors. While the soldiers are going over the parapets in front, the sailors will take the sea-face of Fort Fisher." These were the provisions for assaulting a formidable flanked earthwork defended by artillery and rifles, and approached along an exposed sea-beach. They were not strictly followed. The sailors were landed in the forenoon. Lieutenant Preston, a promising officer, who had been in the boat attack on Fort Sumter, set the example of protecting his men by throwing up sand, and this was imitated by the others. It was not even generally understood on shore who was to have command of the united detachments from the different vessels. Finally, Lieutenant-Commander Breese, a gallant and accomplished officer, accompanied by a sailor bearing the Admiral's flag, showed his senior, Captain Parker, a letter from the Admiral, appointing him, Breese, to the command as the Admiral's representative. Captain Parker, with praiseworthy zeal, in deference to the Admiral's flag, served under his junior in command of one of the four columns. At 3 P. M. the increase of artillery fire and the blowing of all the steam-whistles notified the garrison in their bomb-proofs that the time for action had come. The army had worked up, under cover, near the west flank of the land front. The navy, on the other hand, had nearly half a mile of beach to advance over, with occasional cover from sand-hills. They were by the flank in four columns, which gradually converged and formed one compact mass. They broke, and were rallied three times, and a few succeeded in reaching the palisades at the angle of the fort, and some got within fifty yards of the parapet. But at this distance sharpened cutlasses, and even revolvers, are no match for rifles. The action was short, but decisive. In fifteen minutes the casualties were 300, or 15 per cent., and the flight of the survivors was final. Lieutenant Preston was among the killed. The intrepid Lieutenant Cushing was wounded, and, with characteristic promptness, organized the fugitives to man a line of breastworks in the rear against Hoke's relieving force, and thus released additional troops to join those within the fort. The army, in its close fighting for seven hours, lost 8 per cent.

Throughout the book, Union and Confederate reports of the same occurrences are joined to support or check each other. The work indicates laborious research and straightforward honesty. The tone is fair and manly, and the author's mention of his own service is in excellent taste. In fact, the reader needs to bear his name and former rank well in mind to detect his appearance among his associates. The style is enlivened by an occasional pun or humorous allusion, and is evidently that of a hand more familiar with the sword than the pen. Altogether, the book is a pleasant and instructive one for landsmen, and will be of great value and interest to the navy, both for those who shared in the stirring service it describes and to the younger officers, who may be glad to have a standard with which to compare the reminiscences of their seniors.

UNDERGROUND RUSSIA.

Underground Russia: Revolutionary Profiles and Sketches from Life. By Stepniak, formerly Editor of *Zemlia i Volia* (*Land and Liberty*). With a Preface by Peter Lavroff. Translated from the Italian. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

WHO is Stepniak? Lavroff's Preface tells us that this name is the pseudonym of a prominent conspirator. But who is Lavroff? A "distinguished philosopher and writer," "Stepniak's" pages tell us; "editor of a review, the *Vperiod* (*Onward*), written, for the most part, by himself" in exile; a revolutionary socialist "rather inclined toward the more moderate party," whose guiding influence, coming from abroad, has been equally important with that of "the great Michael Bacunin, the genius of destruction, the principal founder of the anarchical or federalistic 'Internationale.'" "Stepniak," too, is an editor and writer—though not a philosopher—but chiefly a man of action. Lavroff remembers "with what enthusiasm the young men in the office of the *Onward* in London heard some pages of his youthful writings read. Others would relate various episodes of his Odyssey as a propagandist among the peasants." He was one of the principal founders of the secret revolutionary press established in the very capital of the Czar. "Among the names of the most energetic actors in the principal phases which the Russian movement passed through, the Revolutionists always mention the name of him who appears before the European public under the pseudonym of Stepniak." The author of the Preface, who expresses a great deal of contempt for the writings of foreigners on what is generally termed Nihilism, is greatly pleased that "the European public will at last have a faithful and animated picture of that movement."

The reader who peruses "Stepniak's" book without partisan bias is often tempted to doubt the faithfulness of the picture, and to smile at the animation which colors many parts of it. Take his "Revolutionary Profiles," for instance. He contrasts the propagandism of one of his heroes, Demetrius Klemens, with that of a young man who died in prison at the age of nineteen, which was "Socratic and searching"; and with that of a lady, which was "passionate and prophetic." Klemens is fascinating; "he has a heart as boundless as the ocean; . . . his moral gifts are such that even the smallest which he bestows are treasures." Vera Zasulitch—we use our own transliterations, instead of the Italian, preposterously preserved in the translation—a lady who became famous by her attempt on the life of General Trepoff in 1878, shows an indifference to glory "unique, perhaps, in the history of the human heart; . . . her character . . . is entirely self-sustained, and neither needs nor is able to derive any inspiration or impulse from external sources." Sophia Perovskaya, the associate of Hartmann in the Moscow mine plot, and leader, on March 13, 1881, in the fatal attack on Alexander II., is depicted as an angelic figure, in the formation of which beauty and generosity, modesty and energy, love and earnestness had equal shares. The story of one of her flights, "among the terrible adventures of her life, . . . is like a

rhododendron blossoming among the wild precipices of the Swiss Diablerets." Valerian Osinski, who, like her, died on the gallows—though for crimes of less historical importance, in 1879—was as generous as she, "as beautiful as the sun," and with his last breath scornfully repelled all suggestions of a petition for pardon; but "by a refinement of cruelty, his eyes were not bandaged, and he was compelled to look upon the agonizing writhings of his companions." "At this horrible sight his physical nature . . . gave way, and the head of Valerian became, in five minutes, as white as that of an old man."

No doubt there is exaggeration and legendary embellishment in all this, and in much similar talk in this book, but, we believe, nothing that is much worse. The history of Russian revolutionism is mainly a martyrology, and martyrologies will always abound in saintly features, in miraculous traits, in legendary ingredients. The Russian Nihilists, as a rule, are pagans in belief—worshippers of the fetish called *muzhik*, or, collectively, people—materialistic, realistic, spurners of everything ideal; but they are passionately devoted to their novel creed, fanatical from constant contention and peril, always prepared for the gibbet or for Siberia, and as ready to die as to slay. Heroism among them is frequently coupled (or in juxtaposition) with intense hatred, the martyr's self-abnegation with the pride of the innovator, the sternest feeling of duty with the conceit of unbelief, tenderness for fellow-sufferers with contempt for life. Sympathetic belief in the cause easily weaves a halo round the brow of such champions of it; fidelity to the cause becomes the only test of purity, and the martyr's death effaces every blot on his life. Besides, believers are not critical, and the Nihilist's moral code is exceedingly lax.

Our author is a strong believer in Socialism, revolutionary propaganda, the justice of the Russian conspirator's cause, the need of extreme measures against Czarism, and in Terror as a legitimate warfare; and he views and judges his fellow-agitators in the light of his faith. We must do him the justice to declare that, with all his one-sidedness, he impresses us as a writer who means to present a "faithful picture," and whose animation is, at least, not merely for effect. He is a sectarian, an advocate, a combatant, but evidently not an intentional deceiver of the public, not a writer of political or historical fiction. He presents, as an undisguised partisan, the bright side of Russian militant Socialism, and the reader who knows enough of the other side—or is, at least, strong enough to resist the beguiling power of enthusiastic and at the same time entertaining narratives—will find not only a great deal that is interesting in the 'Revolutionary Profiles' and 'Revolutionary Sketches,' but also a very important piece of pragmatic history in the author's Introduction, treating of the "Propaganda" and "Terrorism," and much that is worth pondering in the Conclusion, which speaks of the future. Without evincing any great power of diction or argument, our anonymous author will probably succeed in winning much sympathy for his party by his lively narratives and warm pleadings, and chiefly by unsensational and yet harrowing pictures of the Czarish persecution and repression, through spy and gendarme, censor and executioner—though here and there, and especially in the Conclusion, he betrays all the crudity and fierceness of the Nihilistic creed.

In the name of his party, "Stepniak" still adheres to the solemn declaration addressed by the Revolutionary Executive Committee to the present Czar, ten days after the assassination of his father, offering unconditional submission to the will of a national assembly spontaneously convoked by the monarch and freely elected on the basis of universal suffrage, under the guarantees of a free press and free speech. The Terrorists, he says, will be the first to throw down their deadly weapons; they will be forced to do so, for they could not exist for a single day if they opposed their will and work to the determinations of the enfranchised nation. But will the Government, he asks, "have sufficient intelligence and moral courage to adopt this course?" The coronation at Moscow has given us the answer. "If it does not, what will happen? It is difficult to foresee, for the . . . Russian Revolution is a strangely fantastic monster. . . . Something assuredly will happen if the Revolution loses patience, or the hope of succeeding by the less ferocious means which it has at its disposal—the present political Terror." This terror, then, is to be followed by something more ferocious. "Urged by a purely humane sentiment," his "object simply being to enlighten public opinion," and prevent, if possible, the apprehended evils from being realized, our author proceeds "to point out some of the eventualities which present themselves . . . as probable." The coolness with which he does this, after pages abounding in genuine delineations of womanly gentleness and tenderness—as in the sketch of the Jewess, Yessi Helfman, the meekest and most self-sacrificing of regicides—would be surprising, had we not yet learned that Nihilism, though atheistic and grossly materialistic in its confessions, is yet an intensely religious movement, dogmatic, uncompromising, never doubting its own justness, nor the legitimacy of any means leading to victory.

The first eventuality is what may be termed "administrative Terror, directed against the whole body of Government officials." The party has made a trial of this, but only a partial and tentative one. It was too weak for the attempt in 1878, it could try it now. "All Russia would then be strewn with dead bodies, for the governors, the gendarmes, the procurators, the judges, could not all have their Gatchina. It would be a terrible, a grievous thing; but it has already been talked about." Another and more terrible eventuality is agrarian Terror. The peasant class of the subjects of the Czar is so wretched, so full of hatred against the ruling and wealthier classes, so desperate, "that it only needs a spark to make its hatred burst into an immense flame which would destroy the entire edifice of the state and modern economical order, and with it, also, everything bearing the impress of civilization." Even this, "Stepniak" thinks with his party, would be "preferable to lingering death under the heels of despotism." A third eventuality is palace plots and *coups d'etat* of military commanders, revolts of prætorians, not directly connected with the Terrorism, but the natural consequence of it—sanguinary convulsions of which it is impossible to foretell the kind or character. "Who knows whether they will not resemble Oriental rather than European convulsions?"

"Such is the sad future which the Emperor Alexander III., with his insensate obstinacy, is preparing for Russia"—Alexander III., let us add, whom the "Stepniaks" and their followers have placed upon the throne, by assassinating the Czar Emancipator, after driving the latter, by attempts like Karakozoff's in 1866, from the path of reform into reaction and repression, and turning a daily expanding liberalism into a radicalism boundless in its presumption but narrow in extent, and wildly engaged in a deadly grapple of uncertain issue.

THE WAR IN THE TRANSVAAL.

A Narrative of the Boer War: Its Causes and Results. By Thomas Fortescue Carter. London: Remington & Co. 1883.

MR. FORTESCUE CARTER'S 'Narrative of the Boer War' should be carefully studied by any one who is disposed to envy Great Britain her possession of a colonial empire. The grievous embarrassments, the heavy expenditure in blood and money, the too frequent occasions for national shame and humiliation which are inseparable from the existence of these distant dependencies, were, perhaps, never more strikingly illustrated than in the recent history of the Boers of the Transvaal and their relations with the people of Great Britain.

A few years ago the Earl of Carnarvon was Secretary of State for the Colonies, and it occurred to him that he would immortalize himself if he could bring about a confederation of all the South African colonies similar to that which, in North America, had called into existence the Canadian Dominion. The scheme was altogether impracticable, and had eventually to be abandoned, because Cape Colony, the largest and most important of the South African colonies, refused to participate in it. Now, Lord Carnarvon knew that the Cape Colonists disliked the project, but he convinced himself that their objections would be overcome if the military power of the Zulus was broken up, and the Transvaal converted into a dependency of the British Crown. The Transvaal, accordingly, was annexed by proclamation; and the conscience of the English nation was lulled to sleep by a liberal administration of the usual anodynes. Firstly, the Boers were harsh and cruel in their treatment of the natives; secondly, their Government had fallen into disorder, and the public treasury was empty: thirdly, the Boers were, almost without exception, longing to get quit of an independence which they felt that they were not fit to possess. It was in vain that the Boers protested, that they declared again and again that, unless their freedom was restored to them, they would fight to recover it; the Colonial Office poob-poohed all such manifestations of feelings, and manufactured for the delectation of the British people a something which they designated "the loyal Boer," and which, they solemnly affirmed, existed in large quantities in the Transvaal. "The loyal Boer" did not cry or lift up his voice in the streets, but, in his own silent fashion, he was constantly exhibiting his thankfulness for the act of annexation. After a time, however, it became impossible to keep up this fiction of a "loyal Boer," who never manifested his existence by speech or act; and a new device was started. The Boer, it was admitted, was "disloyal"; he was an ill-conditioned, uncivilized creature, and the higher civilization which came in with British rule was naturally distasteful to his untutored mind. Accordingly, he grumbled, but he might securely be counted upon to do nothing beyond grumbling; he was an arrant coward, and would never bite, however freely he might show his teeth. Meanwhile it was a duty that the British nation owed to humanity to persist in the course they had entered upon, and civilize the Boer in his own despite.

Thus were the English conducted blindfold into a war which was an outrage upon all the national traditions, and which inflicted a series of severe shocks upon the national self-esteem. It was the first time since the Crimean War that English soldiers had had to contend with a European enemy. They were commanded by a trained scientific officer, the favorite lieutenant, in fact, of Lord Wolseley of Cairo, and were opposed by Dutch farmers armed only with

rifles; and yet, on three separate occasions, they found themselves out-generalled and defeated by these (seemingly) contemptible opponents.

Concerning Sir George Colley's brief but disastrous campaign against the Boers, Mr. Fortescue writes with the fulness of knowledge appertaining to an eye-witness. He was not present at the battle of Laing's Nek, the scene of Sir G. Colley's first defeat, but he took part in the still more disastrous affairs at the Imgogo River and on the Majuba Hill; and his descriptions of them are full, vivid, and interesting. The book throughout is eminently readable, but, in our judgment, its most instructive quality is the forcible manner in which it shows how the obstinate prepossessions of the English character incapacitate it for doing justice to, or even understanding the aspirations and the sensibilities of, weaker races which have the bad luck to stand in its way. The English are not more grossly selfish in their national policy than other nations, but they have a practice, peculiar to themselves, of varnishing this selfishness by a thin veneer of Pecksniffian morality; and this it is, more perhaps than anything else, which awakens so profound an antipathy in the minds of those who are conquered or exploited by them. "How can you say," asked General Joubert of Mr. Fortescue, "England wants truth? England doesn't want the truth from us! They want their own truth—the truth which will suit the schemes of their own Ministers. That is truth for them; and whatever we say, that is not truth." General Joubert here hits the nail very exactly on the head. Truth was the very last thing which England wanted from the Boers; and not until her crack Highland soldiers had been driven helter-skelter from the summit of the Majuba Hill could she be persuaded that the defenders of Laing's Nek, and not the Colonial Office's *boojum* of a "loyal Boer," represented the actual state of feeling in the Transvaal.

So far as her colonies are governed by Great Britain at all, they are governed by the permanent officials of the Colonial Office, who are at once secret and omnipotent, and irresponsible alike to the nation at home and the settlers abroad. According to Mr. Fortescue, the English residents in South Africa are becoming alive to the intolerable character of this anomaly, and a feeling is spreading among them which will lead, at no distant date, to the disseverance of the connection. He writes as follows:

"That the colonial possessions of England have outgrown in extent the limit which the mind of statesmen at home can comprehensively grasp and beneficially control, is the cause, undoubtedly, of the growth of a republican spirit in the colonies, which has as yet found only a limited expression in the public press, but which exists to an extent probably not contemplated by people in England; and that republican spirit, the outcome of dissatisfaction with the controlling power of the mother country, will assuredly prove, before many years have passed, as fatal to the controlling power, if Imperial policy toward Crown or semi-Crown colonies is not speedily remodelled, as the growth of republicanism in the United States proved fatal to the jurisdiction of England in that quarter of the globe. The circumstance of an Englishman being elbowed out of the land of his birth, and having to gain a livelihood in one of the colonies, does not in the remotest degree stifle in him the aspiration for 'popular' government which is inborn in every Briton. The settler in any one of our colonies seldom dwells in the country of his choice more than four or five years without discovering . . . that while there are certain advantages gained by the intimacy of the connection with the mother country, those advantages are more than counterbalanced in the long run by the absence of practical knowledge of the necessities of the colony on the part of those who endeavor, however honestly, to govern it from a distance. The colonist not unfrequently finds that he is the sport of parties at home, either Conservative or Liberal, as party exigencies serve; and though he may have left England the most ardent Conservative or Liberal, he is soon convinced that neither the principles of Liberalism nor Conservatism are of any practical value to the land of his adoption. He discovers that it is as much the custom of a Conservative Ministry as it is of a Liberal Ministry to ignore the wants and frustrate the schemes of progress which form the subject of the colonist's appeal to the Home Government; that wilful blindness and wilful deafness, wilful misconstruction and wilful misunderstanding, on the part of the Government seem to be the leading lines of colonial policy; and that in the Crown there is no court of appeal, no avenue toward redress, no prospect of a reversal of the inferior authority, no attentive ear for grievances so palpable that they should not require stating. The colonist, therefore, whose destinies are ruled, and whose life and good government depend upon that distant authority known as the Crown and the Cabinet, becomes imbued with a republican spirit; for it is not in the nature of man that he can identify himself with parties which are of no practical benefit to him in his sphere of labor."

Specimens of French Literature from Villon to Hugo, selected and edited by George Saintsbury. Oxford: Clarendon Press Series; New York: Macmillan & Co.

THIS is not, like most of the books of selections or *chrestomathies françaises*, a compilation, more or less tasteful, from a limited number of standard authors, long known to the reading public. Mr. Saintsbury's purpose has been to "make a sufficient tableau of the various achievements of French literature from the literary point of view," and this he has done in a very satisfactory manner. The selections have been taken, in great part, from rare old books and manuscripts that are beyond the reach of the American student, and for which he would search in vain our best public libraries.

The volume begins with several pieces by the scapegrace poet, Villon—whose life and works Théophile Gautier revealed to the admiration of modern readers in his charming book 'Les Grotesques'—and unrolls before our eyes a panoramic view of the progress, halts, and retrograde movements of French literature from the 15th century to our day, as represented by 192 writers in prose and poetry. The reader makes the acquaintance of such poets as Coquillart, Baude, D'Auvergne, Chastelain, contemporaries of Villon, while some graphic pages from Philippe de Comines give him a fair specimen of the terse, clear style of the prose-writer of the 15th century. At that period the French language, so long in forming, has reached its maturity; it will strengthen itself and receive a definite grammatical form in the first part of the 16th century, to be invaded, in the latter part, by numerous words and turns brought back from Italy by the French armies or made fashionable by Catherine de Médicis and her Italian followers during the reigns of Francis I. and Henry II. Then will come the mania for the ancient languages. Among the selections we find the manifesto of Joachim du Bellay in favor of the Greeks and Romans. There, also, we find several light pieces by Du Bellay's friend and admirer, Pierre de Ronsard, he who so dolefully exclaimed:

"Ah! que je suis marri que la langue françoise
Ne puisse s'exprimer comme faict la grégeoise!"

The eye may follow the modifications of style, both in prose and poetry, brought about by Ronsard's followers, by Malherbe's strong common sense, by the pomposity and redundancy introduced by Henry IV.'s courtiers after the long wars with Spain, by the victorious struggle made against this by the literati of the Hôtel de Rambouillet and the grammarians—a struggle to return to the native simplicity of the French language. The fight is won, and numerous selections from the great writers of Louis XIV's time show us French literature at the acme of its glory. Besides the familiar names of Corneille, Racine, Molière, Mme. de Sévigné, we are pleased to find those of Scarron, Mézeray, Sarrasin, Cardinal de Retz, St.-Simon, St.-Évremond, Tallemant des Réaux, and a host of others. So with the school of philosophers who made the 18th century illustrious and prepared the way for the Revolution. The 19th century is very fully represented, although no living author, save Victor Hugo, is mentioned. The exception is natural. Hugo was the founder of the Romantic school, which, in its fight against the Classics, begun in 1824, broke the fetters of French poetry. Less successful with prose, it nevertheless gave it a richer coloring and a wealth of realistic descriptions under which some of the fiction writers of our day but too often conceal a lack of invention.

The order of the selections, however, is not chronological, but that in which the writers are mentioned in the author's 'Short History of French Literature,' to which this volume is intended to form a companion. Mr. Saintsbury, in his preface, tells us that "care has been taken to select extracts which add to their own literary interest that of supplying the key of the origin of other interesting literature." It is a pity that he should have given but one selection from St. Amant, a second rate poet of the early part of the 17th century, much abused by Boileau and other critics, but who, nevertheless, has "inspired" some of our modern poets, more than once, to wit: the great Hugo in one of his prettiest "Orientales," Alfred de Vigny, in one of his most poetic figures, and Charles Nodier, in his weird 'Smarra.' So with Cyrano de Bergerac, the contemporary of Molière, from whose "Pédant joué" the latter borrowed, almost *verbatim et literatim*, the comic scene in the "Fourberies de Scapin," the refrain of which, "Que diable allait-il faire dans cette galère!" is quoted every day by people who never heard of Bergerac. His 'Voyage to the Moon' and his 'Comic History of the Empire States of the Sun' have suggested more than one fanciful story.

Among the selections from old poets but little known are several pretty ballads of the 15th century, some admirable lines "To his Infant Son," by Charles Fontaine, and remarkable quatrains on "Man," by Gui du Faur de Pibrac. Among the selections from the old prose-writers, the reader will enjoy "Ghost-Catching," a pretty story by Queen Marguerite de Navarre, "Troubles of an Inventor," by Bernard de Palissy, Marguerite de Valois's account of St. Bartholomew's Day, extracts from the famous 'Satyre Ménippée,' and that curious conceit, 'La Carte du Tendre,' by Mlle. de Scudéry.

Sandringham, Past and Present. With some historic memorials of the Norfolk Coast. By Mrs. Herbert Jones. London: Sampson Low.

THE author of this book has anticipated any criticism upon the miscellaneousness of her collections of facts and anecdotes. "A given locality furnishes but the point round which gathers a web of varied human interest—the thread on which the distinct beads are strung." Sandringham, the country home of the Prince of Wales, seems not so very remote from us, or at least from New England. The church at the park gates is the parish church of West Newton; the village of Appleton is hard by; Lynn is the next large town, and northward, across the Wash, on a clear day, the lofty tower of Boston church is plainly visible. Its his-

tory begins with Felix, the Apostle of the East Angles (A. D. 630), who preached upon the spot where Babingley church now stands within the grounds, vacant but reverently cared for. The tradition of his coming has been faithfully kept in the name of "the Christian Hills," a low range close by. A thousand years later the estate was sequestrated, after the siege of Lynn, and its Roman Catholic owner, Colonel Cobbe, actually suffered from poverty. Of his four sons two were priests, and of the five daughters four took the veil in foreign convents. After them came the Hostes, among whose chief treasures was the portrait of a young lady of the family who was "burned as a Protestant" in the Duke of Alva's time. There are Pastons all through the story, building grand houses and befriending the monks at Bromholm Priory. Their women are old friends, from John's wife Margaret, in her scarlet gown, to Bridget, the beautiful wife of the great Sir Edward Coke.

But the most picturesque figure in all the long train of owners is Anthony Woodville, the "gentle Rivers," to whom it came by his marriage to the only daughter of the Lord Scales, the Seneschal of Normandy under Henry V. An interesting portrait of him, from an illuminated manuscript at Lambeth, is given. It was a curious chance that made a French Huguenot, John Motteux, the successor of the Low Country Protestant Hostes. Without children or near heirs, he left it to the son of Lady Palmerston, and so it fell out that the last mistress of Sandringham before the Princess of Wales was the beautiful Lady Harriet Cowper, the only daughter of the Earl of Blessington, and the girl-wife of the Comte d'Orsay.

The second half of the book affords tantalizing glimpses of notable persons and places in Norfolk. We could wish it twice as long, except that even then there is no end. Off Hunstanton lies the submerged forest that can be seen at "dead neaps." A clergyman, one of the few who have reached it *on foot*, writes:

"About two miles north of the cliff, and a mile and a half from high-water mark, we arrived at the prostrate forest, consisting of numberless large timber-trees, trunks, and branches, many of them decomposed, and so soft that they might easily be penetrated by a spade. Many of the trees, however, are quite sound, and still fit for domestic purposes, and indeed are sometimes used by the proprietors of the neighboring lands for posts and rails."

About Yarmouth cluster the traditions of Cromwell's near friends and relatives. There lived his granddaughter, Mrs. Bridget Bendish, holding him

"not only the first general on earth, but after the twelve apostles the first saint in heaven. . . . Loquacious, eloquent, and enthusiastic, she would frequent the drawing-rooms and assembly-rooms of Yarmouth in the first quarter of the eighteenth century, as a leading and distinguished guest, dressed in the richest silks, and with a small black hood on her head, arriving after a day spent in hard manual labor with her workmen over the saltpans of her salt manufactory on Cobbolme Island. The evening over, she remounted her mare to return to Southtown, about half a mile distant, and, perched on her old-fashioned saddle, would trot home at one o'clock in the morning, piercing the night air with the loud jubilant psalms in which she shrilly declared her election to the kingdom of heaven. But she never forgot the traditions of her childhood and their legacy of personal dignity. When, as Mr. Dawson Turner used to tell, his grandfather asked her one day whether she had ever been at court, she replied, 'I have never been at court since I was waited upon on the knee.'"

The small village of Cockthorpe was the birthplace of Sir Cloudesley Shovel. It lies scattered over an elevated plateau of land, commanding a sight of the sea full and wide, and close by is the imposing church of Blakeney, "with a tall lantern-turret at its eastern end, built to warn the nightly wanderer at sea." The rectory at Burnham Thorpe, where Nelson was born, is gone, but they still show the stream across which Nelson, when a captain in the navy, was carried on the back of a laborer on the occasion of a party going round to "beat the bounds" of the parish. "I reckon I've done about the right thing," said the sturdy St. Christopher, as he deposited his burden on the further side. "No, you should have dropped me," said Nelson, "and then every one would have remembered the occurrence."

In the library at Holkham are many of the law books belonging to Sir Edward Coke, "full of notes in the handwriting of the Lord Chief Justice, among them a report of the judgment and part of the argument in 'Shelley's Case,' at the end of which are some written remarks by him.

"The title-page of the first edition of the 'Novum Organum,' published in 1620, bears the design of a ship passing through the Pillars of Hercules into an undulating sea. The Holkham copy is adorned by the inscription, 'Ex dono authoris,' and immediately under this are these bitter lines, in the handwriting of Sir Edward Coke:

'Instaurare paras veterum documenta sophorum,
Instaura leges, justitiamque prius.'

Above the ship, also in the handwriting of Coke, is the couplet:

'It deserveth not to be read in schools,
But to be fraughted in the ship of fooles.'"

A touching letter from Roger Williams to Mrs. Sadler, the daughter of the Chief Justice, is copied from the original at Cambridge. Sir Edward had seen the young Welshman reporting the speeches in the Star Chamber, and had protected and educated him:

"For my much honoured kind Friend Mistres Sadler, at Stondon, neere Puckridge, these.

"My much honoured friend, That Man of Honour & Wisedome & pietie your deare Father, was often pleased to call me his Son & truely it was as bitter as Death to me (when Bp. Laud pursued me out of this Land & my Conscience was pswaded agst. ye Nationall Church & Ceremonies & Bps. beyond ye Conscience of ye deare Father) I say it was as bitter as Death to me when I rode Windsor way to take ship at Bristow, & saw Stoke Howse where yt blessed man was & I then durst not acquaint him with my Conscience and my Flight: But how many thousand times since have I had honourable & precious remembrance of his Person & ye Life ye writings ye speeches & Examples of yt Glorious Light. And I may truely say yt. beside my Naturall Inclination to studie & Activitie his Example Instruction and Incowragemt. haue spurd me on to a more than Ordinarie industrious & patient course in my whole course hitherto."

In the concluding chapter, to which, as appears from a prefatory note, Mr. Henry Stevens, of Vermont, has contributed some suggestions, is the story of the Norfolk boy who came to Virginia: "And Pocahontas saved a boy, one Henry Spilman, who lived many years by her means among the Patowmacks." But that is by no means the only link connecting the daughter of Powhatan with Norfolk. Her husband's family, the Rolfes, had lived for centuries in the county. To descendants of the Tuttington branch belong some precious relics of Pocahontas. She died, it will be remembered, on board a ship just setting sail for Virginia, and was buried in a church at Gravesend which was burned a hundred years later. There is the "Pocahontas" vase of pale brown earthenware, with a silver rim at the top, and the earrings of Pocahontas, each a double shell—the rare white mussel-shell found on the eastern shore of Behring's Straits. But of far greater importance is a portrait of her now known to be in existence in Norfolk. Its authenticity seems to be undoubted, and it supplies a new element in the discussion of her story. It is the original of the well-known quarto engraving made by Simon de Passe.

"The dimensions of the picture are two feet six inches and a half by two feet one inch. A painted oval encloses the portrait. The painting of the face, and of the details of the dress, is clear and finished, and shows great delicacy and beauty of execution. The whole effect of the coloring is rich, mellow, and deep-toned, with the indescribable quality shed over it which time alone can give. The portrait is slightly smaller than life, the face stamped unmistakably with the Indian type, and denoting intelligence and thoughtfulness, with much dignity both in its expression and in the carriage of the head. She looks at once royal in birth and in nature. The features are handsome and well formed, the lips bright red, the skin dark, smooth, and vellum-like, with a suspicion of a copper tint. The eyes are remarkable; prolonged at the corners, more meditative than brilliant, like still pools rather than flashing water. Their color is a rich, decided, undeniable brown, with very blue tints on the white eyeballs. The eyebrows are straight and black, the short hair by the ear throws out a glistening pearl earring. The deep lace ruff, rising behind, defines sharply the shape of the face, which shows the high cheekbones, and the outline narrowing abruptly below them, so characteristic of her race. The hat she wears on her head, and which in the print has a grotesque appearance, sinks unnoticed into the scarcely less dark background, while the richly-chased broad golden band round it gives the effect of a coronet, and is in happy combination with the coloring of the face. She wears a mantle of red brocaded velvet, much ornamented with gold; the under dress dark, buttoned with gold buttons. A small, taper hand holds a fan of three white ostrich feathers. Around the portrait are the words, 'Matoaka Rebecka filia potentiss Princ: Powhatani Imp. Virginiæ.' On a space beneath: 'Matoaks als Rebecka, daughter to the mighty prince Powhatani Emperour of Attanoughkomouck als Virginia, converted and baptized in the Christian faith, and wife to the worshll Mr. Thos. Rolff." Close under the figure, within the oval, is written, 'Ætatis suæ 21. A° 1616.'"

Biographical Sketches. By C. Kegan Paul. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1883.

THESE essays, with the exception of the one upon George Eliot, which is mainly literary, appeal to lovers of the religious mind, whether they take an intellectual interest in the permutations and combinations of theology, or a spiritual interest in pietistic character. The author writes of Edward Irving, Keble, the Hares, Rowland Williams, Kingsley, George Eliot, and Cardinal Newman, and in each case he has something fresh and acceptable to say. For, if he is not elaborately critical, nor profoundly thoughtful, nor furnished with new facts even, he states the varying tenets of belief clearly and easily, his characterization has, in the case of several, that grace of perfect keeping which comes from personal friendship with them, and especially he displays a freedom of mind rare in a writer on such topics, a power to appreciate religious emotion without becoming a conductor of it, and to perceive the value of dogmas without abating one jot or tittle of dissent from them. The list of names which has been given above involves an account of English religious life in this century of the most striking nature. What a list it is, what a variety of culture, aspiration, rest, failure it embraces! Irving, the stray lamb of the Roman fold, if ever any was, snared and abandoned among the pitiful delusions, the "tongues," "gifts," and "orders" of the early Corinthian Church; Keble, the love-sick youth who medicined his disappointed heart by the successive solaces of writing poetry "specially designed to 'exhibit the soothing tendency of the Prayer-Book,'" of taking a wife and of enjoying a comfortable country-living; Augustus Hare, fearing disease on his death-bed as the attack of the devil, and Maria, his wife, feeling the cathedral music more touching and solemn because "day by day these most harmonious and beautiful songs of praise are resounding in the ear of God alone"; the brave and scholarly Rowland Wil-

liams, condemned to an obscure and solitary living because he wrote the books most creditable to Anglican theology in his time, and had not the fear of his Bishop before his eyes; Kingsley, whose thoroughly secular mind was distinguished by a negative conception of Christianity as something not interfering with civic virtue or manly sports; George Eliot, whom many will not yet believe to have been a real infidel; and Cardinal Newman, whom likewise the true Briton cannot believe to be a real Catholic—such, in briefest strokes, are the illustrations this volume affords of religion in the country of the Established Church.

It is no part of our purpose now to discuss the general question suggested; but, it should be remarked, the author, without ever explicitly starting the question, never loses the sense of its presence. His remarks on the epicurean fortune of the country clergy, in his essay on Keble, are not less effective because they are not denunciatory, but good-natured and unobtrusive. His allusion to Archbishop Tait, in which he incidentally says, "but we suppose that many, even of those who have the interest of the Church of England at heart, would think it, on the whole, well that her chief representative should be commonplace," is not so careless as it seems. There is a sly effectiveness in the criticism of Dean Stanley: "Great as was his tolerance when he looked at anything from the side of his affections, he was yet in some somewhat intolerant; with all his courtesy and tolerance there was ever mingled a something of scorn for that which he did not wholly understand." There is a searching truth in the characterization of Kingsley as the Creole nature whose radicalism was accidental, though such a description of him is incomplete. But it is curious to notice that with such cautious distrust of the clerical mind as our author shows, he reserves the heart of his admiration for the man who went out into the communion of Rome; in other words (for we do not believe that he is exceptional in this veneration), of the various ideals worked out by religion into concrete life among us, the one which most powerfully affects the liberal layman is that of Cardinal Newman, the sane-minded, pure-hearted man, who, well furnished with learning, logical faculty, eloquent speech, and unfaltering in intellectual integrity, left the dignities and splendid worldliness of the Established Church to enter the obscure brotherhood of the Oratory. Some answer to the query why this is so, some light upon the state of the Church which Newman so mercilessly denounced, and in general upon the anomalous religious life of the most pious Protestant country during the first half of the century, any one may gain by reading these essays of Mr. Kegan Paul, and he will find it an agreeable and instructive occupation.

Ten Great Religions. Part 2. A Comparison of All Religions. By James Freeman Clarke. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883.

DR. CLARKE, having already published an account of the "ten great religions" of the world, now proceeds to inquire what they all teach on the different points of human belief: "We consider what is the idea of God in all religions, and ask how it began and in what way it was developed. In the same way we seek to trace other phases of the religious life, from their simplest beginnings to their fullest outcome." In the prosecution of this inquiry he lays down as a law "that each religion has a type of its own to which it adheres during its growth and development," and this type he endeavors to trace and exhibit. For instance, in Brahmanism the essential idea is "the reality of spirit"; in the religion of ancient Egypt, "the idea of divine life in all natural existence"; in the religion of Zoroaster, "the idea of an eternal distinction between right and wrong"; in Islam, "the worship of one God as supreme will"; in Buddhism, "the deification of the human soul saved by a knowledge of the laws of Nature," etc. Having exhibited these types like so many facets of a gem, the gem being religion itself, the author draws his moral: "Every earnest seeker, every sincere thought, is a blessing to the world:

> "'All are needed by each one,
> Nothing is good or fair alone'" (p. 69).

This being the aim, and this the method, of the work, let us look into it a little closer. Chapter vi. relates to the soul and its transmigrations. Dr. Clarke thinks that "the evolution of soul" may be worked out as Darwin has worked out the evolution of our bodily organs; that our birth, in fact, is but "a sleep and a forgetting." "A new has been brought before us lately in Dr. Pfleiderer's 'Life of Giordano Bruno.' This writer says: "The day will come when this belief [viz., of the transmigration of souls] will seize with an elementary force the European members of Indo-Germanic humanity—of course in a form first to be purified by the Darwin of the psychology of the future." And no doubt many of the wisest and best of our race have accepted this as the solution of a question otherwise beset with countless difficulties. And in proportion as we lose "ourselves," and think more of the glory of the "Mighty Architect," we find ourselves (it may be tremblingly) admitting the thought, as at least a possible one, that we have been shaped in other moulds and tend to other destiny.

If it were only for the sake of this chapter, the work under review is worth studying. But there are other observations to be found in the book equally striking. With respect to Buddhism, for example, the author is opposed to the opinion "that a third of the human race could ever have longed for annihilation" (p. 332) he therefore repeats his belief that Nirvâna, among the Buddhists, means peace and rest. This opinion also is gaining ground among scholars, and it is only reasonable; for if the Buddhists allotted to the gods of the Brahmans a duration of existence almost incalculable, and yet demurred to make this the highest condition of being, because it must some day end, it seems absurd to suppose that they reverted from this to the idea of annihilation; surely the natural step in advance would be to "interminable being," *i. e.*, eternal existence, and not to "nothingness."

We are glad that Dr. Clarke takes this view of the question, but we are less able to follow him in his argument about the belief of the Buddhists in the existence of a "human soul." If by this we are to understand an "individuality" of soul, we think the Buddhists rejected this idea. They believed in a "monad," perhaps, which they called the "character" or "Karma" (*i. e.*, the maker of a future tenement); but there was no personality. In other words, they agreed with Aristotle (or he with them): "perpetuity for which all things long is attained, not by the individual, for that is impossible, but by the species"; and so they protested against the existence of "a person" that should or could survive the body.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, R. C. Evolution: a Summary of Evidence. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Axon, W. E. A. Lancashire Gleanings. Manchester: Tubbs, Brook & Chrystal.
Bostwick, Mrs. Lucy W. Margery Daw in the Kitchen. 3d ed. Auburn, N. Y.: The author. 50 cents.
Curtis, G. T. Life of James Buchanan. Harper & Bros. 2 vols. $6.
Dahlgren, Madeleine V. A Washington Winter. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.
Fallows, Rev. S. Handbook of Briticisms, Americanisms, etc. Chicago: The Standard Book Co.
Fallows, Rev. L. Complete Handbook of Synonyms and Antonyms. Chicago: Standard Book Co. $1.
Gehring, F. Mozart. Scribner & Welford. $1.
Hallock, C. The Sportsman's Gazetteer and General Guide. New York: Orange Judd Co. $3.
Hammond, Rev. E. P. Gathered Lambs. Funk & Wagnalls.
Hobart, Rev. W. K. The Medical Language of St. Luke. Dublin: Hodges, Figgis & Co.
Johnson, B. F. "The Old Swimmin'-Hole," and 'Leven More Poems. Indianapolis: Geo. C. Hitt & Co. 50 c.
Knox, T. W. Pocket-Guide around the World. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
McDermott, H. F. The Blind Canary. Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Molloy, J. F. What Hast Thou Done? Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Morgan, H. J. Dominion Register and Review for 1882. Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co.
Oliphant, Mrs. Sir Tom. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Pereira, R. S. Les États-Unis de Colombie: Précis d'histoire. Paris: C. Marpon et E. Flammarion.
Reynolds, Rev. J. W. My Growth in Divine Life. Cassell & Co. 40 cents.
Richardson, E. The First Six Books of Virgil's Æneid, Metrically Translated. Woonsocket.
Richter, J. P. F. The Invisible Lodge. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Ross, P. A Misguidit Lassie. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Ruskin, J. The Art of England. Lectures I., II. John Wiley & Sons. 50 cents.
Rydberg, V. The Last Athenian. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.
Scott, Sir W. Ivanhoe. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 15 cents.
Shakspere's Henry V., Henry VI. Parts 1, 2; Part 3, Richard III., Henry VIII. 2 vols. [Parchment Library.] D. Appleton & Co. $1 25 each.
Sinnett, A. P. Esoteric Buddhism. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2 50.
Sarcey, F. The Miseries of Fo Hi, a Chinese Functionary. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1.
Sattler, Dr. E. History of Tuberculosis. Cincinnati: Robt. Clarke & Co. $1 25.
Strack, H. L. Hebräische Grammatik. B. Westermann & Co.
The Senior Songman: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Thompson, S. P. Dynamo-Electric Machinery. D. Van Nostrand.
Those Pretty St. George Girls: a Society Novel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1 25.
Topelius, Z. Times of Battle and of Rest. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1 25.
Tourist's Guide-Book to the United States and Canada. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 50.
Waring, G. E., Jr. Vix: a Horse Story. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 10 cents.
Wedmore, F. Four Masters in Etching. London: The Fine Art Society.
Weed, Ella. A Foolish Virgin. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Weed, Harriet A. Autobiography of Thurlow Weed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Williams, C. F. The Tariff Laws of the U. S. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Wright, May. Lethe: a Novel. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Zola, E. Her Two Husbands, and Other Novelettes. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

Richter's Invisible Lodge.

From the German of Jean Paul Friedrich Richter. By Charles T. Brooks. 16mo, Leisure-Hour Series, $1; Leisure-Moment Series, 30 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 16, 1883.

The Week.

At least five cases of embarrassment of banks in various parts of the country have occurred in the last week, and though not one of them can yet be pronounced to be positively a failure, they have, in connection with the additional mercantile failures, increased the general distrust that pervades the business atmosphere. There is every reason to believe that the banks of the country at large are in an unusually strong condition. This is indicated to some extent by the fact that the New York banks at their last weekly statement showed a surplus reserve of specie and legal-tender notes three times as large as at the corresponding time last year. Nevertheless, in view of the steadily declining prices of all sorts of merchandise and nearly all securities in the last six months (but more especially in the last month), the banks have been obliged to call as steadily for a greater margin of property on their loans, or, in other words, to base their loans on lower and lower prices for all kinds of collateral property. This has compelled the selling out of a great deal of such property and accelerated the decline of prices. In short, there has been and is yet in progress a great liquidation of indebtedness, which thus far has not run into anything like a panic in any of the great lines of business. The nearest approach to any such condition has been in the stock market in the last week, where the decline has been from 3 to 10 points in the prices of stocks. This is equivalent to a decline of probably 15 per cent. of the average market price of, say, 60 for the general list of stocks. At the West the decline in prices of grain and especially of provisions has caused the same necessity for liquidation of bank loans.

It is now nearly a month past the time in the season when the money markets usually become active, yet there is still an over-supply of money to loan on call on undoubted collateral security, at the lowest rates ever known in this country. This money, however, seeks rather safety in the investment than higher rates of interest. The fact that money continues so much lower in New York than in London keeps up the rate for sterling exchange and prevents the movement of specie this way, but the general opinion is that as the rate of interest advances here it will cause a movement of gold from Europe to the United States, and that such a movement would do more than almost any other one thing to restore confidence in the general financial and commercial situation.

The efforts of the telegraphic strikers to carry their point by persistent cutting of the wires will, of course, make it more imperative than ever for the Company to make no concessions to them. It would be a great wrong to the public, besides serious damage to its own business, to admit that it could be brought to terms of any sort by acts of violence and crime. It would, by doing so, place itself and the public convenience at the mercy of any little knot of conspirators among its employees who chose to be discontented, or who resented any of the rules and regulations under which they worked. As an illustration of the construction some of the strikers put on the phrase "freedom of contract," the wire-cutting has considerable value. Mr. Campbell, the leading manager of the strike, was examined on Monday before the Sub-Committee of the United States Senate on Labor and Education as to the causes of the outbreak. He said the object of the strike was to obtain an increase of wages and a decrease in the working hours. The wages of operators, he said, had been declining for ten years, which he ascribed wholly to the greed and unscrupulousness of the Company. The rest of the world will, however, be inclined to believe that the overcrowding of the occupation, owing to the increased ease with which the art of telegraphy can be acquired and the increasing love of American youth for clean, indoor work, have had much to do with it. Wages do not decline steadily through several years in any occupation, no matter how wicked the employer may be, unless the labor market is overstocked. This is the real reason, too, why the women telegraphers—or, as Mr. Campbell more elegantly calls them, "the lady operators"—receive less pay than the men. They would, in spite of all prejudice about sex, get just the same pay if there were not plenty of women eager to take the places on the terms offered.

As to legislative remedies, none of the witnesses had anything practical to offer. Mr. Campbell wanted to have stock-watering prohibited; but this would, of course, do the operators no good if the Company's profits remained the same, and, instead of being distributed yearly among the stockholders, were, like those of some of the banks, or those of the New Haven Railroad, rolled up into a surplus. Mr. McClellan, another witness, differed from Mr. Campbell in his account of the cause of the strike, which he said was directly due to the "insult" put upon the operators by the refusal of the Company to treat with the Brotherhood. He was a very despondent witness, for he said the capitalists and corporations in this country could never be induced to agree to arbitration as a means of adjusting labor disputes, and saw no hope from legislation, because "the capitalist can buy the legislators bodily." He further explained that his real cause of complaint was that while the products of the country were worth $6,000,000,000, the laborer got only $979,000,000. So that it would appear as if in order to settle this telegraphic dispute satisfactorily, we should have to adjust the relations of capital and labor throughout the whole country, and see that every man got his due share of the national wealth. Behind most great strikes there looms up a job of this kind, which, it must be admitted, is a large one. What the Railroad Commission or the Civil-Service Reform Commission have on hand is nothing to it.

The striking telegraphers continued their evidence before the Senate Committee on Tuesday, but it cannot be said to be very instructive. The sum and substance of it is that the operators are poorly paid, and that their wages are really lower in this country than in England, though nominally higher. They are mostly, it is said, young unmarried men, and live in comfortable boarding-houses, but can rarely save money. If the same story were told by the members of any other calling—by lawyers, doctors, or clerks, for instance—the advice which almost everybody would give, and does give, is to avoid the business or quit it. There appears, however, to be a peculiar notion abroad that a certain number of young men are bound or foreordained to get into the telegraphic business, and once in to stay in, cost what it may, even if they cannot get a decent living in it. There is, on their own showing, apparently only one remedy for the present state of things, and that is to reduce the number of operators. That is, in fact, the American remedy for bad times in every field of industry. The account given by Mr. Campbell and others of the business and profits of the Western Union was lamentably inaccurate, showing not only that they talk loosely about matters of fact, but do not know exactly what is the matter with them.

Archbishop Elder, of Cincinnati, has called a meeting of the clergy of his diocese to consider what action should be taken toward raising "at least some little percentage" on the debts of the late Archbishop Purcell, his predecessor. He says he does not yet see grounds for "pronouncing it an obligation of justice that the diocese should pay these debts, except for such loans as were made for purposes of religion, and such sums as were expended for works of the diocese." But the understanding has been hitherto that all the money due, except the arrears of interest, went in one or other of these ways. It has been suggested by nobody, we think, that the Archbishop and his brother spent it on themselves or used it for purely secular purposes, and they did not allege that they lost any of it in bad investments, for they made no investments. Therefore, we really do not see on what ground the Catholics of the diocese can escape the obligation of paying off the whole of the debt, except the back interest. This they may perhaps fairly refuse to consider a liability of theirs, as they got no benefit from it, and may set it down to the late Archbishop's carelessness or financial ignorance. To the secular eye, in short, it seems as if the new Archbishop could hardly do a better thing for religion and morality than open his administration by an announcement that the debt must be paid at whatever cost, even if it involves the suspension of a great deal of Church work. No church building erected with the misappropriated

savings of the poor can have any just claim to be considered "a sacred edifice" until the money is refunded.

Another plot to destroy the Welland Canal by dynamite has been discovered in advance. This time the startling revelation is made in Chicago, and there are no intimations that any of the Irish Nationalists who are suspected of being at the bottom of the plot, have been any nearer to Canada than New York is. The former plot, it will be remembered, was thwarted by having the canal picketed, and by having detectives follow the dozen dynamite operators who jumped off a train from Buffalo, each with a hand-bag full of dynamite. It has sometimes been charged that the dynamite patriots are a prudent set, who are careful to keep safely beyond the reach of their own explosives, but it has always seemed to us that the mere act of jumping from a railway train with a bag of dynamite bombs was a sufficient answer to this calumny. In the Chicago revelation nothing so tangible as a hand-bag appears. The revealers do not claim that the plot has advanced beyond the point of "premeditated design," but they have such positive evidence of its existence that they have requested the United States Government to assist in thwarting it. The funds in O'Donovan Rossa's treasury are evidently at a very low ebb.

The *Saturday Review* has an editorial account of Webb's death at Niagara, which in many respects surpasses the best efforts of our most imaginative reporters on this side of the water. It appears that Webb was not to blame at all for his death, but the mob, on the banks, "which was there to see him die; and there was not a man or woman of them all but felt a delightful thrill as he disappeared." This refusal to make even one exception in describing the inmost emotions of a large crowd is delightful for its sturdy simplicity. But the reason why Mr. Webb risked his life was, that "he was undoubtedly influenced by the American fondness for shows of a dangerous character in his choice of a place in which to try to renew his diminished reputation." The *Review* confesses, however, that it was in the eyes of Englishmen that he wished to renew his diminished reputation, and we are left to infer that he could not have done it in the way he had chosen—by the performance of a dangerous feat—in England. Englishmen, we suppose, if Webb had proposed to risk his life in a similar manner in England, would have absented themselves carefully from the scene of the exploit, with their well-known want of curiosity and dislike of large crowds, and shrinking from scenes of suffering or peril; and the poor man would have had to take his dive or his swim in solitude, or with nobody to look at him but the reporter of the *Daily Telegraph*. So, in order to secure a body of hard-hearted spectators, he came to America, and there he got just the kind of crowd he wanted, for it did not contain even one woman who did not feel a "delightful thrill" at the prospect of his death.

Whether the story of the huge offer made by the Canadian railroads to the British Government in the matter of assisting Irish emigration be true or not, it is certain that the Government is going to make further efforts to promote it. It is quite clear—in fact, the Home Rulers acknowledge it—that there are parts of Ireland in which no legislation can improve the condition of the farmer, simply because the climate is wretched and the soil worse. The Parnellites would meet the difficulty by moving these people on to land which is now pasture or reclaimable bog, and are not deterred by the expense of the process, because they think the money for it ought to come out of the British Treasury. The British taxpayer, however, not unnaturally prefers emigration, and there can be no question which is best for the poor people themselves. A large proportion of those who have passed their lives trying to get subsistence out of the soil of Connemara have doubtless too little heart or hope left for very successful contention with the difficulties of the Canadian wilderness; but the lot of their children will be very different in Canada from what it would be under any conceivable circumstances at home.

The Boston *Advertiser*, which was dissatisfied with our explanation of the shoe and leather failures, undertook, in compliance with our request, to give one itself at an early day. It now appears that we must not explain this trouble on "general principles," whatever that may mean. Nor must we say that "the trouble is local"; on the contrary, we must admit that it is general. We must, moreover, perceive that the trouble has lasted for some time, and does not mend, and that the strongest cities and strongest trades have suffered most, and that the wonder is that the "feebler lines of business have not been blotted out or broken." The writer, moreover, boldly asserts that "the failures have been due to a falling market," which is something we presume none but the most hardened and unscrupulous would deny. The article says, too, that the trouble is not due to the cost of labor. At last it reaches the kernel of the whole, which is that "falling prices, and possibly an illegitimate fall in prices, are responsible for the present embarrassment, and the remedy is either a turn in the market, or the general adaptation of the low averages which rule in all price lists." The writer further daringly asserts that "the issues of the day are not so much about wealth and merchandise as about prices and market quotations." We do not know exactly what all this means, but we presume that it contains a suggestion of great value. It looks as if we were to have another article of the same sort, in answer to the searching question "And what makes these?" (*i. e.*, prices and quotations). We cannot honestly say that we have learned yet what did cause the shoe and leather failures, in the last resort. We knew that they were caused proximately by a falling market, but this as an explanation seems to us like explaining a death by ascribing it to the cessation of the heart's action.

A statement by Dukes, written after his acquittal in his trial for the murder of Captain Nutt, has been published. He prepared it at the time when the state of feeling against him in Uniontown was most bitter, and when he was conscious that his life was in constant peril. He intended it as a vindication of his conduct to be published after his death. It is mainly an attempt to show that he shot Nutt in self-defence, drawing his pistol only when he saw that Nutt was trying to draw his. Accepting his statements as true, they only bring out in clearer light than ever the fact that if neither man had been armed there would have been no murder.

There has been a typical social homicide at Luling, Texas, from which it appears that the clergy are beginning to catch it from the manslayers. This, we trust, will lead to a more vigorous stand against murderers in the Southern pulpit. There is the usual somewhat comic side to this last tragedy, for it is said in the despatch that "no one blames Denman (the murderer), and yet the Rev. Mr. Sewell is regarded as the victim of a conspiracy, as he asserted in an ante-mortem statement." The reason why Denman is not considered blameworthy is probably that he acted under the belief that the minister had done him some domestic wrong. Indeed, in some parts of the South it seems to be assumed that a murdered man has no right to complain if his murderer believes, even mistakenly, that he merits death. In the Louisiana case, a clergyman was put to death by another clergyman and his brother in a most brutal manner because of some misunderstood gabble of a school-girl. In like manner Denman probably has misconstrued some other idle story and has slain Mr. Sewell without hearing him. Mr. Sewell was the local agent of the American Bible Society.

Not content with the very rough handling which the Rev. Cyrus Hamlin, President of Middlebury College, Vermont, has received through the press all over the country, for his utterly unwarranted assertions about the use of British gold for the promotion of the cause of free trade in this country, the reverend gentleman has again rushed into print—*Tribune*, August 5—in a very foolish manner. The proposition made by Mr. Thomas G. Shearman, that he would give $5,000 to Middlebury College if Mr. Hamlin would prove his assertions, the College faculty to act as jurors, is characterized as "indecent," of which, he says, "I shall not be expected to take any notice." Turkey is, however, again produced as a warning and example of the depths of misery and woe to which a country can fall which adopts free trade as its commercial policy. That Turkey, even to this day, has no roads, no government guaranteeing security to life and property, no courts of justice, no general system of education, no banks, no honest money, no improved tools and implements of agriculture or other production, while its religion sanctions polygamy, and fanatically preaches hostility to all non-believers in the Mohammedan faith, counts for nothing in view of the fact that a low duty has been for many years levied on imports into that country. Some time ago the Philadelphia *North American* asserted that the columns of the London *Times* would show that some $2,000,000 were subscribed in

England in 1844 for the publication and distribution of free-trade documents in this and other countries. We have called on the *North American* repeatedly to name the number and date of issue of the *Times* which contained this remarkable statement, but we have thus far called in vain. We are now informed privately, but we think on good authority, that the person who furnished the statement in question to the *North American* was Mr. Albert Bolles, Professor of Constitutional Law in the University of Pennsylvania; and we further note that Middlebury College, over which the Rev. Cyrus Hamlin presides, gave to Mr. Bolles, at its Commencement this summer, the honorary degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Senator Mahone, who speaks with all the confidence of a successful leader, declares that there can be no doubt about Republican success in 1884, and unhesitatingly maps out a course which will lead to it. He says the party must stand firm for protection, must pay off the public debt, and must use what money there is left to build up our State and common schools, thus educating the people. Toward the South he intimates that the Republican policy which has made him a leader should be continued. He says that President Arthur, "by his appointments to office," has "done more to eliminate sectional prejudices than any other man since the war." The Mahone way to complete reconciliation would undoubtedly be to distribute all the Federal patronage in the South among the Mahones, and have the Southern Republican party adopt the Southern view of repudiation.

Twenty Iowa Republicans have united in a formal protest against the position of their party on the prohibition question. The situation is a very peculiar one. Last year the people of the State adopted, by a large majority, a constitutional amendment not only prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors of all kinds, but prohibiting their manufacture as well. The Supreme Court declared the amendment invalid on account of some irregularities in its passage through the Legislature. When the Republican Convention met this year, the leaders of the party decided that it would be fatal to go against the expressed will of the people in the matter, and induced the Convention to declare in favor of the necessary legislation to secure another vote by the people. The platform even went further, and described the issue as one of the "home against the saloon," taking the ground that every man who opposed absolute prohibition was a friend of the saloon and an enemy of the home. Against this attitude the twenty Republicans protest. They state unflinchingly that the "mass of the people are intelligent, moral beings," and object to legislation which "makes no distinction between the few who are the slaves of strong drink" and "the many whose noblest manhood is insulted by the imputation that legal enactments are necessary for their protection from the consequences of such a vice."

Besides the Suez Canal, nothing has been lately exciting more party feeling in England than what is known as the Ilbert Bill in India, which is a measure extending the criminal jurisdiction of native Hindoo judges of a certain rank to Europeans, who have hitherto only been triable before men of their own race In India it has encountered almost frantic opposition from the English, but the Government has held firm, and the Liberals in England are now getting up a counter-agitation in support of it. The Tories threatened to bring the question up in Parliament, but they forebore, and nobody has meddled with it there on that side but Mr. Ashmead Bartlett, who carries no weight. The bill is but a step, but a very important one, towards full recognition of the equality of the Hindoos with the whites before the law as British subjects. This equality has been often promised, but never completely granted. In fact, on this point there has been a certain likeness between the policy of the Porte toward the rayahs and that of the British Government toward the Hindoos. Great things have been done for them in the way of educating them and admitting them to office, but the white men have never been put on the same footing with them in the criminal courts, nor have they ever been allowed the same or nearly the same official salaries.

Mr. Gladstone has made one of those speeches at the Lord Mayor's dinner in the City at which Ministers are expected to tell so much and usually tell so little. He again promised that the troops should be withdrawn from Egypt, to which they had gone simply for the purpose of "accelerating reform," but he omitted to say when they would be withdrawn or how long the reform would take. His announcement, however, as it stands, will be very disappointing to the furious commercial Jingoes who held meetings the other day to denounce the Government for acknowledging M. de Lesseps's monopoly in the Suez Canal. One of them, Alderman Cotton, laid it down that "Egypt was our property," and that the Government could, therefore, do what it pleased about the canal, and need not pay any attention to the claims of M. de Lesseps, or to his rights under his concession. A franker expression of the brute-force theory, in fact, has not taken place in England for a long time, and it gives one a good idea of the difficulties which a Ministry that tries to be moral in its foreign policy has to contend with. Mr. Gladstone was very reassuring about the relations of the country with France, and was very jubilant and sanguine about the condition of Ireland, for the improvement in which he said "deep gratitude was due to the Almighty and secondarily to Earl Spencer." We think a good deal is due also to Carey, the informer, without whose aid Earl Spencer would not have accomplished much.

The position of the Suez Canal affair now is that M. de Lesseps has released Mr. Gladstone from his agreement, and Mr. Gladstone has suspended the execution of his scheme of having M. de Lesseps build the canal and lending him the money for the purpose, and the British Jingoes who were making such a hullabaloo about the affair three weeks ago have quieted down, and become a little ashamed of themselves. The Khedive's law officers have given an opinion in favor of M. de Lesseps's claim, and so have the Lord Chancellor and the Attorney-General, but other good lawyers have given an opinion the other way, and, in fact, it may fairly be said that competent opinions on the legal interpretation of the concession are about equally divided. But there is no difference of opinion between the parties to the contract. The Khedive thinks he or his father gave M. de Lesseps a monopoly, and M. de Lesseps thinks he got a monopoly, and if Great Britain overruled them both in her own interest, it would simply be a very gross abuse of power. She does not profess to have conquered Egypt, and even if she had, could hardly, under any system of jurisprudence, undertake to construe the Khedive's contracts against the opinions of his own lawyers.

There appears to be still more or less uneasiness in Spain. There have been other risings of small bodies of troops, which have, however, been put down thus far without difficulty. The Paris *Temps*, which is an exceptionally well-informed paper on Spanish matters, says that the Spanish Republicans consider the situation a grave one, as several superior officers of the army are in favor of a republic, and are supported by the population of the towns. Unfortunately, however, there is probably no form of government which has not supporters among the superior officers of the Spanish army. When the republic was in existence, plenty of them were so much in favor of a monarchy that they made the republic impossible. There may now be enough of them in favor of a republic to make monarchy impossible. If they were agreed on anything, they would give Spain a settled government. But when anything goes wrong with a Spanish military man he thinks of revolution as a remedy. If his life is dull; if his promotion is slow; if rivals or enemies are in favor at court, nothing short of a revolution and a new constitution seems to him an adequate remedy. At present the malcontents are aided by the efforts of the Ministry to restore the public credit. This means an increase of taxation and a revision of the tariff, which offends the manufacturing provinces, particularly Catalonia, which is formidable when discontented for the same reason that it is industrially successful.

The news from Lima indicates that Chili has finally gained complete ascendancy over Peru, and that all the elements of opposition to Chilian control have been overcome. A great battle was fought on July 10, when all the opposing forces under the leadership of Caceres were routed, and since that time the Peruvian leaders have hastened to declare their loyalty to President Iglesias. The towns are following this example, and a better feeling is reported all through Peru at the prospect of peace after the long warfare. It is thought that a Congress will soon be assembled at Lima, when the treaty will be ratified and Peru evacuated by Chilian troops within three months.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, August 8, to TUESDAY, August 14, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THERE was great excitement in Wall Street on Monday and Tuesday owing to the rapid decline of stocks. One small failure was announced on Monday afternoon. On Tuesday morning the firm of G. W. Ballou & Co., brokers, of this city and Boston, suspended. It is believed that the losses of the firm are more than $500,000. They had 3,400 shares of Denver and Rio Grande. It was rumored that unfortunate investments in Mexican Central stock led to the failure. There was almost a panic on the London Stock Exchange on Tuesday in American railway securities.

During Thursday afternoon there was a large demand by depositors on the First National Bank and Indiana Banking Company, of Indianapolis, Ind., and large amounts were drawn from both these institutions. The banks remained closed throughout Friday, until about 3 o'clock, when the doors of the National Bank were opened, W. H. English and other capitalists having come to the rescue. On Saturday a scheme for reorganization was announced, involving the doubling of the capital stock.

In the early morning hours of Wednesday the telegraphic communication of the Western Union Company to and from New York was seriously interrupted by the cutting of eighty-two wires on the Eastern, Northern, and Southern circuits. The company believed that the damage had been done by striking linemen. The Brotherhood expressed disapprobation of the deed. There were rumors on Friday of a movement on the part of the strikers looking to a compromise. One hundred more wires were reported cut on Saturday. Several more expert operators returned to work at Rochester and Buffalo. On Saturday and Sunday nights the cutting of wires was continued, with annoying effect. A meeting of a number of trades unions was held in this city on Sunday. They resolved to give material aid to the strikers. On Monday morning there was more cutting of wires. On Tuesday 136 wires of the Gold and Stock Telegraph Company, which supplies brokers with stock quotations in this city, were cut. A committee of the U. S. Senate has been investigating the strike in this city.

The receipts from the taxes on tobacco, cigars, etc., for the fiscal year ending June 30 show a falling off of $5,287,739 as compared with last year. This is said to be due principally to the reduction in taxes which went into effect on May 1. The aggregate tobacco revenue for the year was $42,104,349.

The monthly cotton-crop reports of Texas show that the prospect has been seriously injured by the drought.

President Arthur and his party were at Fort Washakie, Wyoming, on Wednesday. They had driven more than 150 miles in spring-wagons, and had visited a mining camp and an Indian reservation. The President was reported as well and enjoying his vacation. On Thursday the party again started on their journey, this time on horseback. Daily reports of his progress have been received. The party was at Terry's Lake, Wyoming, on Tuesday.

It is reported on good authority that a commercial treaty has for some time existed between Germany and Mexico. The Second Secretary of the Mexican legation in Washington says that all stories to the effect that it contains an offensive and defensive clause are entirely without foundation. The treaty, he says, is substantially of the same character as that recently entered into between the United States and Mexico, and is designed solely to promote the commercial relations between the two countries.

Attorney-General Brewster has written an important opinion in reply to a question submitted by Secretary Folger regarding the payment of interest on money borrowed by the State of New York during the war of the rebellion for the enrolment, subsistence, and clothing of troops. Pennsylvania, Ohio, and several other Northern States have presented claims of a similar character, which involve hundreds of thousands of dollars in taxes. He decides, after a careful review of the act of July 27, 1861 (which provides for the payment by the Secretary of the Treasury, out of any money not otherwise appropriated, to the Governor or authorized agent of any State the costs properly incurred in raising its troops for the suppression of the rebellion), that the claim of New York does not come within the scope of the act.

A telegram was received at the Treasury Department in Washington on Wednesday from the Collector of Customs at Tacoma, Washington Territory, announcing that his officers, with the assistance of the revenue steamer *Walcott*, had captured a sloop engaged in running Chinese across the line from British Columbia. Two smugglers were arrested, but nine of the Chinese passengers escaped. The Collector also said that nearly 100 Chinamen had landed at various points on the northern frontier in boats and Indian canoes within the past few days, and that he is powerless to prevent their landing unless his force is largely increased.

Postmaster Pearson, of New York, has determined, on the authorization of Postmaster-General Gresham, to send the mails for Great Britain and Ireland, and the closed mails for the continent of Europe, which are forwarded by way of England and Belgium, by the steamers which, according to the record of previous voyages, will get them across at the earliest date. The practice heretofore has been to send these mails by the steamers which sailed first from New York.

The National party of New Jersey, after a turbulent meeting at Asbury Park on Thursday, nominated Benjamin Urner, of Union County, for Governor. A temperance plank in the proposed platform was dropped.

The Ohio Liquor-Dealers' Protective Association, at a meeting in Toledo on Thursday, passed resolutions condemning the Scott law, the proposed amendments to the Constitution, and the Republican party. It resolved to act with the Democrats in the coming campaign.

Twenty well-known Republicans, residents of Delaware County, Iowa, have signed a document protesting against the Iowa Republican State platform and pledging all honorable efforts to defeat it. They say: "We are not unmindful of the evils of intemperance, but we realize the truth that the mass of the people are intelligent, moral beings, and we deny the wisdom of any legislation on this subject which in its practical workings makes no distinction between the few who are slaves of strong drink, and therefore proper subjects of legislative care, and the many whose noblest manhood is insulted by the imputation that legal enactments are necessary for their protection from the consequences of such a vice."

The Maryland Republican State Convention has been called to meet in Baltimore on September 27, to nominate candidates for Governor, Comptroller, and Attorney-General.

The Grand Jury of Baltimore threw a bombshell into the Democratic camp on Monday by returning presentments as follows: An indictment against Wm. Pinkney Whyte, Mayor, and ex-officio President of the Fire Board; Thomas W. Campbell, Charles B. Slingluff, Samuel Hannah, and B. E. Smith, for malfeasance in office while acting as Board of Fire Commissioners, for knowingly permitting the sale to the city of material in violation of the Baltimore city code, and at prices so far in advance of the fair market value as to constitute a fraud on the city.

Governor Hamilton, of Maryland, has given to the press a five-column address to the people of the State, making several startling disclosures about the conduct of the last three Democratic Legislatures, and showing improper expenditures of State funds aggregating $500,000. After speaking in the most bitter manner of an oligarchy of bosses controlling the Maryland Democracy, meaning thereby United States Senator Arthur P. Gorman and his followers, the Governor says that since 1879, in several instances, the taxes and revenues of the State have not been paid over by the collection officers; that hundreds of thousands of dollars have been annually due from them for years, and that looseness, disorder, and confusion everywhere prevail. Instead of yielding a revenue, or even maintaining themselves, the oyster and the tobacco services are serious charges upon the Treasury. The delinquent officers, many of them well-known politicians, now owe the State $772,788 08.

The American Forestry Congress met at St. Paul, Minn., on Wednesday, Dr. Geo. B. Loring presiding. A report was adopted recommending to the members of the Congress from their respective States the importance of establishing experimental forestry stations; that the Congress memorialize Legislatures of the different States, urging upon them the practicability of establishing these stations, and that the Ohio plan of organizing such stations be recommended as best suited to the circumstances. The Congress closed its sessions on Friday.

The second annual National Education Assembly met at Ocean Grove, N. J., on Thursday. Two thousand persons were present. Addresses were made by Gen. John Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, and J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania. On Saturday the topic of Indian Education was discussed, and a long letter on the subject from Mr. Teller, Secretary of the Interior, was read.

Reports from Chicago were published on Friday that secret agents of the Canadian Government had been for some time in that city shadowing prominent Irish Nationalists, and that they had positive information of a design to destroy the Welland Canal by the use of explosives. It was further asserted that a request had been made to the United States Government to assist in thwarting the alleged conspiracy.

A letter written by Dukes, the Uniontown, Pa., murderer, when it seemed likely that his life would be taken, has just been printed. It defends his killing of Captain Nutt on the ground of self-defence, saying that he abstained from using his pistol when Nutt entered his room and attacked him, until Nutt called for help and he felt his own life to be in danger.

Hubert O. Thompson, Commissioner of Public Works, presented a report to the Croton Aqueduct Commission of this city on Wednesday. It estimated the cost of a dam and reservoir at Quaker Bridge at $4,000,000, the reservoir having an area of 3,635 acres, and a capacity of 32,000,000 gallons. The line of the proposed aqueduct from the dam is 31.89 miles long, and the total cost of dam, reservoir, and aqueduct is estimated at about $19,400,000. About three and one-half years would be required to make the aqueduct available. The report was ordered printed, and no further action was taken.

Gen. W. J. Palmer tendered his resignation as President of the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad to the Board of Directors, on Thursday, and it was accepted. It was due to other business interests which occupied his time.

Vineyard Haven, Mass., was almost destroyed by a fire which broke out on Saturday night, and was not checked until 3 o'clock on Sunday morning. All the stores in the place but one are burned, and a great many summer guests were turned out of doors. The territory burned over embraces about fifty acres of

the heart of the village, and the disaster leaves hundreds of people homeless, many of whom are thrown upon the charity of their neighbors.

The Kimball House at Atlanta, Ga., the largest hotel in the South, was burned on Sunday morning. The guests of the house all escaped. The loss is about $1,000,000.

FOREIGN.

There were fresh outbreaks in Spain on Wednesday. The Numancia cavalry regiment revolted at Santo Domingo, near Logroño, Spain. The rebels left the town and went in the direction of Najera. Several groups of workmen near Barcelona raised seditious cries, and then fled to the mountains. A hastily-summoned Cabinet Council, at Madrid, resolved to suspend constitutional guarantees and declare a state of siege throughout Spain. Military precautions were adopted in Madrid. There were fears of an outbreak in Republican interests at various of the principal towns. On Thursday the Spanish garrison at Seo de Urgel revolted. The rebels expelled the military Governor of the town. On Friday ten battalions of infantry and six batteries were sent to Seo de Urgel to suppress the outbreak. They restored order. Great agitation prevailed in Barcelona on that day, and the situation was serious. A slight revolt took place among the prisoners in the penitentiary in the city of Santander, capital of the province of that name, but it was promptly suppressed. On Friday afternoon the King and Queen arrived at Madrid and were received with enthusiasm. On Saturday complete tranquillity was announced throughout the peninsula. It was reported from Madrid that the outbreaks were a part of a scheme which Ruiz Zorilla had been planning for six years. Señor Castelar and his party condemn the uprising. It was rumored on Tuesday that the King had summoned Marshal Serrano to form a new Ministry, but it was not confirmed.

Mr. Gladstone, in a speech at the Lord Mayor's banquet in London on Wednesday night, said the Government had gone to Egypt in an unselfish spirit, and desired simply to accelerate reform there. It was felt that too much haste might spoil the work. When the views of the Government in this respect were accomplished, the British would disappear from the country. In regard to the Tamatave affair, Mr. Gladstone said the Government had received fuller advices from Madagascar, confirming the hope that no difficulty existed which could not be solved by generous and honorable dispositions, which should always exist, especially between France and England. Mr. Gladstone said he was thankful to be able to record the great change in the condition of affairs in Ireland. The authority of the law, he said, had been reasserted there, and peace and security prevailed. Deep gratitude was due to the Almighty, and, secondarily, to Earl Spencer, the Lord Lieutenant, and Mr. Trevelyan, the Chief Secretary.

There was a long debate, characterized by much obstruction on the part of the Irish members, in the House of Commons on Monday night, on a vote for the legal expenses incurred in the recent criminal prosecutions in Ireland. Mr. Harrington, member for Westmeath, alleged that Myles Joyce, who was found guilty and executed for participating in the murder of the Joyce family in County Galway, on September 18, 1882, was judicially murdered, despite the fact that evidence of his innocence was accessible to Earl Spencer, the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. Mr. Parnell, as a protest against the conduct of the Government, moved that the amount of money provided for in the appropriation be reduced, but his motion was defeated by 24 yeas to 93 nays.

In the House of Commons on Tuesday night the Bankruptcy Bill and the National Debt Bill passed their third reading, and the Tramways (Ireland) Bill passed its second reading. The latter bill provides for a Government guarantee of £1,000,000 for opening up the western districts of Ireland by light steam tramways.

The bill prohibiting pigeon-shooting has passed its third reading in the British House of Commons. On Friday night the Corrupt Practices Bill passed its third reading.

A meeting in favor of state-aided emigration was held at the Mansion House, London, on Friday. The Earl of Shaftesbury presided. A resolution was adopted providing for the sending of 200,000 persons to Canada and other British colonies, and for procuring farms for them in their new homes, the money for the purchase of the land to be advanced by the state, which is to take mortgages on the farms as security for payment. It is proposed to send 10,000 families to Canada next spring.

Dr. Robert Moffat, the father-in-law of Livingstone, the explorer, and for half a century a celebrated missionary in Africa, died in England on Friday. He was more than eighty years of age.

In the trial of the Liverpool dynamite conspirators on Wednesday, the Judge ruled that there was no case against O'Herlihy on the main charge of treason-felony, and he was formally acquitted, but detained on minor counts. The other cases went to the jury. Featherstone, Deasy, Flannigan, and Dalton were found guilty and sentenced to penal servitude for life, on Thursday. O'Herlihy, on Friday, was charged with conspiracy to murder, but as the Crown presented no testimony against him he was released.

The Paris *Temps* asserts that Admiral Pierre, whose conduct at Tamatave toward the British Consul and others caused much feeling in England, has asked to be replaced forthwith, owing to the poor condition of his health. Rear-Admiral Galiber has been appointed to succeed him. Letters from Madagascar say that Mr. Shaw, the British missionary, was arrested for concealing two Hova spies. It is reported that 3,000 French reinforcements will be sent to Madagascar and 600 to Reunion. The London *Standard* on Tuesday asserted that recent despatches from Madagascar fully confirm the first accounts of the outrages. It calls for explanations from France.

It is reported in Paris that the attention of Mr. Morton, the United States Minister in France, has been called to the fact that America is furnishing China with arms and ammunition, which it is believed are destined for Tonquin.

The mandarins at Hué, the capital of Anam, have refused to recognize Phudac, who was nominated as successor to the throne of the late King Tuduc. They have, it was announced on Wednesday, proclaimed Vianlan King in his stead. He is the nominee of the war party.

Mr. Charles Brun, French Minister of Marine, tendered his resignation on Wednesday on account of ill-health. On Friday it was announced that he was succeeded by Vice-Admiral Peyron.

An election for members of the Councils-General was held throughout France on Sunday. It resulted in a Republican victory in seventy-nine of the ninety districts.

A meeting of the Board of Directors of the Suez Canal Company, at which the British members were present, was held in Paris on Wednesday. The Board unanimously approved the letter of M. de Lesseps of July 23 to Mr. Gladstone.

The Comte de Chambord is reported to be again in a critical condition.

At noon on Wednesday the Emperors of Germany and Austria arrived at Ischl. The former had been met at Ebensee by the latter, where cordial greetings were exchanged. The meeting was ended on Thursday.

It was reported from Berlin on Saturday that the Austrian, German, and Turkish Governments are engaged in negotiations for the complete annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria.

It is announced that six persons, including four officials, will be prosecuted for the part they played in the Jewish trial at Nyiregyhaza, Hungary. Louis Kossuth has written a letter congratulating the counsel who defended the Jews. Riotous demonstrations against the house of one of the defendants in the trial were renewed on Wednesday. It was wrecked and a number of Jewish shops in the neighborhood were plundered. The rioting continued until Thursday morning, and thirty-two of the participators were arrested. Moritz Scharf, the boy who was the principal witness of the prosecution, and who swore that he saw the murder committed in the synagogue, has confessed that his testimony was false. The riots were renewed on Friday night.

Three hundred workmen attempted to make a demonstration before the office of the Director of Police, in Vienna, on Friday evening, because of the seizure of a workmen's newspaper. The mob was dispersed by a large body of police with drawn swords.

The festive celebration on Wednesday at Erfurt, Germany, of Martin Luther's entry into that town was a great success. An historical procession traversed the streets and excited much admiration.

The Senate of Bremen has concluded a convention with the German Government for the entry of that city into the Zollverein.

Prof. William Dindorf, the Leipsic critic and philologist, is dead at the age of seventy-nine.

The improvement in the cholera epidemic at Cairo continues. About five-sixths of the hospital patients now recover. A deplorable condition of affairs has, however, been discovered at the mad-house there, where thirty-two deaths occurred in four days among 270 inmates. A riot broke out in the Labat quarter of Alexandria on Friday night in consequence of a report that the English doctors were poisoning the natives. The mob attempted to destroy the ambulances, crying, "Death to the Christians." Troops quelled the outbreak. The death-rate at Alexandria is increasing. On Monday there were forty-four victims.

The river Nile is rising and has already damaged the crops in Egypt.

Within the last two years about fifty vessels have been stranded in the Straits of Kertch, Black Sea. It now appears that there has been collusion between the pilots and a band of pirates, who charged great sums for assisting vessels in distress.

The Czar's coronation decree, granting liberty of worship to dissenters, only affects 1,000,000 of so-called registered dissenters. There are 14,000,000 still unrelieved of their religious disabilities.

The trial at Tournay, Belgium, of Canon Bernard, on a charge of abstracting valuable papers and securities from the Episcopal Palace at Tournay, was concluded on Saturday morning. The Canon was found not guilty.

Cetewayo's brother asserts that the King took refuge in an isolated kraal after the late battle, and was not killed, as previously announced, but was severely wounded. The Governor of Natal has telegraphed a similar report to England. On Saturday it was telegraphed that he was on his way to Pietermaritzburg.

Mail advices from Port-au-Prince, Hayti, dated July 24, assert that the country is in a very agitated condition. The Government is penniless and business is at a complete standstill. The town of Jacmel has pronounced in favor of revolution. A great battle has been fought before Jeremie, in which the Government troops were defeated, and seven of their generals were taken and executed. The revolutionists are marching on Leogane.

WALL STREET.

If anybody should attempt to write a book on Wall Street in imitation of Mr. Bagehot's 'Lombard Street,' he would find the composition of a lucid work an exceedingly difficult task. "The Street" begins to play a larger and larger part in the financial world, owing to the enormous amounts of American capital it holds and of foreign capital it distributes. Since the subsidence, too, of war politics it occupies a larger and larger share of the attention of the American people.

Nothing is more curious about it than its effect on the imagination even of those who do not speculate in stocks at all. The great hotel-keepers in places like Saratoga rely on it with the utmost confidence as an indication of the kind of season they are likely to have. If stocks are high in Wall Street, they are certain their houses will be full; if low, that they will either lose money or fail to make any money, and this not because their customers are persons who are dependent for their luxuries on the result of speculative operations, but because when stocks are low, people who never go near Wall Street feel poor through the imagination. People who never speculate at all, whose investments are of the best class, who have nothing in their safes the dividends on which are likely to be in the least affected by any ups and downs on "the Street," feel, when they see the price of their securities falling, as if they must be prudent or economize. They not only deny themselves on their summer tours, but in all their luxuries. The contagion even reaches people who own no stocks at all. A falling market diffuses through the air the feeling that it is time to be thrifty and careful, and that there is no knowing what is going to happen; that even the man who has nothing to lose is somehow in danger of losing something.

In fact, the Wall Street stock quotations have on a large body of people at the North somewhat the effect of a thermometer on a hot day on the fancy of the wayfarer. It is a very common experience for a man who has felt quite comfortable with the thermometer at 95 degrees, to be made nervous, and even alarmed and incapacitated for all further exertion, by seeing the figures himself. He suddenly feels much hotter and more languid, and begins to be afraid to move about.

The exhilarating effect of high prices is, too, just as great as the depressing effect of low prices. There is hardly any one, whether he owns any stocks or is speculating in stocks or not, who is not cheered by a rising market in Wall Street. Everybody in New York, when it has lasted a week or two, from the millionaire to the hod-carrier, feels that good times have come, that his future is more assured, that he may indulge in more luxuries, although he may know perfectly well that the condition of the stock market has not, and cannot have, the smallest influence on his income. The brokers feel the genial glow first, and provide themselves with dog-carts and saddle-horses, and from them it diffuses itself rapidly through the community, till it is felt wherever the telegraph goes. It stimulates retail purchases of all kinds, from houses down to gloves. It increases in particular the consumption of champagne at the restaurants. Delmonico can always tell how the market is, without ever looking at the newspapers or "the ticker," by listening to the popping of his corks.

There is nothing quite like this in any country in the world. We do not propose to analyze its causes here. We merely wish to point out that the phenomenon probably has a good deal to do with the prevailing depression in business, of which so much complaint is made and for which it seems so difficult to account. For two years the conditions of business prosperity have all existed in abundance. There has been no great financial disturbance or political complication at home or abroad. The harvests have been abundant and immigration enormous, and everything dependent on abundant harvests—the railroad traffic, for instance—has been doing well. But stocks have been "dull" ever since Garfield's death, and have been growing duller, and it apparently makes no difference whether they pay dividends or not. The general tendency during all this period has been downward, although there is no proof that they are any less valuable now than they were in 1881. In fact, the probabilities are that they are much more valuable than they were two years ago. But it has, nevertheless, been impossible to get up a "boom" in them, and nothing could be more ludicrous than the failure of all prophecies of an approaching period of "better prices." We have been told for about a dozen times within the last two years that "the liquidation," whatever that is, was over; that the bottom had been reached; that "the weak holders," against whom "the raids" are always aimed, were "shaken out," and that now we were going to see signs of confidence—but all in vain. The market has been "dull," or "stagnant," or "feverish and declining," or "sagging," or "ragged," with dreary persistence.

That the effect of this has been to produce general business blueness or despondency we think there can be no question. Whether stocks are high or low in Wall Street cannot make any real difference to anybody but speculators as long as they are not gaining or losing in intrinsic value, and yet nearly everybody is affected by it. It restricts consumption in all but the necessaries. It makes capitalists timid and doubtful, and, by keeping a good deal of money lying idle, lowers the interest on all investments, and makes people of fixed incomes feel poor and economical. Altogether it may fairly be pronounced one of the strangest phenomena of modern times. Whether it will pass away—that is, whether the commercial imagination of the country will ever throw off the Wall Street influence—it is, of course, impossible to guess. It will certainly never do so as long as the habit of speculation lasts, and the habit of speculation will probably last as long as the country is growing so rapidly in wealth and population. As long as people see stocks which brought five dollars last year bringing eighty this year, speculation will be rife, and they will see this as long as the country progresses by "leaps and bounds." And it is the speculation which invites the raids and combinations on the part of the great operators, that, by frightening the outside public, produces these periods of depression. The professional operators could not possibly make anything off regular investors. They lie in wait for the people who take "turns" and "flyers" in the Street, just as lions and tigers wait at the pools and rivers for the cattle and sheep and deer to come down to drink in the evening. When they think there are enough of them collected to make a spring profitable, "the raid" is made. But the cattle and sheep and deer continue to come because each animal loves water, and thinks he will secure his drink and get away before the beast of prey notices him.

THE STRIKE AND THE MONOPOLY.

The controversy over the telegraphers' strike does not grow any clearer. The *Times* now says it has been all along in favor of freedom of contract. But freedom of contract covers both parties to the strike: it leaves the operators free to go, and the Company free to do without them. This, as we understand it, the *Times* has never allowed. It has held that the Company was under some sort of obligation to take the strikers back on their own terms, or something approaching their own terms, and has abused it for not fulfilling this obligation. We have endeavored to discover on what the obligation rested in the *Times*'s mind, and have been driven to the conclusion that it rests on the badness of the Western Union managers as speculators and stock-waterers. We have said that this notion probably originated in a nursery, because it would naturally occur to a child that a good way of punishing a wicked rich man was to make him pay high wages to his servants.

We, for our part, are also in favor of freedom of contract. We believe the strikers have a right to leave if the Company has the right to get along without them. But we hold that if one party is under an obligation to the public, or to anybody else, to keep on telegraphing, so is the other party. Both are bound by it, and therefore all attempts to harass the Company into surrender, either by legal process or objurgation, while leaving the strikers to do as they please, are an abandonment of the theory of freedom of contract, and a great absurdity into the bargain. On any theory, too, of the relation of the parties, it is in our mind preposterous to ask the Company to share with a committee of outsiders the control of the persons in its service.

The *Herald* makes confusion a little greater, we are sorry to say, by proposing a board of arbitration established by joint agreement, which should "take notice of the fact that the Western Union insists on earning a dividend on watered stock." This phrase, "earning a dividend on watered stock," in which so many newspapers delight, is simply a roundabout way of saying that its profits are large. "Watering stock" is usually resorted to either for the purpose of making the property more divisible for purposes of sale, or for concealing the real amount of the profits, or for both. It is only when done for the second of these objects that it is in the least reprehensible. Whether a Company pays 40 per cent. on 1,000 shares or 20 on 2,000 is in itself a question of no moment, so

that what the *Herald's* board would have "to take notice of" is simply the fact that the profits of the Western Union are large. The opinion that the profits of corporations serving the public ought to be cut down, by returning to the community everything over a good interest, either in taxation or a reduction of rates, is gaining ground both in England and France, as well as here. The last *Pall Mall Gazette* advocates it in a way which indicates that it will be, or is, a feature in the Radical programme in England. But we have not heard until now that anything over the maximum was to be legally devoted to raising wages, or, in other words, was to be bestowed on one class of the community only. Nor have we heard until now that a man or a company was bound to pay wages in proportion to his profits. How would the *Herald* like to have that rule applied to its own business? It is a large and prosperous concern of which the dividends are understood to be enormous. How would it like to have itself compelled by law to make the wages of its employees proportionate to the amount of its net earnings, or to have all its brethren begin abusing it because it did not admit a trade union to a share in the management of its office? There are, in fact, the seeds of great and far-reaching mischief in the way this affair has recently been treated by some of our contemporaries. If it turns out that they have raised the devil with their "sympathy," they will not suffer as other branches of trade and industry will, but we trust they will be sorry. We have no doubt the Western Union has been wanting in consideration for its employees; but the question involved in the strike is not whether the managers are kind or considerate employers, or good men, but whether they are paying the market rate of wages, and most of the talk expended on their moral qualities is therefore, to say the least, irrelevant.

On the other hand, the Western Union has now apparently got the better of the strikers, and can conduct its business once more in its own way. That it should have firmly and successfully resisted the strike is doubtless a sign of administrative ability on the part of its managers. But it will do well to remember that the non-occurrence of strikes among employees is a sign of good administration also. The captain of the ship who puts down a mutiny energetically is usually considered a good commander, but the captain who never has any mutiny to put down is considered a better one. Discontent among subordinates in a large concern always indicates something wrong, no matter how mistaken or foolish their way of expressing it may be. Probably no strike on a large scale has ever yet occurred in which the right was all on one side. Generally, as we remarked at the beginning of this Western Union trouble, the right is about equally divided between the parties to the controversy. The managers, therefore, will do well not to regard difference between them and their employees settled by the result of the strike. Even if it be impossible in the interest of discipline to hear or treat with the employees through the Brotherhood, the Company ought to provide or recognize some channel through which the complaints or remonstrances of the operators can be received and considered without prejudice to the persons from whom they emanate. We see that it is now said that the operators will be heard and dealt with individually, but they ought not to be asked to make their complaints individually. To stand forth alone as a malcontent is something which requires a good deal of courage, and it is a trial to which the timid and nervous should not be obliged to expose themselves. Employees ought to be allowed to present their grievances collectively, and through some sort of representative body. In fact, we do not see how a well-managed corporation, which employs large bodies of men, can avoid desiring the creation of some representation of its workpeople, through which it could be readily made acquainted with their feelings, and with which a discussion of their grievances could be readily carried on when necessary.

The Western Union will do well, moreover, to bear in mind that its responsibility is increased by the fact that it enjoys a virtual monopoly of the telegraphic business in the United States—a fact which enables it to fix the wages of operators in this country, and which from the first rendered the strike hopeless. The ordinary remedy of the dissatisfied laborer, therefore—seeking work elsewhere—is not open to the operator. If he cannot make terms with the Western Union, he has hardly any other resource. It is under no business obligation to give up this advantage, but it is bound to remember, in dealing with its laborers, that it possesses it. It is not bound, as has been maintained, to pay them well in consideration of the badness of its own managers, but it is bound by a due regard for its own interests to avoid these public fights with them, to keep them satisfied and faithful, not by surrendering to their threats, but by anticipating their discontent.

This last affair has undoubtedly had the effect of greatly stimulating the demand for Government competition. That this will come before long we have not the slightest doubt. A larger and larger number of people are beginning to see that Government competition is the only one which will ever prove effective against the Western Union, and the only remedy for whatever inconveniences arise from having the telegraphy of the country in the hands of one corporation. The Western Union has found so little difficulty for many years in destroying competition by buying out competitors, that the creation of rival companies for the express purpose of being sold out to it, after a period of fictitious activity and furious denunciation of monopolies, has long been a favorite device of tricky financiers. In fact, the corporation is largely made up of these purchased champions of popular rights. What we need now is a Government telegraph, in connection with the Post-office, to compete with the commercial corporations. All that denunciation of the greed and unscrupulousness of Jay Gould and Cyrus W. Field and others can do for us has been done. We hear nothing of any signs of wincing on their part under the terrible epithets of the Anti-Monopolists.

THE USE OF GOING TO COLLEGE.

The views propounded by Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., before the Phi Beta Kappa Society in Cambridge, in July, on college education, having been published in a pamphlet form, have been receiving renewed discussion from the press. His complaint is now pretty well known. It is that he spent a great deal of time at college learning Greek, without succeeding; that the notion that there is mental discipline in it is a delusion, and that modern languages ought to be substituted for the dead languages in the college course for all who prefer them, as furnishing a better equipment for the work of life, and just as good means of intellectual training. He does not, at the same time, underrate the advantages of a "classical education" for those who get it; the trouble is, he says, that the colleges profess to give it, and do not give it—at all events, have not given it to him, or any of his family or friends. He would, therefore, allow students, on coming up for entrance, to offer German, Spanish, French, or Italian as the equivalent of Hebrew, Greek, or Latin. His grievance, in the last analysis, is really an old one in a new form. It is that a college education does not prepare a young man more directly and appropriately for any of the callings in which college-bred men, except perhaps clergymen, are likely to engage. In other words, when they leave college their knowledge is either insufficient or is the wrong kind of knowledge.

He has unfortunately, in his address, however, overlooked or treated but very slightly what is, in our eyes, the main point in the discussion—namely, how far any curriculum which is not strictly professional or technical can be made a direct preparation for the work of life. An assumption runs through his argument which also runs through nine-tenths of the talk and writing of educational reformers, and that is, that if you get hold of the right kind of curriculum and of the right method of presenting it, you can teach young people anything you please. The fact is, however, that the great difficulty of colleges is not the difficulty of selecting the right kind of knowledge to offer, but the difficulty of getting the young men to acquire it. It cannot be driven into them by main force. Their minds have to be reached through their own industry, teachableness, and eagerness to learn. In the large colleges here in the East, as well as in the European colleges, the undergraduates may be divided into three classes. First, there are those who, either from natural love of learning or a desire to make a career which will better their condition, are determined to make any sacrifice to acquire all the knowledge the college offers. This is a small body of men, generally poor, who probably get out of the study of the classics all that it would be possible for them to get out of any study. The second is composed of those who simply want to get a degree, with a respectable standing in the class, without annoyance or disappointment to their parents, but are not specially zealous or industrious, and cannot by any art known to educators be pushed beyond a certain jog-trot. Last of all there are the regular idlers, and dunces, and scapegraces, who are the af-

fliction of families and the despair of professors and deans. We do not believe we exaggerate when we say that these last two classes make up seventy per cent. of the undergraduates of Yale and Harvard, and of every other large college, and that it makes very little difference with what species of knowledge you ply them, as far as preparation for the work of life is concerned. They will only take a certain amount of any kind of knowledge. Mr. Adams's notion that they would leave college proficient in French and German, if they got a chance at those languages instead of Greek and Latin, and would keep up their acquaintance with them in after life, we hold to be a chimera. When busy with callings in which French or German were not called for every day, they would forget them as they do Greek or Latin—not so completely, perhaps, but so far as to make knowledge of them a mere pretence.

The great mass of young men who go to college do not see in college a preparation for active life, and therefore do not take hold of its studies with real apprehensive power. Partly owing to their age, partly to the uncertainty as to what calling they will take up, in which most of them pass the years between sixteen and twenty-one, it is not possible to give college that sort of reality in their eyes which is necessary to make them really assimilate the knowledge it offers. Everything about it has to them an air of remoteness from the world—the subjects, the professors, the discipline, the rules and regulations. This is curiously illustrated by the change which comes over a great many of them when they enter the law or medical or other professional schools, after taking the academical degree, and realize that they are actually engaged in direct preparation for practice. Everything which these schools teach, whether it be languages or anything else, has the highest interest for them, and is not only rapidly appropriated, as far as each man's powers will permit, but is sedulously retained.

If it be asked what good a college education does under these circumstances, the answer, which Mr. Adams in one place almost gives, is, that it does nearly all the good an ordinary young man at that time of life is capable of receiving. It is difficult to do more for the typical young man than expose him to right influences, or, in other words, keep him, while he is getting into shape both physically and intellectually, in a society which is occupied with intellectual things, which is not trying to make money or get the better of anybody, which encourages reflection, respects acquisition, and occupies itself more or less with high ideals. To do much more than this, we should have not simply to improve or change the college curriculum, but take complete possession of a boy, in military fashion, as West Point or Annapolis does, and train him both physically and mentally in all his working hours; teach him to walk and run, and ride and row, to dress and to behave, while actually getting him ready for a profession. No college can, however, undertake anything of the kind, nor is it desirable that it should. Military schools do wonders with raw youths, but they are hardly better fitted to prepare them for the ordinary race of civil life than Harvard or Yale. Nor is a counting-house or store a much better preparation than a university. There is more waste of time in a boy's first years in business than in any period in a well-behaved man's life. A large part of them are passed in mere mechanical drudgery, over things which are readily learned in three months, and in company which does nothing to stimulate or elevate either intellectually or morally. The apprenticeship, in fact, is simply dreary waiting for the time when the lad can be trusted to do, or has the means to do, what he has been supposed to be getting ready for—namely, the purchase and sale of commodities. For this, or anything else, copying letters and running errands, which is what most mercantile training in the early stage now consists in, is but a poor preparation.

Mr. Adams, moreover, has taken no notice of the experience of the Berlin University in the ten years since the admission of the pupils of the *Real-schulen*, or technical schools, as well as the pupils of the gymnasia or classical and mathematical academies, to the University. From their published report on the subject, which we examined in these columns some two years ago, it appears that in all kinds of university work, including the higher mathematics, the pupils from the classical schools surpass the non-classical students. The Professor of Astronomy, in particular, says: "The students prepared at the real-schools show at first more knowledge and more skill than those prepared at the gymnasia, but their further development is slower, more superficial, and less independent, while they show still greater inferiority in point of ability to carry on the more difficult processes of independent research." The professors of chemistry tell the same story as the professors of mathematics and astronomy. The whole report is most interesting, and in spite of the sad experience of the Adams family, on which Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., relies so much, goes far to show that as a mental process even the unsuccessful study of Greek and Latin has a great deal more value than he is willing to admit.

BRITISH ENTERPRISE.

The files of the London papers for the first week in August are filled with enthusiastic accounts of the success of the new addition to the British mail service called the "Parcels Post." Column after column is devoted to minute accounts of its practical workings, and many more columns to profoundly speculative disquisitions on the effects which it will have upon the moral, social, and economic life of the great British public. In a few instances, guarded references are made to the fact that services of a similar kind have been in operation for some time in other parts of the world, but generally the subject is discussed with that curious unconsciousness of what the rest of the world is doing which is so striking a characteristic of the British mind. The new service is treated with great impressiveness as a purely original reform. The *Times* remarks, in its most ponderous manner, that the measure has been advocated for some years by the "Society of Arts, the Social Science Association, and such cool and independent thinkers as the late Professor Jevons," but that the most judicious advocates would have pleaded long in vain "if increased intimacy with Continental habits and institutions, and especially the union of the greater part of Europe into one district for postal purposes, had not forced the subject on public attention." That is the nearest approach made to an admission that in establishing its "Parcels Post" England is simply trying to push up abreast with the rest of the world.

There is absolutely nothing new in its new service. Similar services have been in successful operation in Germany, France, Belgium, Holland, and other countries for many years. There may be a few points of difference in minor details, but the general plan is the same in all. The British "innovation" simply enables the British public to send by mail any package under seven pounds in weight and not exceeding six feet in combined length and girth. There are five rates of postage. Parcels a pound in weight go for 3d.; three pounds for 6d.; five pounds for 9d.; and seven pounds for 1s. The rates are the same for all distances, and this is the main point of difference between the system and that of some other countries. In this country the same service is done to a limited extent by our "merchandise" or "fourth-class" mail, but mainly by our express companies. Mail matter here is limited to packages not exceeding four pounds, and the mail is only used in sending packages at all when the distance is so great as to make the rate of one cent an ounce cheaper than express rates. The express has been our main dependence for more than forty years, and has been doing, with great convenience to the public and with profit to itself, substantially the same business which the new post will do in England.

For some reason or other not altogether apparent, there are no expresses of this kind in England. One of the London papers, the *Daily News*, refers to them as an American institution by which may be transported "anything, from a bunch of bank notes to a genuine dome-back Saratoga trunk, which is something in appearance between Noah's ark and H. M. S. *Inflexible*." The *Times* trenches carefully upon the same fact by saying that "Englishmen travelling abroad have learned with surprise that their trunks and boxes could be sent about," and the "national pride in the perfection of our own arrangements has been somewhat shaken." The time which has been necessary to shake this pride even "somewhat" is best shown by the fact that express companies were established in the United States in 1839, and have been growing steadily in usefulness ever since. Ten years ago the capital employed in the business amounted to more than $25,000,000. The number of separate offices exceeded 8,000; more than 18,000 men and about 3,500 horses were employed, and the distance travelled on the various railways was estimated at 300,000 miles a day. Immense fortunes have been made in the business. But during all these years the enlightened English people have scrambled along

without any service at all, and thousands of them have examined the American system with no other result than having their pride in the "perfection of their own arrangements somewhat shaken."

After waiting so long before entering upon this field of reform, it is not at all strange that the British public should treat the experiment with great solemnity. The London reviews are moved to the most profound reflections. The *Spectator* declares boldly that it thinks the change "worked in the conditions of social life" will "benefit the nation as a whole." It is afraid the "shopkeepers of villages and small towns" are likely to lose custom, and enters into an abstruse calculation on the problem of whether it will be cheaper to buy seven pounds of sugar in London for two shillings and pay a shilling postage on it, or buy it in the country at a little higher price and save the postage. On the other hand, while the country storekeeper may lose in one way, he may gain in another; for he can have samples sent by mail from London, and by making his window "bright with a collection of specimen articles from large town houses" may lure the consumer, unaccustomed to magnificence in such a place, into overlooking the difference in price. The *Saturday Review*, aided doubtless by its habitual contempt for everything American, goes even further and deeper in its speculative researches, and foresees trouble for the Gladstone Ministry because "small tradesmen who discover that their most dangerous rivals have been practically brought next door, will not bless the Government which has made the fight for life still harder." A brief study of the working of the services in other countries would have shown all these able commentators that no marked changes will be made in the character or habits of the people; but that would not have been the English way of treating the subject. The "reform" has been established, and within the course of the next quarter of a century the British citizen may become weary of fighting for his luggage at railway stations, and may establish another "reform" and adopt a system of checks.

LAW AND ORDER IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, July 28, 1883.

IT would be difficult fully to realize the differences between the relations of the people and the Government in the United States and in Ireland. With you the people are, and feel that they are, the Government; here the Government is a thing apart, whether for good or for evil. The relation varies, it is true, in different parts of the island. (The nearest approach to things as they are with you may be in Belfast, where, perhaps from very opposition to the rest of Ireland, and influenced to some extent by the general commercial prosperity, there is a greater consciousness of oneness with the Government and with the Empire at large even than in most towns across the Channel.) This was vividly brought home to us some time ago when we read an account of the burning of a penitentiary in one of your Southern cities, and how the Mayor distributed arms among the citizens and formed them in a cordon round the building to prevent the escape of prisoners, while the fire department set about saving life and property. Here the last thing the Government desires, or could attempt at present, would be to call upon the citizens in a like emergency. It is true that when our Metropolitan Police struck last summer, a limited number of special constables were enrolled, but they came forward from one class, and were carefully selected and supervised. This dependence of the civil population upon the police and military has its advantage, tending almost entirely to eliminate from the minds of quietly-disposed persons the thought of taking the law into their own hands or avenging their own injuries. But it is destructive of all idea of true citizenship, and has an eminently enfeebling effect. There is something almost ludicrous in the extent to which we think it necessary to abstain from individual responsibility or action and to call in the police. The evil-disposed are not without making their calculations in this respect. Even outside the circles which hate and are prepared to oppose or thwart the law, they can confidently rely upon the extent to which most men, suddenly brought face to face with violence or outrage, will be likely not to interfere in what does not personally and immediately concern them. The possibility that what might be a row or an outrage is a matter in which police in plain clothes are concerned, and the extreme danger of interfering with them, tend to encourage indifference. The impunity which these tendencies were likely to confer upon a body of men like the Invincibles was strikingly shown last year, when it appeared possible for a small number of ruffians to assassinate men in the Park in open daylight, or at their own doors in the heart of the city in the dusk, and to drive off with ease and safety. All they had to do was to see that no policeman was within sight—our ordinary detectives are almost as easily distinguished as their comrades in uniform—and the murderers might then calculate on having no trouble from the casual passers-by. The manner in which the Government attempted to solve, and in effect did solve the difficulty, was as original as it was unexpected. They imported some 300 royal marines from the reserves at the English naval ports, dressed them in plain clothes, located them in houses in different parts of the city, and set them to loiter and watch in the principal thoroughfares, ready at all times to assist the police, to guard prisoners, and to execute warrants. They were mostly lithe, able, pure-blooded looking young fellows. One could generally judge of their appearance; but they were turning up upon all occasions when least expected, and no bully or "Invincible" could ever count upon some of these detectives being far distant. Their disguises were varied, and often so complete that members of the corps have been upon occasions taken into custody by the police or their fellows as suspicious characters. There was nothing by sentry or otherwise to indicate their barracks. This force, it is satisfactory to relate as an augury of more peaceful times, has just been withdrawn. Their position and duties were of the most delicate character, and the manner in which they fulfilled them is greatly to their credit. This measure is an indication of the almost boundless resources and powers of the United Kingdom, at once so highly civilized in its way, so organized, so closely knitted together by modern civilization, having at its disposal such a force of reliable human material. It does not appear to me that even with these powers and resources it would be possible permanently to hold in a condition of dissatisfied union such a clearly-defined though small country as Ireland; but this power is thoroughly effective pending discussion—pending the efforts of statesmanship to maintain the Union upon present terms.

But if the Government, or, rather, the Lord Lieutenant, who is really an autocratic ruler under the Coercion Act, has been fortunate in the management of such an innovation as the marines in Dublin, such wisdom has not always been shown in the efforts to govern Ireland independently of the opinion of the mass of the Irish people. The imprisonment of the Harringtons may be taken as signal instances to the contrary. Under the present Crimes (or Coercion) Act, arbitrary powers are given to magistrates to try offences of utterance and press offences, and the punishments inflicted, instead of being, as heretofore, and as in England, of a comparatively light character, suitable for "first-class misdemeanants,' are now the same as for ordinary criminals. It must be also borne in mind that the magistrates before whom such cases are brought are not unpaid, honorary magistrates or justices; they are, like the County Court Judges, before whom the appeals are heard, and from whose decisions there is no further appeal, paid Government officers—dependent upon Government for their bread and advancement, like King Bomba's magistrates, the justice of whose decisions was for these very reasons so vigorously and eloquently called in question a generation ago by Mr. Gladstone.

Mr. Timothy and Mr. Edward Harrington are the owners and editors of the Kerry *Sentinel*, published in Tralee. I have never seen a copy of the paper, but presume it is a strenuous if not bitter opponent of the Government. Kerry has been one of the worst counties in the matter of outrages. The Executive maintain that this is largely due to the attitude and writings of men like the Harringtons and of papers like the Kerry *Sentinel*. The National party lay this to the conduct of the Kerry landlords and the manner in which the tenantry were rackrented. The Harringtons claim that they have set themselves against outrage, and that they have run considerable risks in their denunciation thereof, and, except under Mr. Forster's régime, when one if not both of them was among the 900 "suspects," they were neither of them brought within the meshes of the law until a few months ago. At a meeting in Mullingar last December Mr. Timothy Harrington delivered a speech, in which he said:

"I advise the tenant-farmers of this locality to come forward zealously and give a fair day's wages for a fair day's work. The agitation which has been carried on for the last four years will be turned against them if they do not come forward now and assist the laborers in their hour of need. I have learned since I came here that a great many of the farmers had got a reduction of from 10 to 25 per cent., and they should come forward now and assist the laborers in their hour of need."

This was construed into an attempt to terrorize the farmers of Westmeath; Mr. Harrington was sentenced by the magistrates to two months' imprisonment—sentence confirmed on appeal before the County Court Judge—and he served out his two months, sleeping on a plank bed, living on meagre prison fare, picking oakum, not allowed to communicate with the outside world, and having to carry his slop-bucket, with other prisoners, under the windows of the Governor's residence. Mr. Trevelyan defended his imprisonment substantially on the grounds that he was a "very formidable person." The farmers of Westmeath showed their appreciation of the action of the Government on their behalf by electing Mr. Harrington, during his imprisonment, to a vacancy which occurred in the Parliamentary representation of their county. Mr. Harrington is now more "formidable" than ever. He is in no degree subdued by what he underwent. He is the active Secretary of the National League, and one of the bitterest members of the Irish

Parliamentary party. He is a man about thirty years of age, of considerable force of character.

Some weeks ago the police, without warning, made a descent upon the office of the Kerry *Sentinel*, turned out the staff, and carried off all the type, presses, papers, and documents. A scandalous and bombastic printed notice had been posted in Tralee announcing the formation of a branch of the Invincibles in the town, stating where its meetings would be held, and soliciting public support. The notice was only a few inches square—"set up" in newspaper type and measure. The Government might well afford to pass the matter over, but they thought otherwise, and, believing that it was printed at the *Sentinel* office, took summary action accordingly. Mr. Harrington, M. P., and his brother denied all knowledge of the document, and in answer to the challenge of the former in the House of Commons, a magisterial inquiry took place, which resulted in two apprentices, on their own confession, being sent to prison for two months. Mr. Edward Harrington, the acting proprietor, was then proceeded against. There was nothing whatever to show that the document had been printed with his knowledge. The lads stated that they did it secretly, entirely on their own notion and of their own accord. He had commented upon its appearance in the *Sentinel*, and the magistrate strangely construed his comment to the effect that "it is in width the same as the columns of this paper" into *prima-facie* evidence that he must have known all about it; whereas every printer must be aware that any one connected with a printing office could at a glance estimate the measure and type of a printed notice casually seen. It was in truth Mrs. Harrington that saw the document and told her husband about it; but she, as his wife, could not be examined for the defence. To the general surprise Mr. Harrington was sentenced to six months' imprisonment. He appealed, with only the effect of adjourning the commencement of his incarceration. On the appeal the apprentices were brought up from the prison to give evidence. They reiterated that they were the only delinquents, and that Mr. Harrington knew nothing about the matter. To his trial and appeal, as those of his brother, Crown Counsel were specially sent down from Dublin to conduct the prosecution, and their influence was overwhelming against the prisoner.

Cases such as these of Mr. Harrington's cannot but aggravate public feeling in Ireland, and the aggravation will not be much lessened by Mr. Trevelyan's announcement in Parliament, on Thursday night, that some of the most oppressive prison regulations will in Mr. Harrington's case be somewhat modified. The public generally believe, and will continue to believe, that he is innocent, and that he is being sacrificed to the policy of the Executive here, never to retreat or acknowledge mistakes in its dealings with Ireland. By the "public" I mean the mass of the people—the people who turn the elections in all but a few northern counties. There is no sympathy for the Harringtons or for others of National proclivities in the minds of most Protestants or the upper "ten thousand," Catholic and Protestant. The country is at present hopelessly divided in this respect.

On the other hand, among the mass of the people there is no heartfelt sympathy in anything that befalls the landlord class through their position as landlords, or with any one who suffers for his adhesion to the Government. Mr. Field, the innocent juror, who was so basely assaulted by the Invincibles and who so narrowly escaped with his life, remains broken down in health, and is leaving the country. The couple of thousand pounds he will be able to realize of the levy made by Government on the city for his benefit will be a miserable return for what he has suffered. Sale bills are up on his premises. It is difficult to realize, but impossible to refuse credence to, the evidence in support of the assertions current as to the manner in which he and those in his employment are being insulted and terrorized. The set against them is as senseless as it is wicked, and is a weapon in the hands of those who declare that coercion is the only policy for Ireland. The efforts to raise a fund for him met with but poor support. Some said they were afraid to give, others that he had had enough already out of the pockets of the citizens, and I remarked the name of but one Nationalist among the subscribers.

The plant of the Kerry *Sentinel* was returned, without apology or indemnity of any kind, after some weeks' detention. Since this letter was written, I have seen a copy of the Kerry *Sentinel* for this week. Its language in denunciation of the imprisonment of its proprietor is not more severe than the facts warrant. The following is "displayed" in a prominent position in the paper:

"SACRED TO THE MEMORY OF FREEDOM OF THE PRESS.—Edward Harrington, editor of the Kerry *Sentinel*, imprisoned (July 23, 1883) for six calendar months for a foolish notice printed by two young boys in his office without his knowledge. The Liberal Government of England supplies him in gaol with the criminals' uniform branded, 'County Kerry Gaol,' and the following fare: Breakfast—Five ounces of brown bread and cocoa without milk or sugar. Dinner—Five ounces of brown bread and half a pint of soup. Supper—Five ounces of brown bread, and cocoa without milk or sugar. His bed is a deal plank, with no mattress, and scant covering. Occupation—Oakum picking. No books, no visits, no papers, no writing materials; but when he shall have completed his third month in prison the benign Liberal British Government will allow him to see one friend through the bars, and write one letter."

D. B.

REVOLUTION *VERSUS* REFORM.

LONDON, July 24, 1883.

TIME tries all. The anniversary of the taking of the Bastille comes round yearly as the feast-day of the French Republic, and naturally suggests one inquiry: How have the Revolution and its works stood the test of well-nigh a century? The question is well worth consideration, for it has a close bearing on some of the problems of modern politics.

The answer which would be given by the majority of educated Englishmen, as probably by the majority of educated Americans, is clear and simple. The Revolution, its heroes and their methods of government or of innovation, have been weighed and found wanting. The passionate invective of Burke, it will be admitted, overshot its mark. No one gifted with a tithe of Burke's genius would now write in his tone of the French aristocracy or of the French monarchy. He, assuredly, and the generation of Englishmen who virtually adopted his views, absurdly underrated the evils of the *ancien régime* and the difficulty of their cure. A condition of society which every Frenchman detested was, we may take it, detestable. But most Englishmen hold that if Burke fell into mistakes, his errors were far less fatal than the delusions of his opponents. The Revolutionists one and all, from the Constitutionalists down to the Jacobins, mistook the true path of progress. They one and all believed in revolution and disbelieved in reform; they all were, root and branch, innovators, and, like most theorists who have tried to renovate society from top to bottom, ended by overturning everything and founding nothing. True it is, that universal destruction inevitably destroyed some evils; but this advantage was gained at a portentous and needless price in the way of suffering and of demoralization. That thousands of innocent men should have died on the scaffold is bad enough; but, as far as France was concerned, it was even a worse evil that tens of thousands of Frenchmen should have witnessed with apathy, or have promoted with enthusiasm, deeds of sanguinary and reckless injustice. The cost of the Revolution would have been a terrible price to pay had it been the only price at which the freedom of France could have been secured; but the Reign of Terror destroyed instead of securing liberty. The Terrorists "were damned" and France was not freed.

Moreover, we now know that the advantages which France did gain from the Revolution might far more certainly have been obtained by means of progressive reform. The experiment has been tried. The Republic founded by men of English race and of English political habits has existed for more than a century, and stands as firm as any government in the civilized world. Revolutionary France has never yet succeeded in constructing a constitution which should last for a quarter of a century; and the average time during which any form of polity has stood unchanged on French soil is between six and seven years. Contrast the annals of England with those of her nearest Continental neighbor. Here everything has been changed, nothing has been destroyed. Progress has been slow, but it has been unintermitting. Fifty years of reform have removed every evil which the wildest innovator of (say) 1832 even fancied needed to be removed. Nor is this satisfaction with the pacific course of English progress, and disbelief in the efficacy of revolutionary violence, the mere result of insular prejudice. The best-known writers and thinkers of France have come round to the English way of looking at things. No better representative of sensible Frenchmen could be found than Taine, and Taine's successive volumes are a long and effective indictment against the principles, the practices, and the aims of revolutionary statesmanship, and also, as it seems at least to English readers, an elaborate justification or eulogy of all that is most peculiar in the constitutional habits and constitutional frame of mind which have for centuries marked the statesmanship of England. No wonder that the great body of Englishmen hold that the case of Revolution *v.* Reform, which has now occupied the tribunal of history for ninety-four years, has at last been fairly heard and decided, and that the only verdict which can be entered is a verdict entirely in favor of reform and in absolute condemnation of all revolutionary methods. That Englishmen should come to this conclusion is natural. Within certain limits the conclusion itself is sound; but to an impartial student of history it soon becomes apparent that there are cases—exceptional cases, it may be granted—in which revolution (by which I mean fundamental, rapid, complete change) has advantages over reform.

The policy of bit-by-bit reform has several inherent defects which occasionally make it as dangerous and ineffective a mode of attacking rooted evils as could be the rashest revolution. It is based on the assumption that at any given moment the existing state of society, though it needs amendment, yet in the main conciliates the good-will of the people, whereas this assumption, though often true, has been at some crises of the world's history the very reverse of the truth. In 1789 there was probably not one Frenchman in a hundred who wished the condition of his country to remain unchanged; the wild and unnecessary alteration of names and forms, such as the dissolution of the provinces into departments, which offended the politic sense and disgusted the historic imagination of Burke, were exactly the things which pleased

Frenchmen, who agreed in nothing but a dislike to the existing institutions of France, and which, monstrous as they appeared to Englishmen, have never been felt to be a grievance by even the conservatives or reactionists of France. The policy of gradual reform takes far too little account of time. There are hundreds of measures which can succeed only if they are carried through quickly and at once. Reformers of the English type are apt to be thirty, or it may be fifty, years behind their time. The policy of 1829 fails because it ought to have been the policy of 1800. The custom, further, of never carrying amendment a step beyond the point which is obviously required by the necessities of the time has this grave fault: that it almost invariably fails entirely to remove the grievances which it is meant to redress, and renders each concession to popular demands an incitement to further and often lasting agitation. Indeed, that strange and factitious kind of legalized revolution which is known as agitation, is the direct offspring of gradual reform. It is not without its advantages, but a condition of, so to speak, regulated discontent is not one in itself to be admired, and is certainly tolerable only among a people endowed with great calmness and not tormented by any keen sense of wrong.

Nor, lastly, is the practice, so dear to English statesmanship, of concealing fundamental changes in the substance of important institutions under scrupulous respect for names and forms, without its drawbacks. A device which minimizes the offence given to the sentiment of opponents also lessens the enthusiasm and satisfaction of the very classes whom reform is meant to satisfy, and it is often at least as important to make visible the extent and completeness of a change as to hide the fact that a fundamental change has been made. Yet this is just one of those considerations which are apt to be overlooked by the prudent common sense which is the predominating characteristic of English politics. That these theoretical objections to the unvarying adherence to the policy of gradual, and therefore slow and imperfect, improvement are not mere matters of speculation, is proved by every page of history. The tranquil course of our constitutional development, the singular good fortune which has on the whole attended the English nation, the various circumstances which have tended to assuage the bitterness of popular feeling even at periods of great excitement, have one and all given the policy of reform, as opposed to that of revolution, fairer chances in England than it has had in any other European country. Yet no impartial judge can assert that even in England the weaknesses, such as they are, of that policy have not produced results which are to a certain extent a set-off to its very marked success. Every Englishman has been trained from his youth up to admire the moderation displayed even in our revolutions. We have learned, even in the nursery, that the Revolution of 1689 was glorious because it was the least revolutionary of popular movements. We have perhaps not been quite accustomed enough to reflect on one or two other aspects presented by this triumph of orderly violence. The statesmen of 1689 were able to perform the part of reformers because their predecessors of 1640 had shown the daring of revolutionists. The moderation, moreover, of 1689 did not in reality repair all the ills which resulted from the slowness with which Englishmen allowed themselves to recognize the fact that the times required a fundamental change in the principles of government. The permanent division of the English people into Churchmen and Dissenters, the recognition by the state of the thoroughly base notion that a man's religious belief affects his political and his social status, has, in more respects than one, done an injury which the lapse of years has not really repaired to the moral, the social, and the religious life of the English people.

Nothing, again, is, on the whole, a more striking feat of English statesmanship than the reform of 1832. I have dwelt in your columns more than once on the extraordinary success which has attended this great application of Whig principles; yet even here the absence of what may be termed revolutionary thoroughness has led to some ill consequences. As one looks back on the course of half a century, it is difficult not to regret that Earl Grey and his colleagues did not dare to base the Constitution on some franchise such as household suffrage, which would have precluded, say for a century, all demands for further increase in the number of voters. It is no slight evil to fix the attention of the nation for years upon the advisability of fundamental political changes. It is a very considerable evil to introduce a state of things which encourages or necessitates the development of systematic agitation. There is no doubt much to be said against universal suffrage; but to a philosophic observer the gain of resting the institutions of a country upon a foundation which does not admit of being further enlarged must appear to be often at least equivalent to all that can be justly urged against a political arrangement which in France, in Switzerland, and in the United States puts one part of the political institutions of the country beyond the possibility of change. It must often have struck travellers in America that the citizens of the Union gain more than they themselves are aware of, from the fact that no demagogue can address himself to the hopes of an unenfranchised class. However this may be, it is quite certain that the partial character of English reforms has, even in England, done some evil. It is hardly an exaggeration to assert that in Ireland the persistent application of the policy of gradual change or improvement to a country which has stood, and perhaps still stands, in need of revolution, has been one of the causes of that failure of English statesmanship which is at least as conspicuous as the failure in France of revolutionary remedies. There is no thinker of any school who would not now admit that the most promising attempts to remedy the grievances of Ireland, and thereby terminate the secular misunderstanding between the two islands which make up the United Kingdom, have missed all chance of success by being carried out too late. The policy of Burke was carried into effect more than thirty years after Burke was in his grave, and thirty years after the circumstances had passed away which made it at least probable that the emancipation of the Catholics might turn the Catholics of Ireland into supporters of the connection with England. It needed forty years from the time of Catholic emancipation to bring the Parliament of the United Kingdom round to concessions which, if made at once in 1829, would have allowed O'Connell to be a loyal member of an English Cabinet. There are not wanting observers to assert that the Land Act of 1881 would have satisfied the tenants of Ireland if its provisions had constituted the Land Act of 1870; and there are critics who suggest (whether with truth or not, I am not able to assert) that the shape which the legislation of 1881 has taken has at once irritated the landlords without satisfying the tenants.

One point is certainly clear: the Land Act of 1881 makes a far greater change than was anticipated by its authors. It tends, apparently, to turn the tenants into real owners of the land without giving them the sense of proprietorship, and to leave to the landlords the nominal ownership of estates, of which they become in reality mere incumbrancers. One can easily see that a policy which combines substantial change with nominal conservatism may commend itself to statesmen trained in the habits of English constitutionalism. It is less easy to explain why such a policy should be expected to produce popular satisfaction. If French revolutionary legislation had established a system under which the men who are now the proprietors of the land of France should, while in reality possessing the soil, have continued to be nominally tenants owing rent to the representatives of the *seigneurs* of the *ancien régime*, it is quite possible that the country districts of France might now be inhabited by farmers as prosperous materially as the existing proprietors of small estates; but no one can believe that such farmers would be the most conservative class in the country. They would assuredly, under the influence of the very sentiments which now make the small landowners of France the foes of change, be constantly excited by the desire to get rid of the rent due to landlords who, from their very position, would incur all the odium almost connoted by the term incumbrancer. To have taken away the discontent which, in 1789, tormented the inhabitants of rural France is the one great success of the Revolution. The revolutionary statesmen did their work ill. Many of the evils affecting French society they did not touch. In everything which concerned religious reformation they showed themselves blunderers or impostors. They failed to see, with Mirabeau and Napoleon, that revolution did not necessarily involve anarchy and bloodshed; but the incompetence, the ignorance, or the wickedness of the Revolutionists did not entirely spoil the work of the Revolution. The roots of bitterness which spread hatred and discontent throughout the France of Louis XV. and Louis XVI. were, in the main, inequality of rights and privileges among the different classes of the nation, and the existence of a system of land tenure utterly unsuited to the requiremepts of the time and to the feelings of the people. These roots of bitterness the Revolution destroyed summarily, at once, and for ever. The heroic and dangerous remedies of revolution freed France within a few years from discontents which could hardly have been appeased by a century of slow reforms. The palliatives of bit-by-bit improvement have, in Ireland, kept alive chronic discontent by the constant suppression of impending revolution. These are facts which require to be noticed by any thinker who wishes to pronounce a fair judgment on the case of revolution against reform.

A. V. Dicey.

PRUSSIAN RAILWAY POLICY.

Berlin, July 23.

As in several of my former letters I have kept you posted about the designs and several steps of the Prussian Government in relation to the purchase of the private railways, I deem it my duty to report to you and dilate on the last measure which the Government has taken in this direction.

You will remember that by former purchases the Government had, with the sanction of the Landtag, bought 15,909.25 kilometres, to which must be added 2,236.37 under the Government's control, making in all 18,145.62 kilometres. A few weeks ago, just before the close of the Landtag, the Minister of Public Works sent in a new bill, according to which five very important and one insignificant roads were proposed to be acquired. The most important of these lines are the Berlin-Hamburg, the Altona-Kiel, the Rechte Oderufer (Right Oderbank), and the Oberschlesische (Upper Silesian). The whole length of these roads amounts to about 3,000

kilometres, and their final purchase, which is not in the least doubtful, will complete the present railway system of Prussia. It is an interesting fact, which speaks highly in favor of the moral soundness of Prussian officials, that up to the hour of the signing of the respective bills nothing leaked out of the proposed measures, and thus neither the Stock Exchange nor any speculator elsewhere could use a knowledge of them to advantage.

Since a final result has been reached, it will not be out of place to throw a retrospective glance at the different stages of the transition of railways into the Government's exclusive possession and sole control, the remaining small ones not deserving to be mentioned. Ever since the introduction of railways the idea that the state must occupy a promoting and regulating attitude toward them has been considered necessary in Prussia. The first public sentiment of the Government in relation to railways—viz., the railway law of November 3, 1838—was based on this idea, which was pronounced more distinctly when, after five years, private enterprise proved not to be up to the task of supplying the state with the most necessary railways. Until 1847 the Government, from purely political motives, could do no more than support the building of railways pecuniarily; but after that time, when it was in want of a connection between the centre and the east of the monarchy, it was compelled to build itself. The year 1848 almost brought the purely Governmental system; but the plan of Secretary Hansemann to buy all the then existing railways for the state had only passed through the first stages of development when its originator was compelled to resign his office. Thus, only after the removal of political difficulties, and after the adoption of the Constitution (1850), could the idea of the direct interference of the state with the building of railways assume a distinct shape.

The merit of having taken this step is due to Mr. Von der Heydt. In December, 1848, he became Minister of Commerce, and in September, 1849, he laid before the Second Chamber the draft of a law for the construction of several railways through the state, which was sanctioned by the Legislature. He was the first Prussian Minister who appreciated the real importance of railways, and with firm will worked toward a definite end. Even if he did not expect to gain it himself, it is owing to his activity that a state railway policy has been made possible. The example of Italy and France shows how extremely difficult and almost impossible it is to introduce state management into a country which has heretofore only known private management. Although the above-named countries are both in favor of state management, it is difficult to carry out the system, as even its adherents hesitate to accept superintendence in a country which has no experience at all on this subject. Mr. Von der Heydt smoothed the way for Prussia and removed many obstacles, by introducing state management in small districts at a period of comparatively small development of the network of railways, thereby in time educating skilled administrative officials.

In the following years, the necessity of extending this network as quickly as possible was felt to such a degree that the Minister of Commerce cared less who should build the railways than that they should be built somehow. The position of the Government toward the railways was greatly strengthened by the fact that, by the acquisition of the new provinces (Hanover, Hesse, and Nassau), extensive well-conducted and developed railways came into its possession. In the years of conflict, more extensive enterprise in the building of railways had been impossible; and between the two wars from 1866 to 1870 the pursuit of a definite railway policy in Prussia alone was greatly hindered by the amalgamation of the North German with the Prussian railway relations. Besides, the nation was occupied with more important subjects than railway questions, and an inducement to interfere with their development only came with the Franco-German war, which originated not only the suddenly appearing difficulties of transportation, but also the feverish speculation which immediately after the war manifested itself in railway building and stock gambling.

The unexpected growth of trade and commerce coincided with the total exhaustion of the railways. Their material had been worn out by the war, their officials had become inefficient, notwithstanding that they were required to manage an intercourse larger than ever before. That they were not up to the task will easily be understood, and the opinion more and more gained ground that the whole organization of the railways was at fault, and that it must be radically changed. The authority which should undertake the constitutional superintendence of the railways in the interest of the national defence was the Empire. The great progress in intercourse was followed by a corresponding increase of income. The dividends of private railways rose, and nothing was more natural than that the building of railways should be regarded as a particularly good investment, and the Government be stormed with petitions for the concession of new roads. It was then that Prussia resolved to build a new line for the direct connection of Berlin with the west of the monarchy (Berlin-Wetzlar-Metz), at her own cost, instead of leaving it to private capital. Deputy Lasker availed himself of the occasion when this plan was introduced to reveal how the railway concessions had several times been misused, and caused the appointment of a Parliamentary committee, which was charged to investigate (*a*) whether and how far the respective laws and administrative rules were qualified to insure the fulfilment of the ends aimed at, and whether they protected the public from deceptions and impositions; (*b*) what changes were necessary in legislation and in administrative management to remedy the existing drawbacks and evils This committee came to the conclusion that politico-economical reasons and considerations required the unification of all railways under state control, and further deemed it necessary to charge the Government of the Empire with the management of the railways, to be ruled by its railway laws and controlled by its jurisdiction.

The excitement of public opinion caused the enactment of the law of 1873, which ordered the institution of an imperial authority for the supervision of all German railways—the Imperial Railway Office. The Reichstag had many difficulties to overcome, especially with the governments of the middle States, before this law, which its originators only intended to be temporary, could be carried. The principal duty of the new administration was to make rules for the regulation of all railway business in preparation for an imperial railway law. The new Railway Office made two attempts to solve this task, but both failed after consultation with the representatives of several Federal States had proved that an understanding with and between them was impossible. Prussia, in the meantime, had returned to a definite state railway policy. On occasion of the second conference the Minister of Commerce, Dr. Achenbach, on May 13, 1873, submitted his programme. While acknowledging the merit of the private railways in developing the network of railways, he nevertheless regretted that Prussia had not followed Mr. Von der Heydt's railway policy. He declared it indispensably necessary that the Government should be in a position to compete with the private railways. By granting the necessary funds the Landtag enabled the Minister to realize his plans. In the years 1873 to 1875 endeavors were made to find and introduce a uniform and legal tariff for all German railways. At the same time the tariff for goods was raised 20 per cent.—a measure now generally admitted to have been wrong; but a rivalry between the Imperial administration and that of the larger single States could not then be avoided. The Imperial controlling administration, however, did not win sympathy by sanctioning the measure.

The result was that at the end of 1875 the condition of German railways was far from being gratifying. It was then that the idea was conceived of bringing all the chief railways into the possession of the Empire, of extending its railway policy to the single States, and of organizing a uniform railway system. Those who aspired to national unity saw a powerful promotion of their aims in this measure, and on that account put aside their scruples as far as politico-economical considerations were concerned. The plan found its chief opposition in the governments as well as in the population of the middle States. The princes, having had to yield the command of their troops to the Emperor—"I must make them civil kings," Bismarck said at the time, which frightened the rulers of the middle States excessively—apprehended that they should lose the essential prerogatives of their position, and were thus in this instance heart and soul with their subjects, who foolishly wished to save what they called their state rights. The railways were for the greater part state railways, and they wanted to keep them for themselves.

Prussia, in order to define her position on the question, submitted a bill to the Landtag in 1876, in which she set forth that the German railways were suffering from the overwhelming development of the private railways and from the false position which the Empire occupied toward them. The chief object must be to give the state more powerful influence over the development of the railways, and that right should belong to the Empire. To guard its rights control does not suffice; it must also own railways. Prussia is willing to help the Empire. She is willing to turn over all her railway possessions to it on condition that by and by it must buy the remaining private railways. If the Empire does not accept Prussia's offer, the latter will be compelled to concentrate all Prussian railways in her own hands. The bill was passed by both houses of the Landtag, and became law on June 4, 1876.

Prussia's attempt by this law to introduce the state railway system, not only for her own provinces but for the whole country, had little success. She declared herself bound to yield to the Empire every possible advantage which it could derive from the above-named system, but the other Federal States were of a different opinion, and lent no help at all, so that Prussia finally saw herself obliged to solve the task herself, and to regard the extension and consolidation of her railway possessions as the first step in the proper direction. The history of the last six years shows the execution of this programme. Three years were preparatory, and during the next three the greater part of the existing private railways came under state ownership. To detail the negotiations would lead too far: it will suffice to give a table of the private and state railways, and of those controlled by the Government, for the last three years:

	State Railways.	Private Railways Controlled by the State.	Private Railways.
1879–80.....	km. 6,198	km. 3,525	km. 10,033
1880–81.....	" 11,392	" 3,526	" 5,032
1882.....	" 15,505	" 2,142	" 3,850

The total will still be increased, by the above-named six private railways, by about 3,000 kilometres.

In conclusion, allow me to point out one drawback, which I have already mentioned in one of my former letters, and which has already proved more injurious than was at first anticipated. With the purchase of the last six lines the Government will have invested a capital of 1,327,983,000 marks (about $330,000,000), which it paid in consols with 1,867,339,885 marks, (about $460,000,000). The holders of these securities kept only a small part of them, and in their stead bought foreign or other shares and bonds which pay higher interest and offer a better chance at the exchange than a Government bond. You must, further, take into consideration that while the private roads had their financial business done by the private banks, the Prussian Government avails itself of the services of the Imperial Bank and the Seehandlung (a royal financial institution), and thus deprives the banks of a large and lucrative business. The same policy exerts an influence also on the exchange, the effects of which have not yet been fully developed. † † †

Correspondence.

MR. JARVES AND MR. STILLMAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of July 12 I find a letter from W. J. Stillman, Florence, June 20, which calls for notice. Most emphatically I disclaim the language he puts into my mouth regarding the electrotype bust of Michel Angelo, "without doubt contemporary and hitherto unknown," and that I regarded it "as a most important discovery," etc. In this case Mr. Stillman's "imagination is far greater than his" regard for fact. I did purchase for a few francs a bust of Michel Angelo, and was curious to know from what it was taken. At the request of Mr. Stillman, I lent it to him to put into the background of a picture he was then painting. When it was returned, I gave it away as an object of no importance to me. So much for the bust and his use of it to disparage my reputation in the same field which he tries to occupy himself.

He further says: "His two busts of terracotta are not supposed by any authority in Florence to be what Mr. Jarves believes them to be," without stating what my belief is. Any one caring to know what this is has only to refer to page 319, 'Italian Rambles,' and see for himself that, after describing them, I simply concluded that, "if not executed by Michel Angelo, they must have been done by some hand that knew him well," an opinion which is shared by authorities both in Florence and elsewhere. Some have printed their opinions to the effect that either they are by Buonarotti himself or "sono degni di Michelangelo" (see pamphlet 'Sulla Scoperta di due Busti in Terra-cotta rappresentanti Michelangelo e Vittoria Colonna.' Domenico Rembadi, Firenze, 1874). These busts will be shown at the Boston Exhibition of Foreign Art to open Sept. 3, and those interested can there judge for themselves how far Mr. Stillman is justified by anything I have written of them in his assertions regarding them and me.

He is generous enough to say that my writings have done "not much harm, but certainly no good." I think we had both better let the public decide for itself as to their "harm" or the reverse, certain that it is seldom long misled or deceived in its judgments. Personally I have no reason to complain in regard to critics and the public. Any deficiency of severity in their opinions is certainly counterbalanced by the protest of Mr. S. against my being considered an authority in art matters. But Mr. S. is always severe on those who succeed where he fails. As excavators and archæologists, Doctor Schliemann and General di Cesnola have been eminently successful; but Mr. S. tells the world they are egregious "charlatans," etc. I am quite content to be abused in their company, whatever may be the value of my own more humble work. We cannot all be as profoundly wise and erudite as Mr. S., but we can be just to others and without envy and guile. I am always ready to correct my judgments by the superior light of others, but it must shine in more convincing form than personal abuse and unsustained assertions.

James Jackson Jarves.

Hotel Vendome, Boston, August 10, 1883.

MR. McMASTER AND HIS CRITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The chorus of praise which greeted McMaster's 'History of the People of the United States' on its appearance last March was altogether too concurrent to continue so. It was inevitable that the pendulum should have its backward swing before it found a point of rest. There may be, however, some of your readers who will mistake some of the criticisms upon the book for evidence that the book itself is fatally at fault, and I feel impelled to call their attention to the fact that the criticisms are not levelled at essentials. I do not know the author or his feelings in the matter; but I am sufficiently indebted to his work to feel bound to honor such a draft upon my time.

I have seen no criticisms on the book further than allegations that its author has falsified the history of Rhode Island; that he has copied Macaulay's style; that he has stolen from Macaulay and Rives; and that he has been guilty of offences against English grammar. The first is a special case. Rhode Island is certainly a State to be held in honor. It has not been allured by the smallness of its territory and population into any copying of its neighbors, but lives a life—a most honorable and useful life—of its own. In the many-sided development of American State life, its place is as high as that of its largest associate. But no student of American history can be ignorant that this very indifference to the opinions of others, which makes Rhode Island of the greatest use now, made it a positive source of danger during the period covered by McMaster's first volume. Washington's opinion (in his 'Writings,' x. 39) is so harsh that I do not care to cite it here; but all contemporary correspondence echoes it. McMaster's effort seems to be to bring out plainly the contemporary feeling, and the result is naturally more unpleasant to a Rhode Islander than we, who are on the outside, can properly appreciate. One good Rhode Island authority goes so far as to say that, "so far as this State is concerned, this 'History' is indeed valueless, for only an expert would be able to detect the false from the true."

So serious a criticism seems to be in need of specifications, and of these there are two: that McMaster mentions the proposed forcing act of 1786 as if it had been a finality; and that he turns a proposed disfranchisement of the Cincinnati into a positive enactment. I cannot see how the first charge can stand. He who consults the page of McMaster (p. 340) in question will find the fact that it was only a *proposed* law referred to directly and indirectly; its overwhelming defeat by the town meetings is ascribed to the "honest and fair-minded men" of the State; and I fail to see how any reader can be in doubt. As to the second specification, it is enough to say that while McMaster gives in the text his own opinion that the Cincinnati were disfranchised, he gives in the note his authority in full, from which any reader may see that the disfranchisement was only proposed when the writing took place. Here, also, there is no danger of any mistake on the reader's part, and that is the essential point.

That McMaster has, in the opening of his first volume, and in the arrangement of parts of it, followed Macaulay's style, and occasionally, consciously or unconsciously, followed some of his methods of securing the reader's attention, is evident. It is doubtful whether any competent critic or reader failed to notice it, or to ascribe it to its true reason, the desire of a new writer to publish as plainly as possible, without direct statement, his intention to follow Macaulay's method. If McMaster had ever written a book before; if he had got his sea-legs on, so to speak, he would have known that he was abundantly able to rely absolutely on himself. His work, a wonderful success for a first book, must nevertheless show something of the hesitancy with which a new writer tries his wings; and we can only be thankful that the hesitancy in this case took so grateful a form. At any rate, no reader can complain that his publishing of his adherence to Macaulay's method is obscure. I do not think, from his first volume, that McMaster was fool enough to suppose that his imitation of Macaulay's opening was likely to escape notice. I give it rather the obvious interpretation above stated.

It has seemed to me all along that the contest as to the Macaulay-McMaster style was unworthy. So far from the similarity being unnoticed, it was noticed from the beginning. The first three readers whom I met spoke of it; almost every review in the critical journals referred to it. Some, as your own, contented themselves with drawing a parallel between Macaulay and McMaster; others, as Mr. C. D. Warner, made the comparison "in a spirit of national pride that a writer has arisen capable of weaving our common life into as brilliant and vivacious a narrative as that which entranced the world when Macaulay took up his pen." Others, as Mr. W. F. Poole, directed special attention to the exact verbal similarities. But all the critics seem to have felt that, since there must be some fault in a first book, it was matter for thankfulness that the point of criticism was so minute.

Then the matter passed out of the hands of the critics into the hands of those who took a more strictly business view of it. Many of them were equally delighted and surprised at the discovery that there was an historian named Macaulay, and that McMaster had imitated his methods and, to some extent, his style; and each hastened to put in his journal's *caveat* for so remarkable an instance of acumen. For a time the contest raged with all the characteristic sound and fury of the proverbial tempest in a teapot. There were claims and counter-claims, and each "pointed with pride" to his own journal's record, and expected a large increase of subscriptions thereby. Before the battle died away, an attack upon the book appeared in the New York *Tribune*.

I do not propose to refute that attack in particulars. Its tone and temper are enough, to the literary men among its readers, to stamp it as a worthless criticism, and there is already a feeling of keen regret among the readers of the newspaper that it ever was inserted. I desire only to call attention to the fact that the transfer by McMaster of two sentences in Macaulay and one extract from Rives is the only basis of the attack; and that the alleged offences against English grammar, so far as they are not the slips of the printer, exist only in the reviewer's imagination.

So far as the three "appropriations" are concerned, any one familiar with the common difficulties of authorship will dismiss them as petty and vexatious specifications. In so vast a body of notes as is needed for a work of this extent, it is a sheer impossibility to guard against an occasional mistake of an extract for one's own note. Twenty instances would be evidence of an author's dishonesty; three are only evidence of a reviewer's malice.

I write to you mainly for the purpose of endeavoring to recall criticism to its proper field. It seems to me that McMaster's first volume is, for the period that it covers, by long odds the best history in existence; that it transfers the reader directly into the scenes which it is describing, and gives him as good an idea of them as he could have obtained by living among them; and that it is, in the best sense of the phrase, a complete success. If this is correct—and I have seen no evidence whatever arrayed to dispute it—I for one would not choose for myself the ungracious task of searching with eagerness for microscopic defects, or the petty triumph of showing that the statue is a line too long here or a thought too broad there. If any man would choose such a field of exertion, let him at least confine himself to it. Let him not assume his researches as a standpoint from which to pronounce upon the general merits of the work: *ne sutor ultra crepidam.* J.

NORWALK, CONN., August 13, 1883.

GENERAL CROOK AND THE APACHES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The value of General Crook's campaign among the Apaches in Mexico seems to me to have been overestimated. A great personal triumph over natural obstacles has been so exaggerated in importance that it appears as a public benefit. Why the capture of the Apaches General Crook brought in was not of the value which has been given it, may be shown briefly.

In the first place, according to General Crook's statement, the Apaches, when he came up with them, were anxious to be on the San Carlos reservation—of course without loss or discomfort to themselves, if possible. The reason why they were anxious to come in, General Crook thinks (if he has been correctly reported), was because they realized that they were no longer able to make a successful stand against the whites. How the Indians arrived at this conclusion, or what past experience they had had on which to base it, we are not told. It is the fact that for several years past the Apaches on our southwestern border have received no punishment from United States soldiers that would deter them from crime or lead them to ask for peace. Whence, then, came the anxiety to be on the reservation? It may be accounted for by remembering that during the months of April, May, and June Southern Arizona and New Mexico and Northern Mexico are in a condition least favorable of all times during the year to the success of marauding parties. The grass is poor, the streams and springs low or out of sight altogether, and the game not desirable. Naturally the Apaches would at that time prefer reservation life. How to get back there safely after the recent commission of so many crimes, may easily have caused anxiety. Fortunately for them, General Crook stepped in, and the Apaches became "personally conducted." We actually witnessed without protest the transfer of a band of murderers from a place of discomfort and danger to a city of refuge where they are hospitably entertained and fed at the expense—in very small part, it is true—of the friends and relatives of those murdered! And this, too, not only without adequate punishment to the Indians, but with excuses for the lack of it, founded on a policy which will not bear a moment's careful examination. In fact, almost the same arguments advanced by General Crook to justify his course would liberate half the murderers that are sentenced.

The sole promise of good that has so far come out of General Crook's campaign has come in spite of him and because of the firm stand taken by Secretary Teller. I refer to the fact that the military has charge of these "personally-conducted" Apaches. And it is even a question whether that will be of benefit. If the military in charge shows a spirit the opposite of that which has controlled its movements on the frontier for the past three years, the Apaches conducted by General Crook to San Carlos may be kept from war; otherwise not.

I may be alone in this, but I confess to a feeling of shame for our frontier soldiers that when the Apaches broke out last March, killing men and women who had the right to believe they were in a peaceful country, General Crook was not able to strike the quick, hard blows these Indians deserved, and still deserve.—Respectfully,

F. E. R.

INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL TYPES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just been showing your highly instructive article on the two new social types, the Bouncer and the Whooper-Up, to an English literary friend who takes great interest in the development of society; and he assures me that the Bouncer is not altogether a novelty hitherto unknown to science, but at best only a variant of a type recognized in Great Britain and her colonial dependencies as the Chucker-Out.

In the course of our conversation, it was also suggested that the Whooper-Up is perhaps only a coarse and vulgar variation of the familiar Professional Diner-Out, whose habits have been investigated and described by Mr. Thackeray and other scientific observers of social development. Should this prove to be the case, my English friend sees in the evolution of the American female Whooper-Up from the British male Diner-Out additional evidence of the higher civilization of the United States. J. B. M.

ATHENÆUM CLUB, LONDON, July 25, 1883.

Notes.

AFTER October 1 the price of the 'American Catalogue,' of which but seventy-eight complete sets remain on hand, will be raised to $40 by the publishers, A. C. Armstrong & Son. The value of this work will not diminish with time. Mr. F. Leypoldt now intends to supplement it with a single volume, bringing the list down to 1883 (the 'American catalogue' stops with July 1, 1876), and asks that subscriptions may be speedily sent him at 31 Park Row, the cost of the new volume depending upon the prospect of support thus afforded. It is to be hoped that the responses will be numerous as well as prompt, and that the editor's losses on the original publication will be made good by the new, and by the placing of the unsold remainder above mentioned.

Mr. Edward H. Stiles, Ottumwa, Iowa, purposes writing a brief history of the bench and bar of Iowa, and desires assistance in collecting materials for it.

'English Cathedrals: their Architecture, Symbolism, and History,' is the title of a compilation by Miss E. W. Boyd, of Albany, to be published, with illustrations, by Thomas Whittaker.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' "early autumn" list of announcements embraces the long-expected 'Woman Question in Europe,' a series of essays by representative European women; 'Work for Women,' practical hints by George J. Manson; 'The American Girl's Home Book of Work and Play,' by Helen Campbell; 'Plutarch for Boys and Girls,' selected and edited by Prof. John S. White; the 'Essays of Elia,' printed from wholly new plates and illustrated with etchings by American artists; a 'History of the Northern Pacific Railway,' by E. V. Smalley; an important 'History of the Discovery of America to the Year 1525,' by Arthur James Weise, who has given eight years to his researches; 'The Hand-book Dictionary,' English, French, and German, in parallel columns, by George F. Chambers; 'Lectures on Painting,' by Edward Armitage; and 'The Wonders of Plant Life,' by Mrs. S. B. Herrick. The same firm (who, by the way, have become the regular publishers of the *Journal of the Military Service Institute of the United States*), will bring out new and enlarged editions of Roosevelt's 'History of the Naval War of 1812'; the late Dr. Chadbourne's 'Instinct in Animals and Men'; Thwing's 'American Colleges'; and Shepard's 'Pen Pictures of Modern Authors.'

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish early in September a new volume by the Rev. Phillips Brooks, with the title, 'Sermons Preached in English Churches.'

Roberts Brothers, Boston, announce the following works: 'The Expansion of England,' by Prof. J. R. Seeley; 'Autobiography and Letters of Orville Dewey, D.D.,' edited by his daughter; and 'S'wanee River Stories,' by the late Sherwood Bonner, illustrated by Frank T. Merrill.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, will publish 'Twelve Months in an English Prison,' by Mrs. Susie Fletcher, a spiritualist medium, who writes from experience.

According to the *Academy*, the Clarendon Press has already in type more pages of the Philological Society's English Dictionary than are required for Part 1, which will be published next month. It appears that the enterprise still needs all the pecuniary support which private liberality can bestow upon it. Any millionaire seeking a novel form of public beneficence should have his attention directed this way.

Scott's 'Lady of the Lake,' edited by W. J. Rolfe, has just been published by J. R. Osgood & Co., in a style uniform with the "English Classics" and the Harpers' Shakspere which Mr. Rolfe has likewise edited. Typographically, it is a very pretty volume, and Mr. Rolfe gives ample proof of the superiority of his text to the more or less corrupted ones which are reproduced without critical scrutiny. In this part of his task, he says, he encountered unexpected difficulties. His notes, in which the various readings are preserved, have been prepared with excellent judgment to meet the requirements of students and teachers, and are placed together at the end of the book. For pictorial illustrations there was at hand the series made for the publisher's luxurious holiday edition last year, and of these Mr. Rolfe has wisely rejected nearly all the figure pieces, preferring the scenic. Thanks to all this painstaking, the present edition merits a wide popularity.

Ginn, Heath & Co. begin a series of "Classics for Children" with 'Robinson Crusoe' (the first part), condensed by W. H. Lambert, Superintendent of Schools in Malden, Mass. We do not quite understand the editor when he says that "the long and involved sentences which characterize the writers of the age of Defoe have been cast into a simpler form, while the diction of the author has been carefully preserved." One would have thought these characteristic in-

volved sentences inseparable from the diction. But Mr. Lambert has gone further, and changed such marks of the period and the style as the following phrases exhibit: "As far as house edution and a country free-school generally *goes*"; "*being going* by sea to London"; "no sooner . . . *but*"; "most *inexpressible* sick," etc. He does worse in making Defoe an authority for such a usage as "to seriously reflect," when the original reads, "seriously to reflect." He began, too, by simplifying the style, substituting "hurry" for "precipitate," etc.; but, as he went on, more wisely left the hard or obsolete word, and explained it in a footnote. On p. 35 the young reader is advised to follow on the map the ship's course before the shipwreck; but, curiously, no allusion is made to the common identification in children's minds of Juan Fernandez with the island opposite the mouth of the Orinoco. Except, however, for an occasional unnecessary loss of coloring, Mr. Lambert's task has, on the whole, been well done, and the little book is very attractively printed.

The same publishers have brought out a second edition of Dr. Dippold's faithful and otherwise meritorious translation of Emanuel Geibel's 'Tragedy of Brunhild,' first issued four years ago.

Three editions of a work so orderly and scientific as Dr. George E. Walton's 'Mineral Springs of the United States and Canada, with analyses and notes on the prominent spas of Europe, and a list of seaside resorts' (D. Appleton & Co.) establish its standard qualities. It is ten years since the first edition appeared, and the appendix describing new springs now enlarges the work by one-third. The chapter on sea-side resorts, however, so far as it is a directory, is decidedly out of date, and calls for a fresh tour of inspection on the part of the author, whose home is in Cincinnati.

With the fourteenth *livraison* of Racinet's 'Costume Historique' (New York: J. W. Bouton) is given the text belonging to the thirteenth, and this disjointed arrangement will be maintained in the case of the next instalment of plates and letter-press. The present series ranges from Egypt through India to the land of the Eskimo, and through the divers countries of Europe and tribes of Africa. Furniture, jewelry, and domestic interiors receive the usual attention. Hogarth is among the sources laid under contribution for English costumes and family morals. Unavoidably, it would seem, in this work national and racial characteristics are preserved chiefly in the dress and accessories; seldom in the features of the men and women delineated.

With the marine mammals is concluded, in Parts 85–89, the third volume of the new edition of 'Brehm's Thierleben' (Leipzig: Bibliographischer Institut; New York: Westermann & Co.). The colored plates, on the other hand, while showing the whale and dogfish, happen to be occupied chiefly with the more familiar animals of the menagerie—the camel, deer, elephant, yak, etc., capitally delineated in their natural surroundings. The woodcuts are, as usual, numerous and of good quality.

Recent issues of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* (Paris: E. Thorin) have shown in heliogravure the remarkable terracotta figurines of Myrina. The July number pictures some interesting examples of bronze mortuary vase handles from the same source, which are artistically novel and pleasing. An even greater interest attaches to an Attic bas-relief, representing an *apobates* remounting his chariot while in motion, of which the original is very probably to be sought in a fragment of the Parthenon frieze, closely resembling it in treatment.

Some "References for the History of the Settlement of Western New York," as complicated by the claims of Massachusetts upon that territory, are given in the July number of the *Library* of Cornell University.

The programme of "Old South Lectures for Young People," begun last week in Boston, is before us. The course consists of eight, by numerous well-known scholars and writers, some of whom, like Messrs. E. E. Hale and G. M. Towle, and Mrs. A. M. Diaz, have already learned how to approach the youthful mind, and others, like Messrs. John Fiske, G. Stanley Hall, and J. K. Hosmer, will have no difficulty in adapting themselves to it. Mr. Edwin D. Mead began with "Governor Bradford and Governor Winthrop," and other topics will be "Plymouth," "Concord," "The Town Meeting," "Franklin," "How to Study American History," "The Year 1777," and "History in the Boston Streets." Connected with this scheme is the printing of "Old South Leaflets," as, with reference to the opening lecture, Cotton Mather's Life of Bradford, from the 'Magnalia.'

We spoke lately of Prof. G. F. Wright's determination of the southern limits of the northern ice-sheet in Ohio. This line has been connected with that long since traced in New Jersey by similar exploration in Pennsylvania, executed by Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, partly with the assistance of Professor Wright. The result was made public at Montreal a year ago, and is now accessible in the Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, as well as in the current issue of *Science*. As shown on the accompanying map, the course of this terminal moraine from a point on the Delaware a few miles north of Easton is almost directly northwest till the New York border is reached and passed, shortly after which it reënters Pennsylvania with a southwesterly trend, and leaves the State to enter Ohio at the same latitude at which it entered from New Jersey. The resultant figure is a great right-angle. In Potter County, the divide for the Atlantic, the Gulf, and the Laurentian Basin, the moraine reaches its greatest height in this country, or 2,580 feet.

On September 26 will be held in this city a convention of American ornithologists, for the purpose of founding an American Ornithologists' Union upon a basis similar to that of the British Ornithologists' Union. Its objects are social and scientific intercourse among its members and the promotion of their favorite study, but also especially and immediately the revision of the current lists of North American birds, in order to secure a uniform classification and nomenclature which shall have the authority of the Union. Its meetings will be yearly at least. Those who attend the first one will be *ipso facto* Founders. The call is signed by Messrs. J. A. Allen, Elliott Coues, and William Brewster.

—"R. H. D." writes us from Munich:

"In the *Nation* of July 12 the reviewer of Mr. Henry Ruggles's 'Germany Seen Without Spectacles' says that Mr. Ruggles's statement that in Germany 'beer takes the place of coffee in the morning' is untrue. Speaking generally, the reviewer is right; but in boldly asserting that 'no German ever misses his morning cup of coffee' he is much mistaken. With regard to other cities I am unable to speak with certainty, but in Munich numbers of people drink beer in the morning, and not coffee. The German in whose family I live did so formerly himself. The habit is mostly confined to the poorer classes, such as carpenters, masons, etc., but I know of one family of considerable means who never drink coffee: males and females drink only beer in the morning."

—All Americans who have visited Greece—and the number is becoming a large one—regard with interest every faithful description of the life of the modern Greek people. No extended attempt at such description has been made, so far as we remember, since Felton's 'Ancient and Modern Greece,' now a quarter of a century old, and there is undoubtedly room for a new venture in this field. Mr. Denton J. Snider, the author of 'A Walk in Hellas' (Boston: Osgood), is a teacher, we believe, of literature and history in the St. Louis High School. After acquiring the modern Greek language, he set out, in the winter of 1879, for a tour of several months in the more interesting parts of Greece, especially Attica, Bœotia, and Phocis. Unlike most travellers, he accomplished this tour, from beginning to end, alone and on foot. Thus he was brought into very close contact with the Greek people, to whose best traits—their hospitality and responsiveness—he does full justice and no more than justice. Mr. Snider is familiar with Greek literature and history, and has a genuine enthusiasm for everything Hellenic. He is also an excellent observer, has an eye for what will make a good picture, and must have been most conscientious in the use of his note-book. In consequence there are descriptions of persons and scenes which are almost photographic, and better than anything else of the kind that we remember reading. We wish that our space permitted us to quote in confirmation of this statement. The book, a bulky volume of 675 pages, is divided into twenty-four chapters called "Talks," prepared, we imagine, for the author's pupils, who must have heard them with interest and profit. The numerous digressions, in the form of philosophical monologues, are far more appropriate to a "Talk" or "Conversation" than they are to the book with its present title. Though usually interesting in themselves, original, and even poetic, they are swollen to disproportionate length, and bury out of sight many charming bits of description which one would gladly turn to at once. The value of the book would have been doubled had it been cut down to half the present size, and had it been furnished with an index and a map. We regret the more that this has not been done and that the proof-reading has not been more careful, because this would have entitled it to a place in every school library, and would have insured it the attention which the author's ability, originality, and enthusiasm might justly claim.

—A posthumous benefactor of the University of Pennsylvania accompanied his endowment with the condition that the phenomena of spiritualism should be investigated scientifically, and a few weeks since the composition of the committee was announced, together with its programme—how this member expected to show up the humbug on this side, and that member on the other. One can imagine the testator grieving in spirit, and wishing he had left his money to the Society for Psychical Research. This significant association, at the head of which stands Prof. Henry Sidgwick, author of the 'Methods of Ethics,' is but a year and a half old, but at the close of last year it had attained a membership of 150, and, as its aims and proceedings become known, will doubtless find a very much larger support through associate members wherever the English language is spoken. Among its officers are Prof. W. F. Barrett, of the Royal College of Science, Dublin; Prof. Balfour Stewart, Owen's College, Manchester; John R. Hollond, M.P., and Messrs. Roden Noel, Hensleigh Wedgwood, Edmund Gurney, Frederic W. H. Myers, etc.; while in the list of members are found the names of Oscar Browning, Wm. Crookes, Titus Salt, Rev. F. Chenevix Trench, Percy Wyndham, Rev. H. R. Haweis, Stanley Lane-Poole, G. J. Romanes, Alfred R. Wallace, and many other notabilities of all professions, together with a goodly number of ladies, including Miss Rhoda Broughton. The

Society's committees indicate by their very titles the work it is engaged in. They are six in number, of which four are as follows: on Thought-transference; on Mesmerism; on Physical Phenomena; on Haunted Houses. Another is on certain alleged magnetic properties and luminous appearances of special organizations, and is called the Reichenbach Committee. The Literary Committee, finally, deals with dreams, premonition, second-sight, apparitions, etc., etc.

—It is this last committee's report (the work of Messrs. Gurney and Myers) which fills the greatest space in Part 2 of the Society's Proceedings (Trübner & Co.), and possesses most interest. There is no circle, however cultivated or free from vulgar superstition, that could not add some experience of a kindred nature to the thirty-four tales here given with circumstance, and generally with the names of the relators. They are such as the late Robert Dale Owen massed together in his 'Footfalls on the Boundary of Another World,' and are, in a majority of cases, connected with the lives of our contemporaries, many being very recent. There is no endeavor to refer them to spiritualism, and they are treated throughout as if ordinary operations (however mysterious) of mind upon mind. Quite the most remarkable, though it may be taken as a type, is that of the apprentice of an exacting employer, deceived by the clock into thinking he had overstayed his lunch hour, and being so shocked by the discovery that (if we may credit the narrative) his employers saw his image return and bang up its hat, and then cover itself again and leave the store while the apprentice was all the time sitting at the lunch-table round the corner, and gradually woke to the consciousness that he had misread the time fifteen minutes. The committee have gathered an enormous amount of this material, and purpose bringing out a book. "The point in the evidence," they say, "that impresses us is not its exciting or terrific quality, but its overwhelming quantity—overwhelming, we mean, to any possibility of further doubting the reality of this class of phenomena." And again: "Taking all these people [the several classes of witnesses] into consideration, they often seem to us like a multitude of persons standing side by side in the dark, who would be astonished, if the sun rose, to see their own overwhelming numbers." The discussions in this volume will commend themselves as sane, cautious, and moderate. There are some excellent stories of haunted houses, and some curious experiments in thought reading or clairvoyance.

—The Society for Photographing Relics of Old London has, in its ninth year's issue, once more gone south of the Thames, and gives three views of Lambeth Palace—the Great Gateway (Morton's Tower), the Great Hall (Juxon's Hall, now the Library, freely open to the public), and the Lollards' Tower (more properly, the Water Tower). This fine and imposing example of early Tudor brick building, which another five hundred years may pass over without substantially changing it, furnishes the noblest as well as the least perishable of the antiquities pictured in the present series. Three other views, however, will also gratify an eye which delights in architectural refinements. The old house in Great Ormond Street, already hemmed in and overtopped by public buildings, and since (1882) demolished, is almost an ideal home of solid wealth and respectability, yet a Queen Anne structure which would be unrecognized and unappreciated by the votaries of the so-called style in this time and country. The graceful Corinthian portico was acquired by the South Kensington Museum. Less princely and much inferior in design, but still interesting and effective, is the double house on Queen Square, Bloomsbury, which has been erroneously attributed to Sir Christopher Wren. Here the two doorways, combined in one motive, are the chief feature. Of exceptional beauty on account of its proportions is the doorway adjoining "the oldest shop in London" (1690), on Macclesfield Street, Soho. The shop itself is a projection consisting of graceful Ionic members, skilfully adapted to modern uses. In this, as in the two preceding photographs, one sees in area and stairway railings delicate examples of a species of wrought-iron work which has become a lost art with us. Relics of old inns are shown in views Nos. 76, 77, 78, the last, near Lambeth Palace, having most character. No 80, a modern shop at 37, Cheapside, commemorates the site of the "Nag's Head" tavern, "famous in the controversies on the validity of Anglican orders, as being the supposed scene of the consecration of Archbishop Parker." Another Cheapside building shown in No. 81, "The Old Mansion House," has doubtful authority for being considered the work of Wren (1668–9), and will hardly be claimed for him by his admirers. Very picturesque, finally, and curious, and of a rapidly vanishing class, is "The Golden Axe," St. Mary Axe, a three-story, overhanging, stuccoed, gabled house, on a street corner. The usual sheet of explanatory letter-press accompanies this issue, which fully maintains the interest of its predecessors, while enhancing their value by steady accumulation. The Society accepts subscriptions for single sets of these artistic autotypes. The honorary secretary is Mr. Alfred Marks, Long Ditton, Surrey.

—The best biography of Manzoni which has appeared since his death is undoubtedly the recent work of Cantù, bearing the modest title of 'Reminiscences' (Milan: Fratelli Treves). The long and close intimacy of the writer with the subject of his memoir enables him to give a mass of interesting personal details, which, for the first time, make the readers of the 'Promessi Sposi' feel acquainted with its admired author. Manzoni's family, his education, first visit to Paris, marriage and conversion, literary activity, domestic and social life, and political views are discussed and illustrated with an unexpected wealth of material. Inedited correspondence and, above all, Cantù's personal reminiscences add peculiar value to the book. A few debatable points in Manzoni's history are not cleared up. He never spoke himself of his conversion to Catholicism, and his alleged visit to the church of St.-Roch in Paris is pronounced a legend. The genesis is given of another legend—to wit, that his confessor, Tosi, shut him up in his room until he completed his work, 'La Morale Cattolica.' It seems that Manzoni was overrun with curious visitors, and attributed to this his inability to complete certain work. Tosi told the servants to say that Manzoni was out, or was not receiving company; hence the story of his confinement. Manzoni was of medium height, somewhat stooping in his old age; his head was not large; his forehead retreated; his eyes were small, bright, and sparkling with intelligence; his mouth large, with thin lips. Although he had a slight impediment in his speech, he was a brilliant talker and full of sly humor. His great memory furnished him with many apt quotations, which he sometimes used with comical effect, as when, the argand lamp having gone out, he cited the line from Tasso ('Ger. lib.,' xix. 26):

"Moriva Argante, e tal moria qual visse."

It is known that for a long time Manzoni resisted his friends' entreaties to be painted or photographed. Cantù gives a portrait from an aquarelle of 1829 and from a daguerreotype taken in 1854, and also portraits of his mother and first wife. Among the curious documents printed by Cantù is a denunciation of the 'Promessi Sposi' presented to the Austrian Government. It is well known that some critics, Settembrini at their head, saw in the 'Promessi Sposi' an unpatriotic work, while the author of the denunciation regarded it as dangerous to the existing government.

—The results of the observations of the last two total eclipses of the sun are of high importance in solar physics. Dr. Arthur Schuster has lately reported to the Royal Astronomical Society a detailed account of the observations obtained in Egypt during the eclipse of May 17, 1882. Three photographic instruments were at work during the progress of the eclipse: one took photographs of the corona, a second was a photographic camera with a prism placed in front, and the third was a complete spectroscope. The direct photographs of the corona indicate its variations from eclipse to eclipse; for if the photographs taken during eclipses in the past twenty years be compared with each other, it may be seen that the corona varies in a regular way with the state of the sun's surface, although there are irregular minor changes. At the sun-spot minimum the corona is much more regular than at the maximum. At the minimum there is a large equatorial extension, and about the solar poles a series of curved rays. At the maximum there is practically no regularity at all: the long streamers go outward sometimes in one direction and sometimes in another; and during this eclipse—which was near the sun-spot maximum—there was absolutely no symmetry in the appearance of the corona. The transparency of its streamers is most striking. One streamer can sometimes be traced through another, showing that the matter, whatever it is, must be very thin. The photographs taken with the second instrument show one prominence with a great number of lines in the ultra-violet. The fact was brought out in this eclipse that the brightest lines in the prominences are due, not to hydrogen, but to calcium. In considering the results obtained with the complete spectroscope, it is a striking fact that some of the lines cross the moon's disc, and especially the two calcium lines H and K—thus proving that these lines were so strong in the prominences that the light was scattered in the earth's atmosphere, and reflected right in front of the moon. The coronal photographs bear out the distinction between the inner and the outer corona, the former being much stronger in light. The continuous spectrum of the corona is stronger on the side where the prominences are weaker. No known substances have been traced in the solar corona. The greater number of the prominence-lines in the ultra-violet are also unknown, but they seem to be present in Doctor Huggins's photograph of the spectrum of α Aquilæ.

—These results were all obtained by the English party, no American expedition having been sent out to observe this eclipse. An English and an American party were sent out to observe the total eclipse of May 6, 1883, from the Caroline Islands, in the South Pacific Ocean. They were favored with a clear sky during more than five minutes of the total phase, and met with entire success—observing the solar corona extending over a distance of two diameters from the sun; searching for intra-Mercurial planets, but finding none; obtaining good photographs of the corona and the coronal spectrum, the former probably surpassing in beauty and detail everything which has heretofore been secured; and photographing, for the first time in the history of eclipse-observation, the momentary flash of bright lines seen just before the beginning and

immediately after the end of totality. The English observers find that the lines obtained in the spectrum of the corona by their various methods are chiefly those of hydrogen. The American observers arrived in San Francisco, June 11, on their return journey, and reported the successful execution of their plans in every detail for the observation of the eclipse. Professor Holden swept for intra-Mercurial planets, but discovered none. Spectroscopic observations were made by Dr Hastings, Mr. Rockwell, and Mr. Upton with interesting results. Dr. Hastings had devised a spectroscope by which the spectra of two opposite sides of the sun were brought into juxtaposition, and could be examined simultaneously. He interprets the results secured with this instrument as conclusive proof that the outer corona is mainly due to diffraction. The bright hydrogen and magnesium lines were seen by several observers. The duration of totality was five minutes and twenty-five seconds. The corona was bright, and characterized by five well-defined streamers, careful sketches of which were made by M. Trouvelot and Doctor Dixon. The meteorological observations showed a slight but well-defined rise in barometric pressure, a rise in humidity, and a fall in temperature. The temperature reached the values given at night, while the radiation-thermometers indicated that the receipt of heat by the earth was almost wholly checked. The next total eclipse of the sun occurs on September 8, 1885, and the duration of totality is about a minute and a half, visible only in New Zealand.

THE REAL LORD BYRON.

The Real Lord Byron. New Views of the Poet's Life. By John Cordy Jeaffreson. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1883. Pp. viii.-556.

We have had occasion more than once of late to take note of recent Byronica as evidences of a reviving interest in the study of the poet. Mr. Jeaffreson's book will, we are confident, be welcome to every one who wishes to grapple seriously with one of the most puzzling problems in literary psychology. We all know *who* Byron was; but *what* was he? A monster, or a mere scapegrace, or a scapegoat? Are we to side with Mrs. Stowe, or with Moore, or with Macaulay? The student of our nineteenth-century literature cannot evade the question; it is ubiquitous. Necessarily welcome, therefore, will be any sincere, well-directed effort toward answering it or supplying the materials for an answer. The present work, as its title suggests, is such an effort. It does not profess to be a new biography of the poet, much less a critique of his writings. It is evidently not intended to supersede either Moore or Elze; indeed, it gives scarcely enough of the known and uncontroverted facts of the poet's life for a reader unfamiliar with other works. But what it undertakes it does thoroughly: it reveals to us the man Byron as he has never before been drawn with pen and ink, his character—both in its formation and in its final development—his good qualities, his foibles, and his vices. The portrait is not an agreeable one to contemplate, but that is not the author's fault. He has treated his subject with what seems to us the strictest justice. Avoiding equally the fulsome adulation of Moore, the absurd defamation of Mrs. Stowe, and the almost as absurd declamation of Macaulay, he gives us facts—hard, unpalatable facts—and in general leaves the reader to draw his own conclusions.

Such a work must, of course, be largely negative in its procedure. One cannot get at the facts of a literary controversy without first overturning false views and theories. How false the usual views have been, even on the most ordinary points, may be learned from the following passage in the introductory chapter:

"Who has not been invited to ponder on the habitual melancholy of the man who, in his brighter time, brimmed over with frolic, and even in the sadness of his closing years made the world ring with laughter and delighted in practical jokes? Who has not heard of his gloomy brow, black locks, dark eyes, and club-foot? And yet his face was not more remarkable for the beauty of its features than for the brightness of its smiles: his hair, light chestnut in childhood, never darkened to the deepest brown of auburn; his eyes were gray-blue; and he hadn't a club-foot."

In the limited space at our disposal we can do little more than indicate the most prominent steps in Mr. Jeaffreson's investigation. The first bubble that he pricks is that of the poet's boasted aristocracy. He shows that the Byron family, however promising they may have been in the days of William the Conqueror, speedily degenerated into tiresome mediocrity, and that the peerage title conferred on them in the seventeenth century was a misfortune rather than a gain; not to speak of the bar sinister in the line, which must have been known to the poet. The poet was the only man of genius in the line. Furthermore, the trait of recklessness which was so prominent in the poet, and which earned for his father the sobriquet of "Mad Jack," was really due to the Berkeley blood in their veins, and not to the Byron.

Mr. Jeaffreson decides in favor of London as the poet's birthplace. His lameness was not the result of a club-foot, but of a contraction of the tendo Achilles—at first in the right foot, but subsequently extending to both. The point is not so unimportant as might be supposed. Had the evil been merely a club-foot, the poet, both as boy and man, might have been at least as good a pedestrian as Sir Walter Scott, whose club-foot, we all know, never prevented him from climbing, walking, or other sports of the kind. Byron's lameness was peculiarly unfortunate in depriving him of the only permanently efficacious means of overcoming a tendency to excessive corpulence inherited from his mother. Mr. Jeaffreson's remarks on this subject are the first, to our knowledge, to throw light on one of the most obscure points in Byron's life. Every now and then the reader of Moore stumbles upon some allusion to Byron's fatness, without perceiving what it can mean. The obvious explanation is, that Moore himself, who knew the poet only in his prime, when he had reduced himself by the most merciless diet, was very imperfectly acquainted with this inherited weakness. The reader of Mr. Jeaffreson will now understand fully what a ceaseless struggle Byron waged, what means he used, and how he weakened and finally ruined his constitution, only to succumb to the fever of Missolonghi. Fasting and Epsom salts to reduce fat, tobacco-chewing and laudanum to allay the cravings of hunger, boxing, swimming, and riding—in short, a great deal of what might else appear mere eccentricity in the poet's mode of living, will now appear as so many frantic efforts to overcome a lifelong evil.

Mr. Jeaffreson's remarks upon Byron's sensibility, memory, and imagination, as the impelling forces in his early love affairs, and the verses to which they gave occasion, are among the best passages in the book. They suggest, without expressly reiterating, the old but now half-forgotten caution, not to judge a poet according to the ordinary rules of life—above all, not to take his outpourings too literally. How unintelligible to prosaic mortals is this intense self-abandonment to the latest sorrow or loss, in which occult slumbering remembrances of former griefs only help to make the present flame burn more fiercely! Mr. Jeaffreson finds in Byron's cousin, Margaret Parker, the original of Thyrza, and doubtless he is in the main correct; yet a good deal may be said in favor of other views, into which we cannot enter. At all events, he is cruel enough to demolish "The Dream" as a bit of genuine autobiography. What many readers have suspected, he proves, so far as there can be any proof—namely, that Byron deliberately misrepresented his own feelings. Wishing to insult the wife from whom he had parted in anger, it pleased him to make the world believe that he never loved her, that even on their wedding-day his heart was filled with regret for another. Unfortunately for the poet, the evidences that he did love his wife sincerely during their engagement and for months after marriage, that his heart had lost all its quondam affection for Mary Chaworth, are too numerous and indisputable. But to Mr. Jeaffreson belongs the credit of being the first to sum them up. The same may be said of his analysis of Byron's relations with Miss Milbanke, both before and after marriage. We now perceive why the poet fell in love with her, how strong and genuine his attachment to her was, how the affair was a bit of clever match-making on the part of Lady Melbourne, and how entirely free Byron was from any taint of fortune-hunting. Setting aside this personal liking, we need hesitate no longer to say that the match was in all respects the reverse of brilliant for the poet. It brought upon him grave responsibilities, and gave him little or no pecuniary help to meet them. It was, in truth, a love-match that was doomed to end disastrously.

What Mr. Jeaffreson says about Byron's life at Cambridge is good enough as far as it goes; but it surprises us to see no mention made of Hodgson among Byron's college friends. Can it be that our author is unaware of their great, and on the poet's side most self sacrificing, friendship? The publication of Hodgson's 'Memoirs,' three years ago, brought into new light many good points in the poet's early life, and also gave the *coup de grâce* to the Stowe scandal. On the other hand, the discussion of the influence of the society of Southwell upon the formation of Byron's language and manners is positively refreshing, when contrasted with Moore's snobbishness and Elze's pedantry. It will do us all good, we trust, to learn that the lordly poet by eminence was indebted to refined and disinterested ladies of the middle class for the best part of his breeding and diction. New to us is Mr. Jeaffreson's surmise as to the authorship of the famous *Edinburgh Review* article upon 'Hours of Idleness.' He suspects that it was written by some Cambridge Don in revenge for the satire upon the University in the 'Hours of Idleness.' This is quite plausible, and disposes, of course, of both Jeffrey and Brougham, much to our relief.

Those who wish to revive the now somewhat faded glories of "Childe Harold" and to see the hero of the hour in the first flush of success, will read and reread chapter xii. Here, again, Mr. Jeaffreson exhibits to the full his powers of observation and discrimination. He shows us that the success of "Childe Harold" was not so wholly spontaneous as one is apt to fancy—at least, that it had been prepared in a measure by private circulation of the book (before publication) among friends and well-disposed critics. On the other hand, Byron's undisputed supremacy was really quite short lived. Envy, detraction, religious bigotry were soon at work, undermining the poet's throne long before his separation from his wife. To read Macaulay, one would suppose that the storm which drove Byron from England was a sudden act of moral frenzy on the part of a righteous or self-right-

eous public, whereas Mr. Jeaffreson makes it clear that the storm was long in brewing, that it began in Tory hatred of the poet's liberalism and holy horror of his infidelity. The quarrel between Lord and Lady Byron was little more than a convenient pretext for giving it vent. We cannot attempt to restate our author's strictures upon Lady Caroline Lamb, much less to enter into his explanation of the causes leading to Lady Byron's separation from her husband. With regard to Lady Caroline, Mr. Jeaffreson is unquestionably right; of the two parties, she was the more sinning. As to Lady Byron, we can only say that he has gone over the whole ground carefully and weighed impartially all the *known facts*, possibly excepting the letters and statements in the Hodgson 'Memoirs' already referred to. His judgments are even-handed and his words measured. We shall, perhaps, never know with certainty the real causes that led to the separation; but Mr. Jeaffreson makes it at least highly probable that they were twofold—first, Byron's brutality to his wife during the latter months of her confinement; second, his intrigue with Claire (the mother of Allegra) just before or soon after his wife left him to visit her father, in January. But this intrigue did not come to Lady Byron's knowledge until after she had left him. Her sole ground for leaving him was his brutality. At first she attributed this to incipient insanity; but when satisfied that Byron, however violent, was still sane, she and her father took steps for a separation. It was after these first steps had been taken that fresh information (probably the intrigue above mentioned) came to her ears and made the breach hopeless. Such is the most meagre outline of our author's summing up of a *cause célèbre*. Without fully satisfying the inquisitive mind, it will certainly relieve the heart of an honest reader, and suffer him to restore the poet to the class of ordinary offenders. The charges brought by Mrs. Stowe are so thoroughly disproven that Mr. Jeaffreson does not even mention them except by implication. It only remains to add that Byron's conduct toward his wife during her confinement was the result of many causes—notably the duns of his creditors, an attack of jaundice, and nervous derangement produced by the excessive use of laudanum, tobacco, and alcoholic stimulants.

Mr. Jeaffreson's happy guess that the meeting of Byron, Shelley and his wife, and Claire at Geneva was not an affair of chance, but a preconcerted arrangement, is another one of the novelties of his book, and reveals the utter hollowness of the famous "Fare Thee Well" lines. But Mr. Froude, in the August *Nineteenth Century*, relieves the Shelleys of their apparent complicity. As to the quarrel between Byron and Southey, we may remind Mr. Jeaffreson that the subject was discussed exhaustively, two years ago, in the *Anglia*, and that it is more complicated than he seems to perceive. Byron's orgies at Venice are the darkest chapter in his life; every reader will be glad to pass them over in silence. Mr. Jeaffreson does not add much to what we have already read in Moore, but he supplies the righteous condemnation which Moore was too faint-hearted to speak out. It is now clear to us that these frightful excesses were the remote cause of the poet's death—they sapped his vitality. When afterward he resumed his abstemiousness, in the effort to shake off obesity, his constitution had no longer strength to resist the attacks of fever. One other feature of the change that Byron underwent in Italy has been brought by our author into due prominence. More than once the reader of "Don Juan" is surprised by a note of praise in behalf of avarice as the most satisfying and genteelest of vices. This sounds odd, coming from the author of "Childe Harold," who scorned to receive copy-money, and had an open purse for every borrower, worthy and unworthy. But Mr. Jeaffreson shows us how Byron came step by step to learn the full value of money, to drive a hard bargain with his publisher, scrutinize sharply his weekly bills, swell his income to handsome proportions, insist rigorously upon his full share of his wife's estate (which came to her from Lord Wentworth at the death of her mother), and accumulate a capital of ten thousand pounds. This desire for money was not mere avarice in the poet: money was to be the means of procuring political eminence of some sort. There can be little doubt, after the publication of Trelawny's 'Memoirs' and the investigations of Elze, of Professor Jebb, and Mr. Jeaffreson, that Byron, had he lived, would have placed himself among the leaders of the Greek movement—perhaps have made himself king. To quote Trelawny's words: "Had he lived to reach the Congress of Salona as commissioner of the loan, the dispenser of a million silver crowns would have been offered a golden one." It may be stated, in explanation, that Byron's own princely contributions to the cause qualified him to be commissioner. Some of the details in our author's account of Byron in Greece are new; but in the main his estimate of Byron's political abilities and conduct agrees with Professor Jebb's and that in the English translation of Elze, rather than with Elze. Most Englishmen certainly are now agreed that Byron acted with foresight and energy, and was anything but a political Don Quixote. His failure was due, not to want of capacity, but to a shattered constitution and exposure to malarial fever.

The object of Mr. Jeaffreson's most searching criticism is the Countess Guiccioli. He goes to the opposite extreme from Moore. The latter, wishing to inflict as much annoyance as possible upon Lady Byron, represented the Italian Countess as a model of all that the English Lady should have been but was not: she it was who rescued him from the slums of Venice, interested him in Italian literature and politics, and was to him—in everything but name—a loving and loyal wife; and Byron repaid her with a devotion that ended with his life. What Moore began, the Countess herself completed in her well-known 'Recollections.' Byron was "whitewashed" as thoroughly as he well could be. But Mr. Jeaffreson leaves scarcely a vestige of this whitewash. He makes it clear that Byron's *liaison* with the Guiccioli, although outwardly more decorous, was of the same sensual order with his other *liaisons—e. g.*, with Claire, and Marianna Segati; that he wearied of her, neglected her repeatedly, and practically abandoned her when he embarked for Greece. On the other hand, he argues that the Countess not only acted very foolishly, but even acted against Byron's wishes in bringing about a separation from her husband, and that she was really Byron's evil genius in hindering him from returning to England at a juncture when reconciliation with his wife became once more possible. Our author's facts and arguments are very forcible, and will doubtless carry conviction with them. Yet we cannot refrain from suspecting that they are urged a trifle too zealously. They are not in the sober, judicial tone of the rest of the book, but have a ring of advocacy, as if the author had accepted a retaining fee against the Countess and were bent on earning it. We do not say that Mr. Jeaffreson is wrong; but we cannot help feeling that the Countess was not utterly weak and silly, and that she did the poet at least some good at a time when he most needed it. To do real justice to such a character, the critic should have a lighter touch and more knowledge of Romance temperament than our author seems to possess. We say this without wishing to offend one to whom we are under great obligations. This part of the book should have been written by George Sand.

A good deal of space, more perhaps than was needed, has been devoted to the account of the destruction of the memoirs given by Byron to Moore. It is enough for the reader to know that they were destroyed, although doubtless the Byron family will be gratified by this public declaration that the destruction was the work of Hobhouse and Mrs. Leigh. This, of course, clears Lady Byron from every imputation of cowardice or selfishness. The quarrel between Lady Byron and Mrs. Leigh, which sprang up after the poet's death, has hitherto been a puzzle; our author is the first to make it entirely clear in its origin and bearings. But his explanation of the way in which Lady Byron came to suspect her husband of the terrible crime, the secret of which she revealed to Mrs. Stowe, will not satisfy most readers. We doubt if she evolved the suspicion from her own mind through morbid brooding over works like "Manfred" and "Cain." Was not the charge of incest whispered about during the earlier stages of the anti-Byron crusade, and even darkly hinted at in some of the scurrilous London newspapers? If so, the suspicion, reaching Byron's ear, may have prompted the works, but not vice versa. It was an arrow from without, that lodged itself in Lady Byron's heart after she had been led—by other motives—into her quarrel with Mrs. Leigh. At any rate we are unable to agree with our author when he says: "The word [monomania] in no fair way represents the condition of her mind, which never was mad or unsettled or disordered in such a manner as to justify a writer in rating her with sufferers from insanity." The woman who, after having given the most numerous and wholesale proofs *in writing* of her trust in Mrs. Leigh *after* the separation, could then turn around and accuse her to a quasi-stranger of the most monstrous crime, as the *cause* of the separation, *must* have been a monomaniac. Besides, Mr. Jeaffreson seems to have overlooked the circumstance that Lady Byron's treatment of her sister-in-law is not the only evidence of her disposition to fixed ideas. Elze has cited several others.

One serious fault of our book is the absence of all references to authorities. This is inexcusable in a work which deals with so many points in controversy. In more than one place the author has evidently had access to materials not within reach of the public, but in only one instance, to our recollection, has he indicated the present ownership of a manuscript letter. A full list of books and documents, printed or unprinted, would have doubled the practical usefulness of his work. As to discussing the poet's genius adequately, and in all its relations, Mr. Jeaffreson has wisely refrained from making the attempt. Indeed, we should be at a loss to name a single writer thoroughly qualified. The time has gone by for praising or condemning Byron; the problem is now to understand him, and the first step toward understanding him is to know all the great social and political movements of Europe for twenty years. Which one of us has such knowledge? Certainly not Matthew Arnold, who speaks of Byron as if he were a mere writer of English verse, like Wordsworth, and has yet to learn the patent fact that he was and in a measure still is the mouthpiece of revolutionary Europe. As to Byron's phases of style, the most suggestive opinion is contained in these words, written by Shelley to Gisborne, June 18, 1822: "He touched the chord to which a million hearts responded, and the coarse music which he produced to please them disciplined him to the

perfection which he now approaches." When will our critics learn to see with Shelley's eyes that the later Byron is a vast improvement on the earlier?

ROMANES'S ANIMAL INTELLIGENCE.

Animal Intelligence. By George J. Romanes. D. Appleton & Co. 1883.

THE object of this treatise is "to pass the animal kingdom in review, in order to give a trustworthy account of the grade of psychological development which is presented by each group." To carry out this plan in a satisfactory manner, Doctor Romanes a few years ago issued an invitation to all who possessed trustworthy facts bearing on this topic to correspond with him. The facts thus obtained, supplemented by very extensive reading and personal observation, are embodied in the present work, which is without doubt the most carefully-selected and sifted record of the psychic powers of animals ever issued in the English language. Books of anecdotes relating to animals are as common as books of travel, but the vast majority of them are of no scientific value whatever, on account of the absence of all attempt to verify the stories. Doctor Romanes claims that his facts "are either matters of ordinary observation; or they stand upon the authority of observers well known to me as competent; or they are of a kind which do not admit of malobservation; or, lastly, they are well corroborated by similar accounts received from independent observers." With very few exceptions, these claims are justified by the character of the book, and, if the author has erred at all, it is on the side of excessive caution rather than of credulity. 'Animal Intelligence' does not open any new views of extensive range, like the famous first chapters in Darwin's 'Descent of Man,' but it throws light on many points of minor importance, and in dubious cases the evidence is always weighed with that calm absence of bias which the late Mr. Darwin taught his pupils. To him, indeed, Doctor Romanes is indebted not only for advice and suggestion, but for permission to use his notes and clippings on animal intelligence which he had collected for forty years, and for the original MS. of his chapter on "Instinct," which appeared in the 'Origin of Species' in a very condensed form. Doctor Romanes's original plan was to divide his book into two parts, the first dealing with the facts of comparative psychology, the other with their relation to the theory of descent; but the work expanded under his hands so greatly that he saw himself obliged to make a separate treatise of the second part, which he expects to issue in a year or two, under the title, 'Mental Evolution.'

The greater part of the present work is, therefore, devoted to a careful and interesting account of the habits of animals, intermingled with such a large number of anecdotes that it appeals to a much wider circle of readers than is formed by the students of psychology alone. One of the greatest sources of pleasure in reading a novel is supposed to lie in the opportunity it affords the reader of comparing himself with the characters in it. In the same way, all who have pets of any kind will be pleased to discover a resemblance between them and the remarkable specimens here described, and thus perhaps be induced to make original observations, all of which will be gratefully received by Doctor Romanes, at the address given in the volume. Still another class of readers will be greatly edified—namely, those who abhor the notion of their descent from lower animals, on account of the mediæval idea that these remote progenitors and cousins of ours were and are devoid of mind and "soul." They will find how useless it is to attempt to find an adjective exclusively applicable to man, such as "a reasoning animal," "a tool-making animal," etc.; for animals have all the senses we have—they have memory, imagination, reason, emotions of love, pride, disappointment, anger, jealousy, curiosity, fright, æsthetic emotions, etc.; they form social habits, carry on wars, make slaves, communicate with each other, keep "cows" and pets, yawn, indulge in play and leisure, punish injustice, bury their dead, store up food for a rainy day, organize a division of labor, sleep, wash themselves and each other, discipline their offspring, die of a "broken heart," assist the sick, adopt orphans, etc., etc. Formerly all these and a thousand other habits and powers of animals were by the book-philosophers attributed to a verbal fetish called "instinct"; but it is now clearly established that instinct is simply inherited experience—the experience of the race as distinguished from that of the individual—and that in all those numerous cases where an animal adapts its actions to a new set of circumstances, and is able to profit by individual experience, we are concerned with inference or reason as distinguished from instinct.

The whole problem of "animal intelligence," indeed, hinges on this distinction between instinct and reason, and in the introductory chapter Doctor Romanes has presented the difference in very clear language. To draw an absolute line between reflex action and instinct on the one hand, and instinct and reason on the other, is as impossible as to discover a distinct break between sanity and insanity; but most of the actions of animals can be pretty accurately classified as belonging to the one or the other division. Our author has perhaps erred in devoting too much space to a description of cases of unquestioned instinct. More than a hundred pages, for instance, are given to an analysis of ants; and although Darwin was quite right in observing that "the brain of an ant is one of the most marvellous atoms of matter in the world, perhaps more so than the brain of a man"; and although many of the actions of ants are unquestionably the result of conscious intelligence and deliberate choice, yet the vast majority are of the nature of pure instinct. In several mysterious and complex cases—as in that of the beaver and the migration of birds—Doctor Romanes has deferred discussion to his second volume, in which he purposes to consider the genesis of mind as a whole. For that volume, accordingly, we must wait before finally deciding upon the value of his contributions to the literature of this fascinating subject, which has busied many great minds, and which stimulated Mr. Darwin, among others, to some of the most subtle and profound efforts of his intellect. Meanwhile it is cause for congratulation that psychologists have taken up the study of such questions, instead of trying to find out how many angels could dance on the point of a needle, or to prove that non-existence and existence are identical.

Next to the problem of instinct, no department of comparative psychology is so interesting and important as the study of the senses of the lower animals. On this Doctor Romanes has not bestowed a sufficient amount of attention. In the works of Gegenbauer, Claus, Haeckel, and other comparative anatomists and zoölogists are to be found a host of facts and speculations regarding the senses of the lower animals which are not only very suggestive in themselves, but which have to be constantly borne in mind in attempting to explain the actions of these creatures, because otherwise it may happen (and often does happen) that an animal is credited with some mysterious "instinct" or superior power of reasoning when it has been simply guided by some unheeded sense. Many of the lower animals seem to have special senses peculiar to themselves; and even where this is not the case, we are too prone to imagine that the two highest senses play the same almost exclusive rôle in intellectual matters as with us. An illustration of this remark is to be found on page 43 of the present treatise. A series of careful experiments made by Sir John Lubbock, in reference to the remarkable power displayed by ants of recognizing members of their community, showed that their recognition cannot be due to a personal acquaintance between all the members of a community, nor effected by means of any sign or pass-word. Doctor Romanes, therefore, concludes that the matter is as yet "wholly unintelligible," whereas a very simple explanation can be suggested. Ants are known to have an acute sense of smell, and Professor Jäger, of Stuttgart, has shown in a pretty conclusive manner that every class and sub-class of animals has its own specific odor. This makes it easy for ants to recognize their fellows, or, as in the case of Amazon ants, their slaves; and our explanation is corroborated by the fact that an ant deprived of its antennæ can no longer distinguish its friends from its foes, as well as by an account, published in *Nature* some five or six years ago, of a combat between two hostile communities of ants which lasted several weeks, but could be interrupted at any time by impregnating the surrounding air with eau de cologne—a proceeding which did not otherwise interfere with their activity.

The emotional life of animals is almost as varied as the intellectual; and although not so fully treated by Doctor Romanes, is well attended to under special headings. Beginning in the simplest form of attraction and aversion very low in the scale of life, it becomes of interest in the case of ants, which already display traces of tender emotions, although hatred and pugnacity appear to be much stronger. Sympathy is shown by bees and ants rather for the injured than for the healthy and those in distress. In sympathy, affection, devotion, elephants, monkeys, and especially dogs, are hardly inferior to man. In maternal self-sacrifice many animals equal woman. If we can infer from the outward expression of emotion to its subjective existence, then dogs and horses are capable of feelings of pride, and dogs also of shame. The order rodentia offers a curious contrast in two of its representatives—the hare, most timid of animals, and the harvester-rat, which spends most of its time in fighting all the animals that come in its way, no matter what their size. The proverbial courage of the lion has been shown to consist, as a rule, in "the better part of valor." Very curious is the entire emotional change which occurs in the "rogues," or those elephants which have become separated from their own herd, and are not allowed to associate with any other herds. "From being a peaceful, sympathetic, and magnanimous animal, the elephant, when excluded from the society of its kind, becomes savage, cruel, and morose to a degree unequalled in any other animal." In the expression of fright very great differences are observed, some animals being indifferent to the wholesale slaughter of their companions, while others show, by the extreme terror and anguish painted on their features, that they have an abstract notion of death. Cats and monkeys appear to be the only animals which share the delight of primitive man in cruelty or torture for its own sake. Vindictiveness is as strongly developed in elephants as if they had Spanish blood in their veins; and a good memory is used in its service. That birds and some other animals display æsthetic emotion, as shown by the development of beautiful ornaments in the males, was clearly proved by Mr. Darwin,

whatever may be thought about the theory of sexual selection, in which he was at issue with Mr. Wallace. Considerable doubt, however, remains in regard to the reported cases of love of music displayed by mice, spiders, etc. Indeed, in regard to spiders, Mr. C. V. Boys (quoted p. 206) has indubitably proved, by means of experiments with a tuning-fork, that what excites spiders is simply the vibrations of the air affecting their web, and leading them to think that a fly has been caught in it. To them the buzz of a fly's wings is doubtless sweeter music than the notes of a Stradivarius or a Steinway. Another myth is disposed of in the chapter on snakes. Sir Joseph Fayrer's opinion, that snake "fascination is only fright," is quoted as "the opinion of all persons who have had the opportunity of looking into the subject in a scientific manner." It has long been a moot question whether a scorpion could be caused by despair to commit suicide. Mr. G. Bidie gave an account in *Nature* of an experiment with a scorpion which was to inflict on itself a fatal sting after the rays of the sun had been focussed on its back. But in a recent number of the same periodical Mr. Bidie says:

"On reconsidering the whole affair, however, it occurred to me that in wounding its own back the scorpion may have merely been trying to get rid of an imaginary enemy. The concentrated rays of the sun, no doubt, caused pain, and the sting was probably directed toward the seat of this in an automatic manner, as a defensive act. This seems to me a more feasible explanation than to regard the action as due to an instinct detrimental to the individual and to the species."

We may close this notice with a paragraph on the psychology of the horse, which is a good specimen of the author's style:

"Another curious emotional feature in the horse is the liability of all the other mental faculties of the animal to become abandoned to that of terror. For I think I am right in saying that the horse is the only animal which, under the influence of fear, loses the possession of every other sense in one mad and mastering desire to run. With its entire mental life thus overwhelmed by the flood of a single emotion, the horse not only loses, as other animals lose, 'presence of mind,' or a due balance among the distinctively intellectual faculties, but even the avenues of special sense become stopped, so that the wholly demented animal may run headlong, and at terrific speed, against a stone wall. I have known a hare come to grief in a somewhat similar fashion when hotly pursued by a dog. This, however, was clearly owing to the hare looking behind instead of before, in a manner not, under the circumstances, unwise; but, as I have said, there is no animal except the horse whose whole psychology is thus liable to be completely dominated by a single emotion."

TWO LIVES OF CROMWELL.

Oliver Cromwell: The Man and his Mission. By J. Allanson Picton. With steel portrait. New York: Cassell & Co. 8vo, pp. 516.

Life of Cromwell. By Paxton Hood. [Standard Library.] New York: Funk & Wagnalls. 12mo, pp. 286.

WHEN one follows in detail the events of the nine years during which Cromwell was, under different titles, virtual ruler of England, it is hard to point to any serious mistake that he made, or to censure either his general policy or his administration. Certainly his conquest of Ireland and his Irish settlement were bloody and stern; but if a Catholic country was to be held under Puritan rule, hardly less would have sufficed. One would have desired a different treatment for Harrison and Vane; but if opposition was to be suppressed, milder measures of repression were hardly possible. His words and his conduct throughout his entire career are those of an earnest, heroic, devoted man, who is led from one step to another by a fatal necessity, until he stands at last upon the summit of empire, and that by no wish or effort of his own, but because nobody else could do the work that had to be done. What was, then, this work?

The contest between King and Parliament had ended in civil war; the civil war had ended in the death of the King and the establishment of the Commonwealth. The task, therefore, which Cromwell found to his hands in 1649 was the organization of a stable and permanent government of the republican type. Now, the first thing to be noted is that this condition of things—the existence of this problem—was not the work of the people of England by any organized and recognized action. Perhaps the people of England desired the execution of the King and the establishment of a republic, but they had had no opportunity to say so. The lawful organ of the English people was Parliament, and Parliament had ceased to exist. During the civil war, and the years that followed, the Long Parliament had by necessity continued to govern the country by its sole authority, and, through new elections, filling vacant places—by the so-called "Recruiters"—had kept up a tolerably complete representation. Parliament, as thus constituted, was the legitimate representative of the country, so far as a genuine representation could be had in such times. Unfortunately, this Parliament was wrong-headed and intolerant; and a deadly feud ensued between it and the army, a body which represented far better than the Parliament the worthiest temper and sentiment of the English people.

The question at issue was of the most vital and fundamental nature, and was determined by the sword. The leaders of the army, bent upon bringing the King to justice, and solely with the view of accomplishing this end, excluded enough members of Parliament to secure a majority for it. This act is known as Pride's Purge. From this moment there was no longer a Parliament. The "Rump" that remained called itself a Parliament, and continued to exercise all the powers of a Parliament; but it was no longer in any true sense an organized representation of the people of England, but an irresponsible body of men invested with authority by the army, and who would be allowed to exercise that authority just so long as they satisfied their masters, and no longer. There is, therefore, something ludicrous in the outcry that they made when Cromwell, on the memorable 20th of April, 1653, told them that the Lord was done with them, and sent them about their business. "You are not a Parliament," he said; and in fact they were not, and never had been.

As to the object for which this weeding out of Parliament took place, it is hard to see what else could safely have been done with the King. A man who, as long as he lived, was an essential part of the Constitution, but who, on principle, broke every engagement that he made, was a difficult element to deal with. Whether in prison or at large, he was equally an embarrassment. Only, when he was dead, it soon appeared that his son, at large and with no bad record, was a new embarrassment. And, worst of all, when they had executed the King, and proclaimed the Commonwealth, they found themselves face to face with a new problem, which was practically impossible of solution. It was easy enough for Cromwell, a man born to rule, to govern England with the strong hand; but to devise a form of republican government without a King, which could be administered by ordinary Englishmen, was not so easy. This was the task which fell to Oliver Cromwell, as the one strong man, to attempt to perform. No republican himself, he had cut loose from the traditional monarchy, and was at the head of a state which called itself a Commonwealth. The natural drift of events converted this Commonwealth into a monarchy of a new type, but a monarchy which lacked all the elements of permanence. An hereditary protectorate in the family of a Huntingdonshire commoner could never appeal to that sentiment in the people which lies at the very foundation of royalty; and a scheme of government which placed imperial powers in the hands of Richard Cromwell was predestined to failure.

But this scheme of government, predestined to failure, was the only one open to him. That he should seize the helm in the confusion which followed the death of the King, and, by his sole strength, hold the Government together as long as he lived, was a matter of course. The cause of final failure, then, is to be sought, not in his acts as ruler, but in the events which made him ruler—a series of events in which he had as large a share, and as serious a responsibility, as any one. The fatal mistake—that which brought the revolution to shipwreck—was committed when the constituted civil authority was set aside by the military. Mean and incompetent as was the Parliament, it was, nevertheless, the lawful authority in the land; and when it was overthrown, and the country placed under military rule, the result followed which always follows the triumph of the military over the civil authority—despotic rule, the prostration of all the liberties for which they had been so long contending. An impatient American reformer—was it Theodore Parker?—said: "God is not in a hurry, but I am." But the reformer who is in a hurry, who refuses to wait for constitutional methods and the slow ripening of events, always in the end mars his own work.

It is a mistake to assume, as Mr. Picton appears to do, that there was so wide a difference between the notions of the seventeenth century and those of the present day—that the suppression of parliamentary privileges was a slighter offence then than it would be now. He says (p. 382): "The doctrine of government by representation was not so matured nor so well understood then as it is now." And again (p. 416): "As he did not live in the nineteenth century, his notion of the functions of a parliament was perhaps not so clear as ours." Of course, the parliamentary powers of the seventeenth century were less developed than those of the present day; but at a time when the greatest contest between Parliament and prerogative which history records had been going on for nearly half a century, to underrate the importance of the issue in the minds of that generation is to blink the whole question. This was not a dull and remote age; it was an age which was all on fire for constitutional liberty. The remark made on page 392 is more to the purpose: "He did not care much by what constitutional—or, for that matter, by what unconstitutional—methods these things were got done, but done they must be." This is Cromwell's real justification—the military temper of mind which cares only for ends, and regards methods as indifferent. We are no worshippers of constitutional forms, but, after all, these forms are the only security against misgovernment and tyranny. If the "benevolent despot"—as Mr. Picton calls Cromwell—if the great and disinterested man could safely disregard these forms, what would happen when he was succeeded by his weak son or by the base Charles Stuart? One step leads to another, and the illegal act which was deemed necessary one year in order to secure the fruits of the contest against illegal power, was followed by another and yet another—every one of them justifiable except the first.

At last the time seemed to have come for a settlement on a permanent and constitutional basis—the second Protectorate: the old monarchy in its essential features, with Protector

instead of King. It is plain from the tenor of the discussions, the speeches of Cromwell and of the Parliamentary Committee, that the first object of the "Petition and Advice" was to put an end to arbitrary government. The desire to make Cromwell King appears to have this simple motive: the office of King was a magistracy, with a well-defined meaning and limitation in English law—what was the fighting for, all these years, but to establish these limitations?—while the title of Protector was undefined, elastic, capable of being stretched to cover unconstitutional powers. If Cromwell is crowned, his new title, says Whitlocke, "will ground itself in all the ancient foundations of the laws of England." And, again, he speaks of the jealousy "of new titles bringing unknown powers." We would not assert that Cromwell's rejection of the crown was due to a preference for the unconstitutional over the constitutional office and power. The crown had no doubt its attractions for him, as it had for Cæsar and for Napoleon, and it seems probable it was solely on account of the opposition of his leading supporters that he at last declared that he could not "undertake this government with the title of King." Moreover, he consented to define and limit the new title so as to make it to all intents and purposes the equivalent of the old. For all that, it must be recognized that the proposition to convert his irregular authority into a constitutional one did not emanate from him, but from Parliament itself. And even this scheme broke down, in its turn, within a few months. Cromwell's ambition was directed toward the practical and moderate end of building up a good government in his own country: no schemes of universal dominion, no constructing of vast empires to fall to pieces by their own weight, like those of Alexander and Napoleon. Sober and earnest, he had none of Napoleon's restless and vulgar vanity. He shared with these and with Charlemagne the defect of some of the greatest minds—that of constructing powers so great that no one but themselves can administer them. These great men forget that common men are to come after them.

The two books which we have placed at the head of our review are characteristic expressions of the feeling of the present day about Cromwell. Mr. Picton's book is a thorough, elaborate study—probably, take it all in all, the best single work upon the subject. Mr. Hood's is shorter and more popular, less guarded in its language, running often into excessive praise or unbalanced censure, but a worthy introduction to the excellent series of popular works of which it forms the first number.

WORK AND WAGES IN PARIS.

La Vie et les Salaires à Paris. Par M. Othenin d'Haussonville. Extrait de la *Revue des Deux Mondes*, livraison du 15 avril. Paris: Quantin. 1883. 8vo, pp. 56.

M. HAUSSONVILLE has recently resumed his studies of life among the poor in Paris, by an exhaustive article on the wages of working men and women and their cost of living. The well-meant effort to secure cheap, wholesome lodgings for the working classes, by combining charity with building and loan associations, has effected, he says, an increase of lodging apartments, such as pay a fair return by being rented at fifty or sixty dollars a year, or half the old rates; but as more than thirty thousand families, out of the forty-six thousand registered on the lists of the public charities, pay much less than forty dollars a year, the well-to-do workman alone can be benefited by the new building societies. The statistics of Paris are very minute and exact, and in 1880 it was shown that, out of 684,952 separate apartments, housing on an average three persons, 468,641 were let for less than sixty dollars, and that the per-capita rent had risen about one-fourth every ten years in a period of sixty years, so that any increase in wages was much more than overcome by the steady progress in the cost of living. A careful study of the bakery and other food trades of Paris proves that bread alone constitutes about one-third of the food supply of each family, and that it has remained stationary in price for a long period of years. Meat, on the other hand, has cheapened, and has therefore come into much greater use by all classes, although butter, eggs, and cheese have grown dearer; and the high wages of the well-paid workmen are often spent on the purchase of chickens, oysters, and other luxuries that were a few years ago quite unknown to any but the rich. Wine, sugar, and groceries have also steadily advanced in price, but their proportion in the cost of living is a comparatively small one. The public kitchens of Paris have done a great deal to make the workmen comfortable, by supplying good food at cheap rates; and some of the great railroads, and other employers of labor on a large scale, have found it worth their while to supply good meals at cheap rates to their workmen. Still, it costs a man, at least, from a hundred to a hundred and fifty dollars a year to get a fair supply of food such as the French workman requires, including bread and wine, soup and meat, vegetables and cheese, on a basis of twenty-five cents a day, in which bread will cost two cents; wine, six cents; soup and meat, nine cents; vegetables, five cents; cheese, three cents.

The next item in the cost of living is clothing, and that has very sensibly diminished; for now a workman or workwoman can clothe himself or herself for an average of twenty to thirty dollars a year, and be and look both comfortable and neat. Other items, such as washing for six dollars, light for the same sum, fire for heating for four dollars a year, show the economy incidental to Parisian modes of life. The expenses of benevolent societies and of luxuries, such as tobacco, refreshments, car-fares, presents to children, entertainments, are all fair items in the cost of living, which, all told, varies from one hundred and seventy to two hundred and forty dollars per annum (the year, with deductions for Sundays and holidays, means three hundred working days), and from seventy-five cents to a dollar must be earned every day to make a workman's life comfortable. Now, census returns give only averages, and personal investigation is the best means of ascertaining how far the Paris working classes are above or below the line of wages necessary to support life comfortably. In Paris a very large proportion of the higher rates of wages is earned by the men who work in art objects; next come those whose trades imply both training and strength—workers in iron and the building trades; and then all others may be roughly classed as laboring men. Strikes are the luxury of the well-paid workmen; for those who live from hand to mouth have no faith in such a means of bettering their condition. The jeweller's and silversmith's trade is one that seems particularly at home in Paris, and the perfection attained in it is largely due to the long training of the apprentices, who, for three or four years, receive no wages, but begin, as soon as they are working on their own account, with a dollar a day, and, finally, as foremen, earn from three to six dollars a day. Type-setters earn from a dollar and a half to three dollars a day; pressmen from a dollar and three-quarters to two dollars and a half a day. Wood-engravers vary from a dollar and a half to three dollars a day, but those who are recognized almost as artists earn from that to six dollars.

Of the men employed in the building trades the wages are ascertained by a rule special to Paris. The city of Paris is a large employer of skilled labor of this kind, and, as it prescribes the rate of wages to be paid by its contractors, that has become practically the rule for all Paris. Although originally intended only as a maximum rate, it has now become the average for all employers, and thus the increased cost of building is one of the factors in the heightened cost of living in Paris. The city now pays to stonecutters two dollars and a half for twelve hours' work in summer, and two dollars for eight hours in winter—that is, from November 1 to April 30. Other masons get a dollar and a half in summer, and a dollar and a quarter in winter; and helpers get a dollar in summer, and eighty cents in winter. Carpenters get a dollar and three-quarters in summer, and a dollar and a quarter in winter; and tinsmiths, marble-masons, and painters and glaziers about the same, with, of course, higher rates for those engaged in the artistic branches, such as fresco and other decorations. Many out-door workmen go home to the country for the three winter months. Under the generous example of the city as an employer, the wages have advanced from 25 to 60 per cent. in the various kinds of trades, with no particular reason for the difference other than an accidental influence in the city government. In the trades that have to do with interior decoration, the wood-carvers earn from two dollars and a half to three dollars a day, upholsterers and others at the same rate, while German and Italian workmen get from sixty cents to a dollar a day. Machinists earn from a dollar a day up, according to their special employment and mastery of it, and there the wages have increased in the last ten years by one-third, although the gain has been mainly to those earning the highest wages. Wagon and carriage-building is a special Paris industry, and the men working in it earn from one to two dollars a day, and their wages increase much faster than the cost of living.

The average ordinary day-laborer, in all varieties of employment, gets from sixty cents to a dollar, and often the foreigners, who come in crowds together to Paris, live in such a way as to save something to take home. The hundreds of modes of earning a living seen in the streets of Paris, by other than regular industries, are curious and well worth studying, and M. Haussonville supplies much information, the result of personal observation. He estimates the number of regular workmen in Paris at 250,000; of those who live by occasional jobs, at 75,000; and of beggars and vagabonds, at 15,000. Then, again, he estimates that 74 per cent. of the working population earn a dollar and more a day, 22 per cent. earn from eighty cents to a dollar, and 4 per cent. earn less than the former sum. Paris is, indeed, in the eyes of the French workman, the paradise of wages; but, on the other hand, it is the scene of many strikes that have reduced good workmen to helpless poverty, and on the lists of those receiving public charity there are five times as many mechanics of the best-paying trades as there are, for instance, of cobblers, the humblest class of shoemakers. Paris is in a still greater degree the paradise of workingwomen, for they find employment in much greater variety than anywhere else. In every pursuit, however—painting, designing, printing, wood-engraving—they must be content with from 20 to 40 per cent. less wages than the men engaged in the same kind of work. In many of their special trades—flower-making, embroidering, dressmaking—where the wages average a dollar a day, there is a long dull sea-

son, so that enough must be earned during the busy times to tide over this. Many industries pay women only fifty cents a day, and this is largely due to the competition in all kinds of sewing of the prisons, reformatories, convents, and other charities; and thousands of poor women in Paris are thus reduced to the lowest point of misery or vice. Naturally, there are nearly twice as many women registered as recipients of public charity as men, and of the total of over 40,000 of the former, 5,000 are day-laborers, 2,298 are house-servants, 1,500 are sewing-women, and 1,200 dressmakers. With an average of $170 as the lowest amount that will suffice for living in Paris, to be earned by 300 days' work, there are many women whose earnings fall below that modest minimum. That women never go on strikes is some evidence of their common sense, and that many of them endure their misery and hardship rather than purchase comfort at the cost of virtue, is an evidence of the highest qualities. It is only the aristocracy of the working class that indulges in strikes and in other luxuries.

Of coöperative societies and kindred alliances between capital and labor, the well-paid workingmen are the only beneficiaries. In Paris there were in 1880 only twenty-five establishments with any such principle at work, and, as some of these were banks and insurance companies, the proportion of workingmen engaged in the experiment was very small, and its benefits were almost exclusively enjoyed by those earning the best wages. The easy suggestion of industrial training does not really help to solve the question, for only those who master their trade (no matter where it is learned) are lifted out of the class of workmen not earning a fair average support, while for the large class of workingwomen there seems no such remedy at hand. The increase of charities of all kinds to help them in time of greatest need, is, after all, the one provision that is always most urgently suggested by a study of their condition.

Reminiscences and Memorials of the Men of the Revolution and their Families. By A. B. Mussey. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

THE author of this work, as appears incidentally, is a Unitarian clergyman, a graduate of Harvard in the class of 1824, and a native of Lexington, Mass. It is also inferrible that he is an hereditary member of the Society of the Cincinnati, his paternal grandfather having been one of Captain John Parker's company, and in the Lexington fight, though apparently not on the Common. As a boy he knew many of the survivors of that memorable engagement. In the early days of his ministry he became acquainted with many of the Revolutionary celebrities, both military and civil. From such an experience he has woven the present work, without much attention to form or sequence, and with a certain not unpleasant naïveté. If there is a tendency nowadays to overlook the merit of the men who fought in the ranks or in command to secure national independence—a disposition to pay higher honors to the moral heroism which discards carnal weapons—Mr. Mussey has done what he could to counteract it. He even bids us to observe that Emerson, as if by virtue of his descent, was "by eminence," not a Poet, or a Seer, but "a Patriot."

He first describes the more prominent members of certain great families, the Otises, Adamses, Quincys, Lincolns, Parkers, Kirklands, etc., some of them related by marriage among themselves or with the author's family. Then he passes to the Society of the Cincinnati, giving numerous biographical and genealogical sketches; tells of the Revolutionary men in the war of 1812, with a special chapter on Oliver Hazard Perry; describes (and this is one of the most valuable functions of the book) the personal appearance of Revolutionary officers; relates what he saw of Lafayette on his last visit to America, and of Andrew Jackson in his New England tour, in 1833; goes over the battle of Lexington, recording the traits of individual participants, and throws a sop to Southern sensibility by balancing his one-sided reminiscences with a tribute to the Revolutionary valor of the non-New England colonies. Channing and Ware are celebrated by their co-sectary, along with Emerson and Theodore Parker. Finally, there is a curiously interpolated chapter on the Anti-slavery Movement, which is excused by its autobiographical bearing, as well as by its intrinsic importance. Mr. Mussey was a member of the Cambridge Society which undertook ostensibly to put down slavery by the use of soft words under the direction of the Unitarian brotherhood, but which was really meant as a bridle on the harsh language of the editor of the *Liberator*. It lived long enough to discover its incapacity for either job, and then dissolved and was forgotten. Mr. Mussey gives its constitution and membership.

Much might be copied from these pages if space permitted, but we must be sparing. In 1823 Harrison Gray Otis was a rival of William Eustis for the governorship of Massachusetts.

"Eustis had won fame as a surgeon in the Revolution, and in subsequent civil capacities. Otis was strongly opposed, among other things, for his theological views, being an avowed Unitarian; while Eustis was of the Orthodox faith, and widely supported by that denomination, which gave him success at the polls. Mr. Otis, on meeting him in the street the next day, after the result was known, said to him, 'I have no doubt you believe now in the doctrine of election'" (p. 35).

Of Benjamin Lincoln we read:

"General Lincoln's home was in Hingham to the last, and the house in which he was born and died is now owned and occupied by his grandchildren, who are the seventh generation who have lived there. The estate has descended in a direct line from the ancestor who settled there in 1636. Six generations of Lincolns have been born on that spot, and each family had a son named Benjamin" (p. 113).

The following picture is seldom in mind when we think of the time which it recalls:

"The privations we suffered during the war of 1812 were only second to those of our fathers in the Revolution. I can never forget the straits to which it brought us in the family. Nearly all imported articles were beyond our means; our garments were of cheap fabrics. A blue broadcloth of American manufacture, presented to my father, was made for long years to do service, until its threads could be almost counted. Not only foreign coffees and all the best teas were denied us, but at last the miserable bohea tea and rye coffee were cut off from constant use; and we would sit around our board, confined, one and all, to the oft recurring baked apples and milk. Not only did the whole country feel the indirect pressure of want, but a fearful direct taxation consumed their very substance" (p. 247).

We close with Mr. Mussey's account of the great gale of September, 1815, following the war:

"It began between eight and nine o'clock in the forenoon, coming from the southeast, and continued about four hours. Houses and barns were blown down, chimneys were overthrown, and windows dashed in; the tides in Boston and Cambridge, we heard, were fearfully high; and in the latter place a vessel was washed up from the shore and driven into the main street of the town. I saw, during the morning, trees of the larger sizes uprooted in every direction. A new shed, 100 feet long, which my father had built for his hotel, was taken up, carried high in the air, as if by a giant's hand, and dropped a long way from its foundation. I followed my father to one of his houses, where he saw the roof at one end beginning to rise, and rushed with him to the attic, where, axe in hand, he dashed out the windows at the other end, and thus saved the unroofing of the house. The air, at a distance of thirteen miles from the ocean, was so saturated with salt water that it was difficult to breathe. This was Saturday; and the next day the church was not opened, for the roads were all so covered with trees uprooted and blown into them that, as was said, 'the people could not ride to meeting'" (p. 250).

Familiar Sketches of the Phillips Exeter Academy and Surroundings. By Frank H. Cunningham. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

To write the history of a great public school is to work in the direction of its founder, for to extend its fame is to add to its endowment and prolong its existence. This, however, is only part of the service rendered by such a commemoration in a country where the example of public spirit is so contagious as in our own; and the handsome volume before us may well determine many a latent benefaction in the direction of education. The two Phillips academies at Exeter, N. H., and Andover, Mass., are a singular monument to the illustrious family whose name they bear; certainly, in the hundred years since the junior institution here celebrated was established, we can recall no parallel, whether we consider the circumstances of their common origin or the high success which both have achieved.

Mr. Cunningham's narrative, as its title implies, is marked by good-will and devotion rather than by literary skill, and is rightly to be viewed as a compilation, even for the editor's own part in it. But he is almost a pioneer in Phillips Exeter antiquities, and deserves credit for much laborious research as well as for the collaboration which he has secured. The biographical sketches in particular are the work of many hands, and are interesting if not particularly well done. They all agree in taking a genial view of the character described, except in a solitary instance, that of Jeremiah Kingman, whose "one grave fault" is faithfully remembered, though no name is given to it, and though it is morally and historically certain that as great failings have been entirely overlooked in the case of other subjects of these sketches. Whether this is worth consideration in preparing a second edition, as Mr. Cunningham contemplates, we leave it for him to decide. There is a good story of the father of Lewis Cass (who, like that other unsuccessful Presidential candidate, John P. Hale, was a graduate of the Academy). When asked by the principal, Dr. Abbot, who had taken the "very wild boy" to see what he could do with him, how his son was getting along, "Well, sir," said the Major, "if Lewis was half as afraid of the Almighty as he is of you, I should never have any more trouble with him." It is also worth while to quote the instructive experience of Webster at Exeter: "The kind and excellent Buckminster sought to persuade me to perform the exercise of declamation like the other boys, but I could not do it. . . . Mr. Buckminster always pressed and entreated with the most winning kindness that I would venture *once;* but I could not command sufficient resolution." The Reminiscences and Anecdotes grouped around the dates 1808, 1811, 1822, 1855 are very entertaining.

The volume is well illustrated with heliotype views and woodcuts, and it has been possible to present photographic views of the three Academy buildings. The first is still standing. The second was burnt to the ground in 1870, and the present building was to a certain extent, as in the distribution of its parts, modelled upon it. If it is safe to judge from the prints, the elder design was much superior to the later (we are now speaking of externals merely), in proportion, dignity, and simplicity. One need only

compare the belfries to see how far the translation is from the original. Yet, according to Mr. Cunningham, the new building is "perfect in its proportions and graceful in its outlines."

A Study of the Manuscript Troano. By Cyrus Thomas, Ph.D. With an Introduction by D. G. Brinton, M.D. From 'Contributions to North American Ethnology,' vol. v. Washington: Smithsonian Institution. 1882. Pp 237.

THE last five years, in this country, have been uncommonly fruitful in the production of work which shows a marked tendency toward digging somewhat deeper than formerly was the habit, into the manifold layers of rubbish lying between us and the soil upon which ancient American civilization built its mysterious structures. When we were young and wished to inform ourselves about what kind of magnificent empires were conquered and destroyed by Cortez and Pizarro, it was Robertson whom we were directed to look up as the authority to be consulted. An epoch then followed in which we were freely referred to the pages of Prescott. We shall never forget the delight with which we listened to the music of his diction, nor the confidence we felt, on studying the learned notes appended to the brilliant text, that he had been dipping from the very sources of sound knowledge. Yet both Robertson and Prescott have had their day. They are reproached with having fascinated our imagination and misled our judgment by fancies and perfumed dreams. A new class of students has arisen, bent upon reviewing and adequately reshaping the material left for the reconstruction of the early history of our continent. Various important contributions to this end have been made by Messrs. Bandelier, Valentini, Putnam, Powell, Mallery, Yarrow, Gatschet, Rau, Holden, and others, as well by the learned societies, the Archæological Institute of America, the Antiquarian American Society of Worcester, the Peabody Museum in Cambridge, and the Smithsonian Institution in Washington, which is almost uninterrupted succession, during the last five years, have made the work presented by students accessible in print to the reader at home as well as abroad.

A study of the Manuscript Troano is now laid before the public. All who are interested in learning the final results obtainable from an examination of this remnant of Yucatecan art when interpreted by a competent scholar, will feel satisfied with the sound common sense and the thoroughness with which Mr. Cyrus Thomas has accomplished his arduous task. After the more than ridiculous attempt made at their interpretation by the late Brasseur de Bourbourg it is refreshing to follow Mr. Thomas's patient and judicious analysis of the host of little pictures, and to witness his organizing faculty in grouping them so as to present an intelligible whole. It was always supposed that the Codex Troano was nothing else than one of those peculiar pictorial calendars which the Yucatecan priests made use of for their ritual purposes, and no doubt about its being so remains in view of the abundant and minute evidence which Mr. Thomas offers. Not only is this evidence based upon a constant reference to a group of Yucatecan calendar symbols, the meaning of which is known, or upon a sagacious identification of the painted objects themselves, but also, above all, our author was able to adapt a whole set of successive groups to a description which Bishop Landa, right after the Conquest, gave of the contents of such a ritual calendar. It almost seems as if, while writing, the Bishop had this specimen of the Troano painting either in mind or before his eyes. The interpretation itself is prefaced by a very able discussion of the fundamental structure of the Yucatecan Calendar. Laymen ambitious of general information, as well as scholars who are conversant with this abstruse specialty, will be made aware that the subject is handled by a master hand.

Our thankfulness for Mr. Thomas's teachings, however, does not go so far as to make us yield unconditional acceptance. If, on the one hand, for instance, he seems to be remarkably felicitous in his identification of many of the Troano pictures, and views them accordingly as representing objects drawn from nature, though somewhat distorted and not conventional with our methods of delineation, on the other hand, he indulges in the opinion that a portion of them may be amenable to phonetic interpretation, and this to such a degree that he attempts a translation of them. He neither clearly explains why both modes of interpretation are allowable, nor traces the limit at which the ideographic interpretation must cease and the phonetic begin. Moreover, it must be borne in mind that the phonetic clew employed by Mr. Thomas is of a very doubtful character. He relies upon the authenticity of the so-called clew of the Landa alphabet. The credit, however, which this clew enjoyed during the first decade of its discovery has lately received such rude shocks that it will hardly succeed in ever recovering from them. Besides, only recently, its most ardent champion, Prof. Léon de Rosny, of Paris, has publicly avowed that the supposed clew has proved to be unavailable for the purpose of deciphering the Yucatecan hieroglyphics.

In conclusion we venture to call Mr. Thomas's attention to an interesting suggestion made by A. von Humboldt in his famous 'Essai politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne' (Livre iii., Chapter viii.). When preparing the edition of this work in Paris, he had a visit from a highly-cultured Persian gentleman to whom he chanced to show one of the pages of the so-called Dresden Codex, a book which in arrangement and composition is known to be almost a counterpart of the Troano. This gentleman, Humboldt goes on to narrate, thought he recognized in these pictured pages, *at first sight*, certain paintings of Asiatic geomancy, which in his country bear the name of *alem al raml*. And again, in the 'Vues des Cordillères,' when discussing the Mexican Calendar Stone and its twenty symbols for the days of the month, the German savant, with his usual precision as well as cautiousness, points out a surprising similarity between these symbols and their arrangement and those engraved on the ancient Turanian Zodiac. And these are not the only striking resemblances between the civilization of the two continents, which for three hundred years have formed topics of learned discussion among archæologists.

The Sportsman's Gazetteer and General Guide. By Charles Hallock. Orange Judd Co.

THIS is a large book, of nearly 900 pages, and contains a vast amount of information about almost every kind of wild beast, bird, and fish in North America, with directions as to their successful pursuit. It is meant to be a manual for sportsmen, and is quite as near the mark as any book covering so much ground can hope to be. Directions are given how to get to any place in any State where game or fish is to be found; where to stop, and how to proceed to despatch the animals pursued. We do not think it would in all cases be safe to place implicit reliance on these instructions. There are a number of chapters on dogs—principally those used for sporting—and their diseases; a good chapter on guns; one on fly-fishing; one on boats, a "bibliography for sportsman"; a most amusing "glossary—common words in local use throughout North America," which would interest and edify any ascetic; and recipes and cures for every ill and accident that can possibly befall a sportsman while exercising his craft; *e. g.*, "Fishbone in Throat.—If you get a fishbone in your throat fast there, swallow an egg raw: it will be sure to carry down a bone easily and certainly." There are, as might be expected, mistakes in some of Mr. Hallock's statements, but not enough to affect materially the general trustworthiness of the book. A number of good railway maps accompany the volume, which is illustrated.

Sketching from Nature. A Handbook for Students and Amateurs. By Tristram J. Ellis. With a frontispiece and ten illustrations by H. Stacy Marks, R.A., and twenty-seven sketches by the author. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

THIS is a loosely written and superficial little book, which can, as a whole, give very little real help to students or amateurs. Yet as we sometimes find useful hints and suggestions in books of this character, there are here scattered passages from which may be gathered more or less that is serviceable. In his introductory remarks the author alludes to the embarrassments to beginners which often arise from the intensity of out-of-door light, and makes some good observations regarding the choice of position in relation to the light, and on various modes of shielding the work from its glare. He also explains why a drawing in color executed out of doors has so different, and often so disappointing, a look when viewed under the light of an ordinary room; and suggests what allowance, during the progress of the work, should be made in consequence. These are matters, indeed, which an intelligent beginner will sooner or later find out for himself; but much time and vexation may be saved by his being apprised of them at the outset. On p. 4, in speaking of the carefulness necessary to good workmanship, it is well said that "the quicker the manipulation the closer the care required." This is an important truth for the young sketcher. It does not generally appear, but it is nevertheless the fact, that the care necessary to make a slight sketch that is worth anything, and the resulting fatigue, are much greater, proportionately, than in the case of more deliberate and elaborate work. It is important for the beginner to know that a good artist always takes great pains. He never works carelessly. His quick work is done by intense effort and a simplified aim, not by any manner of recklessness.

On p. 6 the fundamental principle that any scene, or group of objects, in nature presents to the eye an assemblage of variously shaped patches of colors, variously shaded, and that the good colorist lays hold of this as his primal color conception and temporarily resolves these patches into essentially flat fields—Egyptian fashion—is seriously misstated as follows: "All nature *appears to the eye* as a series of flat patches of color and shade of different strengths." The words which we italicize convey an absolute untruth. Nature does not *appear* in flat patches. On the contrary it is hardly possible, in nature, to find such a thing as an apparently flat patch of color. The instructions for practice are given too much in the form of recipe, as, for instance, on p. 14, where a pupil is told, in sketching a passage of distance, to "be careful to make the lights and shades only slightly different." It would be better to direct him to observe the conditions, stating perhaps, at the same time, that, as a general rule, the contrasts of light and shade in the distance are less strong than they are in the foreground. On p. 29 we find the unwarrantable affirmation that in working with

the lead pencil the lines must always be kept firm and sharp. "Directly rubbing or stump is employed, all the beauty of pencil-work vanishes," says the author. Now, the fact is that one of the most valuable qualities of the lead pencil consists in the brush-like softness which it may be made to give; so that tint and line may easily be combined in sketching with it. A good draftsman will rub in a tint of soft pencilling with his finger, or a stump, and define forms with the pencil point, with delightful as well as most legitimate effect. Such effects are preëminently legitimate, since they are precisely those which call out the complete capabilities of the instrument.

On p. 76 are some good remarks about placing figures in a landscape. The principles referred to in this connection, though obvious enough, are not always heeded by amateurs, or even by artists. On p. 76 the pupil is advised never to copy, as "it utterly stunts the imagination and self-dependence." We consider this wholly untrue, and contrary to both reason and experience. The great Italian masters were often most faithful copyists in their pupilage: of this the notable case of Michael Angelo is an instance. It is true that the mindless and slavish copying which is so deplorably common in European galleries, is useless enough; but intelligent copying, from the works of true masters, is an invaluable, if it be not also an indispensable, mode of study. It will hurt neither the imagination nor the proper self-dependence of the student. The lesson in Tone given on pp. 90, 91 is involved with serious fallacies, as where the author says that "to the modern French school must be given the credit of carrying out the study of values to its greatest refinement": and, again, that Rembrandt was "the pioneer of relative tone." We have repeatedly, in these columns, shown that the "values" of the modern French school, and of Rembrandt, are usually so extravagant as to be far from refined and true. The advice, p. 92, to "Put in the background with strokes as evenly as you can, but going in different directions" (*sic*) is erroneous; for the expression of tone is not dependent upon the manner in which the lines which may compose a tint are drawn; and it is waste of time and misdirection of effort to bestow any care upon such lines. Again, with regard to a black dabber (grouped with other objects as a model) the author says: "Make it as black as you can," whereas the only proper advice, in such a case, would be to make it, if possible, as black as it appears. That is to say, the student, in these matters, should never be required to do anything in simple obedience to a precept, but he should be required, rather, to observe the model and represent what he sees as nearly as he can. Nothing is said, anywhere in the lesson, on the important fact that, since the scale of light and dark in nature greatly exceeds that at the disposal of the painter, it is impossible, in most cases, to reproduce values with anything like actual truth—a fact which is generally ignored by nearly all writers and teachers, even those who lay most stress upon the importance of values.

The book is divided into twelve chapters, among which is a very inadequate one on Elementary Perspective. The best are those upon "Composition and Selection of Subject," and on "Figures in Landscape," respectively. The illustrations are, for the most part, poor; though there are several among them which show a pleasant sense of composition, which, it is but just to say, is as rare in popular treatises of this kind as it is in popular art.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Newport Aquarelle: a Story. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.

Art, L'. Vol. xxxiii. J. W. Bouton.

Benedict, F. L. The Price She Paid: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.

Blanchard, R. History of Illinois, accompanied by an Historical Map of the State. New York: C. L. Woodward. $3.

Brehm's Thierleben. Chromo edition. Parts 90-94. B. Westermann & Co.

Gilchrist, Anne. Mary Lamb. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.

Gross, C. Gilda Mercatoria: Ein Beitrag zur Geschichte der englischen Städteverfassung. Göttingen: Deuerlich.

Grove, G. Dictionary of Music and Musicians. Parts 17, 18. Sketches to Sumer is icumen in. Macmillan & Co.

Heidenheimer, H. Petrus Martyr Anglerius und sein Opus Epistolarium. Berlin: Oswald Seehagen; New York: S. Zickel.

Hood, P. Scottish Characteristics. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.

Jackson, L. D'A., Accented Five-Figure Logarithms of Numbers from 1 to 99,999. London: W. H. Allen & Co.

Longley, E. The Reporter's Guide. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2.

Modern Age. Vol. 1. Buffalo, N. Y. $1 50.

Mougeolle, P. Statique des Civilisations. Paris: E. Leroux.

O'Hanlon, Alice. Robert Reid, Cotton-Spinner: a Story. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Payne, Alice H. The Rage of the Age: a Story. New York: Oscar Dryer.

Racinet, A. Le Costume Historique. Part 14. Paris: Firmin-Didot; New York: J. W. Bouton.

Ross, D. W. Early History of Land-holding among the Germans. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.

Schuette, Prof. C. H. L. The State, the Church, and the School. Columbus: Lutheran Book Concern. $1 50.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 23, 1883.

The Week.

THE testimony of Mr. A. H. Seymour before the Labor Committee on Monday contained an interesting account of the different steps by which the Western Union Telegraph Company has established its monopoly. Mr. Seymour is a telegraph manager of many years' experience, and, while there are some obvious errors in his estimates and some important breaks in his narrative, the statement as a whole is sufficiently accurate to be taken as a trustworthy sketch. The nest-egg of the Western Union Company was the New York and Mississippi Valley Company, whose plant was valued at $250,000. The first company absorbed was the Erie and Michigan, whose plant had cost $150,000, but whose lines did not pay, and were regarded as almost worthless. After absorption in 1856 the stock of the original company was watered to $4,000,000, and the name Western Union was adopted. The increased business of the war made the company prosperous, the stock was increased, and a 100 per cent. stock dividend was declared. The great prosperity of the company stimulated the building of competing lines, and this in turn made the business of absorption a regular industry. Company after company was absorbed, and as each disappeared there was always an increase in the stock out of all proportion to the value of property acquired. Thus, when a rival line costing $400,000 was absorbed, the stock was increased by a round million. When another, costing $600,000, was acquired, the stock was enlarged by two millions. The acquisitions of ten or a dozen small companies up to about 1864 had in this way swelled the stock of the Western Union to eleven millions, although the value of the entire plant was only two and a quarter millions. As nearly as we can make out from Mr. Seymour's figures, about twenty-five different companies have been absorbed in all, and the process has swelled the nominal capital of Western Union to $100,000,000.

Mr. Seymour estimates that the Government could duplicate the entire telegraph system of the country for $25,000,000. He recommends that the Government should not attempt to exercise complete control over the business, but should become a competitor with other companies, conducting its business on sound civil-service principles. Whether the Government began business as competitor or not, it would soon be without competition, for it would conduct the business as it does the Post-office, with no intention to make money out of it. Competition by outside companies on a basis of rates which was only designed to pay actual expenses would be impossible. Existing companies would be so quick to realize this fact that if the Government were to begin the construction of a separate system it would not get far before the present corporations would be willing to sell their plant at a reasonable price.

The Postal Telegraph Company, under its new head, Mr. Mackey, the California millionaire, seems to be regarded as a really formidable rival of the Western Union—the most formidable it has yet had. The new company has apparently abundance of capital, and has several patents of extraordinary value. We believe it claims the power of sending any number of messages simultaneously over the same wire. The "sagging" tendency of the Western Union stock is freely ascribed to its appearance, and it is just possible that we are at last about to see something like real competition in the telegraphic business. But it is not to be supposed that the Western Union managers yet take this view. To them the new organization is still simply something which will have to be bought up or absorbed with more "watered stock," like the twenty-five others which have preceded it. So, instead of improving their service as yet, they will probably for some time to come simply occupy themselves in getting the water ready for the stock, and seeing that the hose is in order.

The ending of the telegraphers' strike last week relieved the public mind of a source of much uneasiness, and removed a great obstacle to business transactions. Strikes in other lines of employment have been abandoned, and there has also, apparently, been a cessation of mercantile and bank failures. The flurry in the stock market, which at one time last week was panicky, has, after all, caused but few failures in that line of business, and its principal result has been to place the majority of stocks at lower prices in stronger holding. Capital is still to a large extent distrustful, though apparently less so than before the late occurrences. Money is still offered on call loans at the abnormally low rates of 2 and 2½ per cent. on the best stock collaterals, while rates for discounts of mercantile paper are ½ to 1 per cent. higher than ten days ago, and all time-paper is subjected to the closest scrutiny. On the 15th instant the United States Treasury gave notice that it would redeem, without rebate of interest, on each Wednesday—beginning on August 22—an amount equal to $5,000,000 of the bonds that had been previously called for redemption and payment on November 1. Though this would give the holders of such bonds their money at once and also their interest up to November 1, there are as yet no indications that many will take advantage of the offer. Officers of financial institutions which hold these bonds say they have no employment for the money, and prefer it should remain in Government bonds rather than in their vaults as currency. The foreign exchanges have been gradually declining in favor of the United States, and are now within 2 cents on the pound sterling of the specie-importing point. The latest advices from Europe confirm the reports of deficient crops of wheat, not only in Western Europe, but also in Russia, and the prospect of a good foreign market for our surplus breadstuffs at moderate prices has improved. The Western crops have been slower in their first movements than usual, which also accounts for the tardy beginning of the usual autumn trade. On the whole, while confidence has not yet been restored, there has certainly been an improvement in almost every aspect of the commercial, financial, and industrial situation.

The Shaw Brothers have made an explanation, at a meeting of their creditors, of their failure, which comes, we are bound to say, much nearer to ours than any the Boston *Advertiser* has yet furnished. The amount of their liabilities is enormous—$7,509,000 or thereabouts; and the assets, good, bad, and middling, only $5,262,000. This, the senior partner says, is how it came about: After the Pacific Bank failure in 1881, several large customers came to them in a state, not of insolvency, but of uneasiness. The Shaws gave their affairs "a hasty glance," and, without more ado, endorsed as much of their paper as was necessary to help them out. In the course of a year the firm had endorsed so much of this paper, or, to use Mr. Shaw's language, "the volume of it had grown so large," that their own credit began to suffer, and they had to ask their protégés for help by getting them to endorse their paper. Then they tried to advance the price of leather, but "the market failed to respond to a decided effort" in this direction. When the firm failed they found that the amount of paper they had out "was much larger than they expected," which is not surprising considering that when they began endorsing they took only "a hasty glance" at the affairs of the people they undertook to save. What the Boston *Advertiser* meant by the suggestion that it could not be the tariff which upset the Shaw judgment, because leather is on the free list, we do not know. The duty on leather under the present tariff, as well as under the old one, ranges from 10 to 25 per cent. ad valorem.

Mr. I. E. Dean, familiarly known as "Farmer Dean," the Chairman of the "Alleghany County Committee of the National Greenback party," has issued an address to the voters of that county, which shows a curious change of front on the part of the Greenbackers. The evils described by the address are all anti-monopolist grievances. In fact, the address is an anti-monopolist document. It describes the corruption, and spoliation, and oppression wrought by the great corporations. It contains no allusion to the condition of our present currency or to any defects in it, but its chief remedy is nevertheless "the issue of all money, whether gold, silver, or paper, by the Government," which is to "control its value by carefully limiting its amount." It would thus appear that a good Greenbacker now is not a man who is for greenbacks only and opposed to the use of gold and silver coinage. He is simply the enemy of circulating bank notes. So that he is really not distinguishable from a Democrat who hates national banks. Farmer Dean con-

cludes with an assertion which probably accounts for the total disappearance of the old greenback principles from the greenback platform, although he appears to be somewhat loose in his astronomy, viz.: "that the world moves faster with every revolution, and we can learn more in this generation in a week than we could fifty years ago in a year."

The evidence given at the inquiry into the late murder of the Rev. Mr. Sewell, the Texan minister, that when examined after he fell he was found to have a self-cocking revolver secured by an India-rubber band up his sleeve, so arranged that by a slight motion of his arm the muzzle dropped into the right position for active service, will well repay the attention of the American Bible Society, whose local agent he is said to have been. We do not think a clergyman in the service of the Bible Society ought to carry concealed weapons. If he will wear a revolver or a knife, he ought to wear it openly in a belt, so that his brother clergymen may know where he stands on the homicide question. Would it not be well, therefore, for the Society to send a little circular to its Southern agents, cautioning them against murder and felonious assaults, and pointing out the strong temptations to both these offences created by the practice of going armed? There appears to be a marked mediæval flavor about the clergy in the Southwest. One of the greatest difficulties the Church had to contend with in the dark ages was getting the priests and bishops to leave off fighting, and, above all, to avoid bloodshed. This was hard on the barbarians, who could not see, even when in holy orders, how a respectable man of any calling could get along without occasionally killing somebody or "cutting" him with a knife.

Judge James Jackson, a Southerner, has written an article in the *North American Review* on the homicide question, under the very taking heading of "Shooting at Sight," which we thought would throw new light on it. We are sorry to say, however, that all he does is to restate the case, and ascribe the Southern readiness to shed blood to what we have called "Cavalierism," or a Cavalierish origin. But, as we have already pointed out in these columns, this is no explanation at all. Very few Southerners, indeed, have inherited either Cavalier blood or traditions. Moreover, the bulk of the Cavaliers stayed in England. But neither their descendants, nor their man-servants, nor maid-servants, nor dependents, nor any persons who are in any way under their influence, or imitate them, now either carry concealed weapons, or shoot at sight, or fight duels, or have "difficulties," or brawls, or have anything to do with murders or fights, except in the way of hunting down the persons who engage in them, or sitting on the juries which try them. To be truly Cavalierish in our time, in fact, is to be peaceable, law-abiding, sober in speech and behavior, and an avoider of rows, broils, cuttings, shootings, and the like.

The recent revival of prize-fighting, of which there is plenty of evidence in the brutal encounters reported in the newspapers nearly every day, is the direct consequence of the impunity attending the sham sparring matches which take place every now and then between noted pugilists in the presence of the police and of vast crowds of spectators. The theory which these matches have generated, that a "glove fight"—that is, a fight with any kind of glove on—is lawful, leads every week to savage "mills" with hard gloves, which have every concomitant of an ordinary prize-fight. The main objection to prize-fights, on which the law prohibiting them is based, is that they are decided by the physical exhaustion of one of the parties, produced by pounding with the fists, and this result is reached by a glove fight just as effectively as by a fight with the bare fists. Mr. Blaikie, who used to be a well-known Harvard athlete, called attention, in a letter to the *Tribune* the other day, to the imposture of the matches which attract such great crowds at the Madison Square Garden under pretence that they are sparring matches, the fact being that they are simply disguised "mills" of the ordinary kind, in which one of the combatants is "knocked out"—that is, exhausted by the severe pummelling of his opponent—and the victory is won, just as in the prize-ring, by his inability to stand up and bear more "punishment." This is not sparring at all, however; for sparring is a game not of strength, but dexterity; and, if the police are to superintend these affairs, they ought to stop them whenever attempt is made to beat down an antagonist by sledge-hammer blows. They might as well permit fencing in which heavy blows of a steel bar were substituted for the touch of a foil button.

An expert in theatrical business makes the welcome statement that the practice of hanging lithographs in shop windows has had such an unfavorable effect upon the receipts at the box-office that its abandonment is only a question of time. He says the man who hangs one of the pictures in his window is presented with two admission tickets as remuneration. These he can have exchanged at the box-office for reserved seats by paying the additional charge of fifty cents each. The result is that bar-tenders and other objectionable persons monopolize many of the choicest seats in the theatres, and respectable people object to occupying places next to them. In this way "many of our best people" have been driven permanently away, and the theatres have lost a good deal of money. The most cheering thing about this proposed reform is that it will do away with the lithograph-portrait abomination, by which all our principal thoroughfares are now made hideous. The public has borne this infliction with saint-like resignation for several years, but the reappearance of several millions of lithographs of Oscar Wilde's most distressing countenance has started ominous mutterings which foretell revolt.

A large meeting of colored people was held lately at Muscogee, Ga., to oppose the proposed national colored convention at St. Louis, in September, to complain of the failure of negroes to get more offices. The Georgian negroes resolved that a convention for any such purpose would "be detrimental to the welfare and advancement of their race." The speakers recommended the ignoring of politics and conventions, and the devotion of each family to its own fortune, as the best means of giving the race political weight. No better advice was ever given. What the negro race on this continent needs is more successful negro farmers, and manufacturers, and merchants; more good negro doctors, and lawyers, and journalists; more negro musicians, and painters, and architects; more successful negro candidates at competitive examinations for admission to the civil service. When these exist we may be sure negro office-holding will follow in abundance. The difficulty the race now has to contend with is that it does not yet rank with the whites in the arts of civilized life. If this be removed, all else will follow.

Judge Nelson has delivered an opinion in the case of the Chinese laborer Ah Shong, which introduces a new complication into the working of the act of 1882. Ah Shong, it will be remembered, is a ship-carpenter, born in Hong Kong since it became a British colony, and consequently a British subject. Judge Nelson holds that he is, properly speaking, a British and not a Chinese laborer; or, in other words, that "Chinese," as used in the act, refers to nationality and not to race. This decision exempts from the operation of the act the population of Hong Kong (about 100,000), and will make it necessary for the officers of the Government to be cautious whom they exclude from our ports. The reasoning on which the decision is founded is very simple and conclusive. The act was passed nominally to carry out certain treaties made by the Emperor of China. Now the Emperor makes treaties only with regard to his own subjects, and not those of Queen Victoria. Hong Kong was clearly overlooked by the reformers who passed by the Anti-Chinese Law, and the decision makes the Anglo-Saxon future on this continent dismal indeed. There is nothing that we can see to prevent the 100,000 Mongolian "lepers" who inhabit Hong Kong from coming over in a body and settling in our midst, and perpetuating here those disgusting habits of thrift, industry, and self-denial which have created such alarm among the statesmen of the Pacific slope.

A very touching account has been going the rounds of the papers, which, even if invented, does honor to the inventor's heart, of the way in which Mr. Blaine received a proposal, or something in the nature of a proposal, *not* to insert the portrait of his old enemy, Roscoe Conkling, in his forthcoming historical work. This work is to be, if we are not misinformed, a subscription book, to be disposed of, in part at least, by travelling agents; but the subscription book must, as every one knows, have pictures in it to make it go, and Mr. Blaine's is to have portraits of the various statesmen who have been his political contemporaries, friends or foes, as the case may be. Somebody, some low, dastardly person, said to him that he supposed Mr. Conkling's portrait would of course not appear. The

author of the Pan-American Confederation scheme, we are told, on receiving this suggestion, arose with kindling eye and advanced on the author of it, and told him that the portrait would appear, and that when it did appear it would be the portrait of a man who had been "the brains of New York" for a matter of twenty years or thereabouts. As we have said before, the story may have been invented or embellished, but, if invented, the composer of it must have been a good man, if not a book agent. If a book agent, he is a pretty cute fellow, for that one story, supported by showing the Conkling portrait, will sell the book.

The thirst of the Irish Invincibles for blood appears to be reaching a point where extreme measures should be employed to check it. Henry McDermott, the brother of the man who is under arrest at Liverpool for conspiracy against the British Government, went to the police authorities in Brooklyn last week and asked for protection. He said he was in fear of his life through the importunities of agents of Irish secret societies, who wished him to publish an affidavit declaring his belief that his brother was a British spy. He refused, on the ground that he had no knowledge on the subject; whereupon it was intimated that if he did not consent "the whole McDermott family in this country will be wiped out." This is in the nature of a summary proceeding, inasmuch as nobody is aware of the precise cause of the arrest of the McDermott in Liverpool. The Irish "patriots" here suspect that he is an informer, but they have no evidence that he is, and no intimation that he is has been sent from the other side. His brother has been so worried by the avenging Invincibles that he says: "He has always been a curse to me and my family, whether he is innocent or guilty." This general denunciation of his brother as a "curse" ought to satisfy the avengers, and at least delay the "wiping out" of the whole family until further developments in Liverpool.

It seems probable that Mr. Parnell's obscure but dreadful threat uttered last week in the House of Commons, taken in connection with the meeting held at Limerick, at which judicial rents were denounced, means that we are shortly to witness the beginning of an agitation for peasant ownership, with or without compensation to the landlords. He says he is going to lead something "deeper and more desperate" than anything he has yet undertaken, and this must be what he means. There is nothing deeper or more desperate left than the appropriation of the land by the tenantry without payment. Unfortunately, even if he take this step, Parnell will not be without a certain justification. Grave defects in the Land Act have been revealed by the judicial decisions called forth by its working. They were foretold by the Irish party in the House when it was under debate. Mr. Gladstone has admitted them fully. The prompt correction of them was urged upon him not by the Parnellites only, but by the Ulster members. He refused to make it, partly because the House was occupied with neglected English business, and partly because English opinion would not tolerate any modification of the act at present. The result has been to alienate the Protestant farmers of the North, as well as the Southern Catholics, as shown in the Monaghan election, when the bitterest of the Parnellites, Healy, was returned by a clear majority over both Liberal and Tory combined, by a constituency which has not before shown any anti-English feeling. The consequence is, probably, that Parnell is encouraged to believe that he can now go one step further with increased strength. It is not unlikely, too, that in clamoring for peasant proprietorship he will have the landlords with him, if money to compensate them can be got out of the Treasury.

The success of Parnell in wringing concessions from the Government is fast making a position for him which no preceding Irish agitator—not even O'Connell—ever attained. O'Connell's great achievement — Catholic emancipation—after all, only relieved the upper class of Catholics from certain galling disabilities. The tenant farmers derived no direct material benefit from it. They did profit by the abolition of the Protestant Church tithes, but this they owed rather to their own physical resistance than to any agitation. Everything else having failed, they rose on the tithe proctors and bailiffs, prevented sales under the distraints, and in some cases killed them. Of this movement O'Connell was not the originator or master. Parnell, on the other hand, has relieved nearly all the farmers on the island of 20 per cent. of their rent. He has given fixity of tenure to all who were not already secured by lease, and he has obtained a free gift of one year's rent to all who were three years in arrears. He has now, by dint of obstruction, obtained a vote of $250,000 in aid of his scheme of migration as a substitute for emigration, that is, the plan of removing tenants from the barren mountains of the west coast to the naturally rich but undrained and unreclaimed lands of the interior. The sum is not large, but if the experiment succeeds the concession may turn out very important. In any case it will be to the Irish voters one proof more of Parnell's power, and will help him at the elections. He has been running one of his own men for Sligo, and has elected him, for his appearance on the scene prevented any contest on the part of the Liberals, who seem thoroughly cowed by the defeat in Monaghan.

The defeat in the House of Lords of the bill prohibiting pigeon-shooting will probably deepen the dislike with which the Radicals now regard that branch of the Government, and hasten a change of some kind in its constitution. Pigeon-shooting is one of the most recent and most cruel of the sports invented by the idle class to while away the time during the season in London, when country sport is not to be had. The pigeons are confined in a trap, from which they are forced out, to be fired at from a distance of thirty yards or so. Matches are so numerous, and the slaughter at them so great, that the supply of pigeons for them has become a great industry. Of course, large numbers of the birds are not killed outright, and fly away wounded, to die miserably. A gentleman who had lately taken a house close by a pigeon-shooting ground near London was sustained by the courts in an attempt to prevent its use, owing to the annoyance and pain caused by the flight of the wounded pigeons into his grounds and windows. The Princess of Wales has been the first to make a stand against the practice, and it is her influence, it is said, which led to the introduction of the bill into the House of Commons. As the Lords themselves are among the chief pigeon-shooters, they are again, as in most cases where they make a stand against the Commons, holding out for their own privileges and interests.

The French have what we suppose may be called a "Mongolian" question of their own. Their failure or refusal to increase their population, while maintaining a large standing army, has produced a great scarcity of labor, in the country districts an alarming scarcity, which large bodies of French, German, and Italian laborers are rushing in to meet. These the French workmen have now begun to look on as a "Mongolian horde," who by their cheap living and disgusting assiduity take the bread out of the mouths of the natives. Accordingly, it is proposed to clap a tax on them, which would either bring in, some say $2,500,000, and others $6,000,000 to the Treasury, or else keep them out. But the *Temps* points out that Frenchmen cannot play the part of the dog in the manger. They must either fill up France themselves or let others do it. These foreigners would not come if there was not room for them; could not get work if there were Frenchmen to do it. So that France must either increase the size of her families or receive immigrants. It further says that the best thing to do is not to tax the immigrants, but to welcome them and get them to settle in the country and become Frenchmen. There can be no objection to this on the score of race, it adds, because the French are the most mixed race in Europe; in other words, there is no French race, but simply a delightful and glorious moral entity called France.

The discharge of the Jews accused in Hungary of the "ritual murder" of a Christian girl, after their acquittal seems to have been a pathetic scene. They were received by their wives and children in the presence of an immense crowd at the prison gate; but one of the women, the stepmother of the boy who testified for the prosecution, had become quite gray at the age of twenty-eight. The boy refuses to go back to his parents, as well he may, after having tried to send his father to the scaffold, and remains in custody of the Government, which must be much puzzled about the best plan of reforming him. There could hardly be a better illustration of the ferocity of the race hatred with which the Jews have to contend than the fact that, in spite of the utter breakdown of the case, and of its extraordinary malignity and wickedness, the mob attacked the counsel for the defence in the street, and, when he escaped, tried to wreck his house.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, August 15, to TUESDAY, August 21, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

WEDNESDAY in Wall Street was characterized by a partial return of confidence and an advance in the prices of stocks all along the line, with the exception of Western Union, which remained weak. About 1 o'clock, however, the failure was announced of the firm of E. C. Stedman & Co., and prices fell considerably. The head of the firm is the well-known poet and critic. It soon became known that Mr. Stedman's personal judgment had not led him into difficulties, but that his son, who was his partner, had speculated with valuable securities belonging to the firm without his father's knowledge, and that these had been swept away in the general decline. Thursday's market was feverish and active. There were no large transactions on Friday, but prices were sustained. The situation was not materially changed during the rest of the week.

At noon on Wednesday a committee of five strikers, formerly employed by the Western Union Company, had an interview with General Eckert to inquire on what terms the operators would be taken back. The committee was treated with brusqueness, and the men were advised to apply individually to their respective superintendents for terms and work. The committee did not officially represent the Brotherhood. Nevertheless, the Executive Committee of the Brotherhood, offended at the treatment received, immediately sent a note to General Eckert, acting President, declaring their intention to ignore his advice and carry on the fight with renewed vigor. The wires leading from this city were interfered with on Wednesday night, but the company were not seriously inconvenienced. On Thursday the strikers began openly to admit that they were defeated, and there was a general failing of confidence. Several first-class operators applied for work and were taken back. There were reports from many places on Friday of strikers returning to work. Late that afternoon a message was sent from the Executive Committee of the Brotherhood in this city to all assemblies in the United States and Canada. It was briefly as follows: "The Executive Board of the Brotherhood regret to say that the strike is a failure. All members who can may return to work immediately. A circular follows by mail." A stampede to the various offices followed among the nearly 5,000 operators who had remained on strike. In Chicago the operators were amazed at the announcement of the end, and they resolved to remain out several days longer. Dissatisfaction at the action of the Committee was expressed in several other cities. The Western Union superintendents in many places received the men coldly and refused work to many first-class operators, asserting that their places had been filled. About one hundred male and twenty female operators were received back at the Western Union office in this city up to noon on Monday. It is expected, however, that the company will find work for nearly all the strikers in the course of several weeks. The strike lasted for twenty-nine days.

Mr. Mackey, one of the "bonanza kings," was elected a director of the Postal Telegraph Company on Wednesday, having secured a large interest in its stock. A syndicate, of which he is a member, intend to push the interests of the company and extend its wires.

The final session of the Convention of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers was held in Philadelphia on Thursday. William Weihe, of Pittsburgh, Pa., was elected President to succeed Mr. Jarrett, who declined a reelection. The latter gentleman was given several handsome presents by the association as marks of esteem. The next annual Convention will be held in Pittsburgh.

The United States Senate Sub-Committee on Labor and Education has been hearing testimony in this city during the week on various topics coming within their scope. Several labor unions have been represented before them.

It is found upon investigation that a clause in the postal agreement between Canada and the United States provides that the local rate of postage must govern. The authorities at the United States Post-office Department decide, therefore, that a two-cent stamp will carry a letter to Canada from the United States after October 1, but that three cents will be required on a letter from Canada.

Proctor Knott's majority for Governor in Kentucky will be about 49,000, nearly 2,000 larger than the majority two years ago. It is thought now that the call for a State Constitutional Convention is defeated.

The Virginia Republican Straightout Convenion met in Richmond on Wednesday. A platform was adopted favoring a strict adherence to Republican principles and a protective tariff, and endorsing James G. Blaine for the Presidency. In the platform the action of the Administration in aiding General Mahone in the repudiation of one-third of the State debt is condemned. It declares that the power thus given to Mahone has been used for the persecution of life-long Republicans. The platform opposes mixed schools, and favors civil-service reform, the honest enforcement of the recent acts of Congress, a free ballot, and an honest count. It declares that the Republican party never advocated the imposition of a capitation tax, and that the Republican party of Virginia placed in the State Constitution the clauses commanding the establishment of public free schools.

A. Beimann was nominated by the Minnesota Democratic Central Committee on Friday for Governor, in place of W. W. McNair, who declined. Mr. Beimann accepts the nomination.

The Republican State Committee of New York met in this city on Wednesday, and decided that the State Convention should be held at Richfield Springs on September 19. The general sentiment of the meeting was for harmony within the ranks of the party.

Returns to the New York Railroad Commissioners show that during the six months ending August 1, 160 persons were killed and 401 injured on the railroads of this State.

A fresh discussion of the Union College troubles has been caused by the publication of a letter from Mr. Howard Potter, making charges against the Rev. Dr. J. T. Backus and Platt Potter, in regard to their actions as former trustees of the College. A son of Dr. Backus has written a reply.

The annual session of the American Library Association was held at Buffalo, beginning on Tuesday, August 14, and ending on Friday, August 17. Mr. Justin Winsor presided. Many interesting papers were read.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science has been in session at Minneapolis, Minn., during the week.

James W. Bell, proprietor of a restaurant on Pennsylvania Avenue, Washington, was convicted on Saturday of misdemeanor for having refused to serve a colored man, George H. Smith, of Norwich, Conn., in his restaurant.

The Second National Bank of Warren, O., closed its doors on Friday afternoon, the cashier, Mr. K. M. Fitch, confessing that he had lost about $80,000 through stock speculation. The bank inspector says that all depositors will be paid in full, and the stockholders will receive about 40 per cent. Mr. Fitch disappeared, but gave himself up to the authorities in Boston on Tuesday.

Five of the car shops of the United States Rolling Stock Company, of Chicago, were burned on Wednesday night, with a loss of about $500,000.

Great excitement was caused in the Grand Union Hotel at Saratoga on Wednesday by a slight fire in one of the stores under it. The damage only amounted to about $500.

There is a great drought in the neighborhood of Galveston, Texas, and a water famine is impending. The cotton crop has been seriously injured.

Yellow fever has appeared at the Navy-yard, Pensacola, Fla., and a cordon has been established around it to protect the city.

Hanlan, the Canadian oarsman, was an easy winner in a professional single scull race at Watkins, N. Y., on Wednesday. Among the competitors was Courtney, who failed to get a place in the preliminary heat which would entitle him to row in the final contest. One of his excuses was that on the previous night he had been hit on the head with a sand-bag. This is probably entitled to the same credence as his famous excuses in other races. On Monday Hanlan was defeated by Teemer in a regatta at Fall River, Mass., on account of his boat being swamped.

Judge Jere. S. Black died at his home in York, Pa., on Sunday morning, at the age of seventy-three. He was a famous lawyer and judge in Pennsylvania early in his career. In 1851 he was elected one of the Supreme Court Judges of that State, and was reëlected in 1854. In March, 1857, he entered President Buchanan's Cabinet as Attorney-General. The President and he did not wholly agree on the question of coercing the States in case of secession. Nevertheless, he remained in the Cabinet, and when Lewis Cass withdrew, Mr. Black succeeded him as Secretary of State. It is claimed for Judge Black that his influence prevented the Administration from being wholly given over to the South. It is certain that he was a staunch friend of the Union throughout the war. Since his retirement from office he has added to his reputation as a lawyer and disputant, and was the author of many articles in the reviews.

The Rev. William M. Baker, of South Boston, died on Monday at the age of fifty-eight. He was the author of 'The New Timothy,' 'His Majesty Myself,' and other novels.

Prof. S. J. Wilson, President of the Western Theological Seminary at Pittsburgh, Pa., and one of the ablest theologians in the Presbyterian Church, died on Friday.

FOREIGN.

There has been considerable activity in Tonquin during the week on the part of the French. It was announced from Namdinh on Friday that Colonel Badens made a sortie on August 6, supported by a gunboat. He proceeded northward, and outflanked and drove off the enemy. On August 7, with 1,200 men, he made a movement to the south and attacked the earthworks of the Anamites. The enemy abandoned their works in confusion. The loss of the French was two killed and six wounded. The enemy's loss was heavy. It is affirmed in Paris that the bombardment of Hué by the French was begun on Saturday. This has since been denied. Admiral Peyron, Minister of Marine and of the Colonies, has ordered six gunboats to be constructed for Tonquin. It is asserted that France has informed the Powers that any ships attempting to land arms in Anam will be liable to seizure. This is believed to be a warning specially levelled at large exports of arms from American ports. The French fleet has sailed from Haiphong to reconnoitre the Cochin China coast. M. Harmand, the French Civil Commissioner in Tonquin, who is on board the French Admiral's ship, will be the bearer of an ultimatum to Anam, and if the ultimatum is rejected a blockade will be proclaimed against Anam by the French. It was reported from Hong Kong on Tuesday that Haidung, in Tonquin, was attacked by the French on August 19. The result of the attack is not yet known.

Statements have been made by the Chinese Legation in Berlin that place beyond doubt the fact that China will go to war rather than relinquish her suzerainty over Anam.

Rear Admiral Galiber, the successor of Admiral Pierre in the command of the French fleet in Madagascan waters, will meet Admiral Pierre at Reunion. He will afterward go to Tamatave and open negotiations with the Hovas. He will insist upon a French protectorate over Northwest Madagascar, the abolition of the law relating to tenure of land by Europeans, and the payment to the French of 1,000,000 francs indemnity. The latter demand may be waived, however, if the others are complied with.

It was asserted in London on Monday that Mr. Shaw, the British missionary in Madagascar, who was imprisoned by the French there on a charge of concealing two Hova spies, has been released.

In the House of Commons on Monday night Mr. Gladstone, replying to a question by Sir Stafford Northcote relative to the case of Mr. Shaw, said that Mr. Shaw had been accused of having relations with the Hovas and of direct acts of hostility to the French. Mr. Gladstone said that Mr. Shaw was confined on board a French man-of-war, and would be tried by court-martial, having full facilities for defence and the right of appeal. On Tuesday afternoon another warm discussion of the subject took place. Mr. Gladstone declared that he had no reason to believe that France had exceeded her jurisdiction.

The French trade-returns for the first seven months of 1883 show that the value of the imports increased 58,000,000 francs as compared with that of the same period last year, and that the exports decreased 50,000,000 francs. The increase in the value of the imports was due to the demand for foreign raw material. The decrease in exports was in manufactured goods.

The Government of France and the authorities at the Vatican have decided to issue a joint statement, with the object of removing the misunderstanding which is likely to arise in consequence of the non-publication of the letters which have recently passed between President Grévy and the Pope.

At a dinner held recently in Paris, at which 1,200 persons were present, speeches were made in favor of Prince Victor, son of Prince Jerome Napoleon, as chief of the Bonapartists.

Quiet was gradually restored in Spain during the week, though there were frequent disturbing rumors. It was asserted by Madrid newspapers on Thursday that French speculators had raised $150,000 for the purpose of corrupting the Spanish Army. Notwithstanding advices from the military authorities, Prime Minister Sagasta determined to restore the constitutional guarantees before the King should start on his visit to Germany, September 20. King Alfonso has started on a short trip through Spain. At Valencia, Barcelona, and other places he has been received with enthusiasm. The various bodies of gendarmerie engaged in quelling the revolt have returned to their former stations. The Cabinet had a meeting on Sunday, at which was discussed the attitude of France toward Spain, and it was resolved to make overtures to Germany for support.

A meeting of 400 Irish National League delegates was held in Limerick on Wednesday. A resolution was passed declaring that judicial rents are rack rents, and that the meeting was convinced that a couple of successive bad harvests must lead to a general strike against judicial rents. A priest presided over the meeting. In the House of Commons on Thursday evening Mr. Parnell declared that unless the deficiencies of the Land Act were speedily remedied he would lead a deeper and more desperate agitation than any that had yet been witnessed. Mr. John Redmond, the representative of the Irish National League in Australia, in a letter to the Treasurer of that organization, denies that his mission in that country has been a failure. He says he expects to be able to continue to send £1,000 every two weeks to Ireland. A debate on the Government's estimates was continued in the House of Commons from Thursday afternoon until 6 o'clock on Friday morning. The Irish members were active in pointing out their grievances, and the debate was very personal.

During the session of the House of Commons on Saturday Mr. Gladstone took occasion to rebuke what he termed the "habitual violence" of the language used by Mr. Healy (Home Ruler), Member for County Monaghan. He said that Mr. Healy's utterances deserved the severest reprobation, as they were calculated to stimulate national hatred, which it had been his (Mr. Gladstone's) desire to mitigate, and, if possible, extinguish. Mr. Healy made a defiant response. Ireland, he said, wanted justice, not appeals to fine sentiment. The Dublin *Freeman's Journal* disapproves of the violent language. The House of Commons continued in session until 2:20 o'clock Sunday morning. The Supply Bill was finished, and the Irish Tramways Bill passed its third reading. The Government assured Mr. Parnell and his followers that only £50,000 would be devoted to internal migration. It is probable that an Irish bishop will go to America to raise money to supplement this amount.

The Agricultural Holdings Bill passed its third reading in the House of Lords on Thursday night. Amendments adopted by the House of Lords limiting the scope of the measure will probably be rejected by the House of Commons. The House adopted the clause in the Irish Tramways Bill devoting £50,000 to the experiment of migration in Ireland, and it passed through committee on Friday night. The House of Lords has rejected the bill against pigeon shooting by a vote of 30 to 17.

The Irish Registration Bill was rejected in the House of Lords on Tuesday afternoon by a vote of 52 nays to 32 yeas.

An election in County Sligo, Ireland, on Saturday, to fill the seat in the House of Commons made vacant by the death of Mr. Denis Maurice O'Conor, Home Ruler, resulted in the return of Mr. Nicholls Lynch, the Home Rule candidate, who received 1,596 votes, against 1,020 for Mr. Kane O'Hara, the Conservative candidate.

James McDermott, who was arrested in Liverpool recently on his arrival from America in the steamer *City of Montreal*, on suspicion of complicity in the dynamite conspiracy, has been further remanded. The prosecution will show that McDermott had been in Cork in company with Featherstone, the convicted dynamite conspirator.

Eight thousand weavers in the Ashton-under Lyne district of England struck work on Friday, owing to a refusal of the masters to increase their wages. Twenty thousand persons are idle on account of the strike.

There was serious rioting in Coatbridge, Scotland, on Saturday and Monday between Orangemen and Catholics. Officers and mounted police charged the mob on Monday, and arrested twenty of the rioters. More trouble was expected on Tuesday, but the police prevented an outbreak.

William Wirt Sikes, United States Consul at Cardiff, Wales, died at that place last Saturday. Mr. Sikes was a frequent contributor to *Harper's Magazine*. His widow is Olive Logan.

The Shapira manuscript of Deuteronomy, which has caused such lively controversy in English literary circles, is pronounced by Doctor Neubauer and Professor Sayce a forgery, without any claims to antiquity.

A British Jew representing a business firm of London was expelled from St. Petersburg on Wednesday by order of the authorities, although provided with the proper British passports. It was announced in the House of Commons on Friday that the British Government had asked Russia for an explanation.

Arrests of students have occurred daily in Russia recently. Much dissatisfaction has been discovered at the Cadet School in the South. As regards the attitude of the students in the civil schools, the Minister of Education has addressed a circular to all of his subordinates. There have been serious disorders in fourteen gymnasia. Twenty-two students from the University of St. Petersburg were sent to Siberia for being connected with a Nihilist journal.

The Mayor of Moscow has tendered his resignation, having incurred displeasure by a speech which he delivered at the time of the coronation of the Czar.

It is announced in St. Petersburg that Count Tolstoi will soon resign the office of Russian Minister of the Interior, and that he will be succeeded by M.W. Kakhanoff, now a member of the Council of the Empire.

A new Socialist newspaper of rather moderate tone, called the *New Era*, made its appearance in St. Petersburg on Thursday. It asserted that the present inactivity of the Nihilists is not the result of weakness.

A number of Socialistic pamphlets, which attack the Emperor Francis Joseph in a virulent manner, have been found in the neighborhood of the imperial summer palace at Laxenburg, nine miles from Vienna.

A mob paraded the streets of Trieste, Austria, on Friday evening, crying: "Away with Italians and foreigners." An Italian gymnasium was attacked.

Bernhard Freiherr von Wüllerstorf-Urbair, the Austrian scientist, died on Friday. He was born January 29, 1816, at Trieste, and entered the Austrian Navy as midshipman in 1833. In 1839 he was made Director of the Austrian Naval Observatory and Professor in the Naval Academy at Venice, of which he became Director in 1848. He was Minister of Commerce from the autumn of 1865 till the spring of 1867, in which year he became Vice-Admiral and a Liberal member of the House of Lords.

The Vienna Electrical Exhibition was opened by the Austrian Crown Prince Rudolph on Thursday, with great ceremony.

The Public Prosecutor of Brussels has appealed against the verdict of not guilty in the case of Canon Bernard.

The Italian Envoy at Tangier, Morocco, on Wednesday lowered the flag on the Consulate, and the inhabitants were in consequence in a state of great panic. This hostile act on the part of the Envoy was on account of the Sultan of Morocco not having yielded to the ultimatum of Italy, insisting upon full payment of the claims of Italian subjects. The panic subsided when the flag was again hoisted on Thursday. An Italian squadron was in position to bombard the town if necessary. It was on Friday reported in Rome that Morocco had agreed to settle all claims.

It was announced on Wednesday that the river Nile was falling, and there was no longer any fears of a flood in Egypt.

The cholera epidemic throughout Egypt has been diminishing during the week, although the death-rate in Alexandria increased.

A German business colony has been established at Angra Pequeña, on the western coast of South Africa, on a purchase of 350 square miles. The German Government has permitted the hoisting of the national flag over it.

There was a two-days' battle reported on Wednesday between the followers of Cetewayo and those of Usibepu, in South Africa, with great slaughter on both sides. Usibepu is said to have been defeated and to have fled. Cetewayo has recovered from the wounds received in the late engagement between his forces and the insurgents, and has requested Queen Victoria to have full inquiry made into the treatment he has received.

WHY THE STRIKE FAILED.

THE real and full explanation of the failure of the telegraphic strike has been made plain enough. The strike was based at the start on two expectations. One was, that it would cause so much public inconvenience that the Company would be coerced into surrender either by legal process or by popular indignation. The other was, that the pressure of business would overwhelm the small force of operators which stuck by the Company or came to its relief. Both of these were disappointed. There was no legal mode of coercing the Company, and the public, instead of getting furious over the delays, cut down its telegraphing.

After this there remained nothing but the popular dislike of a corporation owned and managed in large part by Jay Gould. This would have been more effective if it had not been perceived by business men, very early in the day, that the theories of laborers' rights produced against the monopolists could not, if successful, be confined in their application to monopolists. The notion that a laborer ought to have high wages because his employer is vicious and unpopular, or because his profits are larger than his neighbors think such a man deserves, could not, of course, if established, be long confined to the Jay Goulds and Russell Sages. All employers of labor would speedily have to succumb to it, and it would soon make an end of successful industry. Any stick is, of course, good enough to beat a dog with, but every one who lends a stick for that purpose likes to know whose dog is going to catch it. The defects of this theory might have been supplied by popular sympathy with the strikers as an oppressed class. Of this there was a good deal at the beginning, and some people were carried off their feet by it. But it rapidly subsided when it was discovered that the strikers were, as one of their spokesmen described them before the Senate Committee, "mostly young unmarried men living in comfortable boarding-houses." The woes of young unmarried men who persist in sticking to a sedentary occupation in which they say they are insufficiently paid, do not touch the American imagination very long.

The remedy for young single American males whose business does not pay them enough to live in the way they like, has long been familiar to the public in the concise prescription of the late Horace Greeley. Popular sympathy for the underpaid is reserved for men with families, in callings laboriously acquired through long training, and which cannot be readily changed. Telegraphing does not belong to this class. It can be acquired in a high degree of perfection by a smart boy in three months, and the single man who thinks it inadequately remunerated, and yet stays in it, with strong crying and tears, suggests inevitably, by so doing, the suspicion that he is wanting in energy and pluck, and is probably paid as much as he is worth. The truth is that the business of telegraphing properly belongs to women, and any sympathy the public has to spare in the matter is due to the women whom these young fellows keep out of it, or to the women now in it whose wages their competition keeps down. In England the women in the Government service are rapidly taking hold of the telegraph offices. For all but the great offices, where the pressure of long despatches is severe, they are amply qualified for the work. For all the smaller offices, where assiduity, zeal, and conscientiousness, without supervision, are required, they are much superior to men.

The public interest in the strike during the last few days was rapidly extinguished by the appearance of the leaders before the Senate Committee. If these gentlemen had had an earlier opportunity to talk, it would have been extinguished sooner. Many who took up the strikers' cause in the beginning were probably startled to learn that the wrongs of the operators could not be righted without a thorough reorganization of modern society, and the assumption by the Government of the direction of all branches of industry. Nobody who owns anything is quite prepared for a change of this sort just now, in the present condition of the stock market. But every one will do well to remember that the leaders and spokesmen of most of the strikes, in our day, of the less skilled laborers are fluent men, to whom the strike is interesting mainly as a step toward some form of communism, and that the strikers' idle hours are apt to be filled with instruction touching the iniquity of having any accumulated savings. It is only the more highly skilled trades which strike on business principles and for business purposes, and do not bother themselves with plans for the regeneration of human society.

THE LATEST FRENCH REFORM.

THE French have just taken the most daring step in the way of judicial reform taken by any civilized people since the Revolution of 1789—much more serious than the conversion in this country of the permanent appointed judges into judges elected for short terms. They have suspended the fixity of tenure of their entire bench for three months, and have armed the Ministry with power to put about 600 of the judges on the retired list. The chief object, or rather the nominal object, of the measure is to reduce the total number of judges and abolish all courts of the lower grades having less than 150 causes in the year. But it is not necessarily the judges of those courts who will have to go into retirement. The Minister of Justice is authorized to pick out the total number to be displaced from all the courts, and it is avowed that he will use his power first and foremost to get rid of judges who are known to be hostile to the Republic. The bill covers, too, what is known in France as the "parquet," or that portion of the bar which serves the Government as public prosecutors. Public prosecutors, or district attorneys, are called "magistrates" in common with the judges on the bench, who are distinguished from them as the "sitting magistrates." The distinction is not really as great as it seems to us, because with us the judge is supposed in criminal cases to be perfectly neutral, and to be occupied simply with holding the scales of justice evenly between two contending parties. In France, on the other hand, he performs many of the functions of a prosecutor. It is part of his duty to help to get a conviction. He conducts a long and always hostile examination of the prisoner, in the course of which he browbeats him, tries to confuse him, and makes savage comments on his life and character. He is consequently only a little way removed from the parquet in position and duties, or in feelings and prejudices.

There are 2,500 judges or magistrates, small and great, in France, and of these a considerable number owe their original appointment to the Empire, and still retain their sympathy with it, or, at all events, with monarchy of some sort. A good many more came into office during the seven years between the war and the overthrow of MacMahon, when hostility to the Republicans was the dominating motive of the party in power, whether Legitimists or Bonapartists. Moreover, French judges, like all judges, are long-lived men. Few die, and none resign, so that the Republicans have got tired of waiting for a chance to "purify the bench," as they call it, through the natural filling of vacancies. What has done most to make the process of waiting intolerable, however, is the indiscretions of the judges themselves. Large numbers of them made themselves highly obnoxious by their zeal in the prosecutions set on foot against Republican writers and politicians under the MacMahon régime, and have thus remained marked men. A great many more have revealed their contempt for the Republic by chance remarks on the bench, or by outbursts of monarchical fervor, or by refusing to take part in Republican fêtes or demonstrations, or by uncivil treatment of Republican members of the bar who happened to be active in politics. The French bench, too, of all grades, like all the upper grades of officials until now, has been in a certain sense an aristocratic body—that is, it has been taken on the whole from the upper section of the bourgeoisie—not the well-born class, exactly, from the Legitimist point of view, but the well-dressed, polished class, which knows how to behave in society, and order and eat its dinner correctly—the class which in our politics is known as "the white-cravat and daily-bath men." Perhaps nothing has done so much to disgust this class with the Republic as the appearance in high office of the "nouvelle couche sociale" of which Gambetta talked—that is, of the plain men of humble origin, like Gambetta himself, whose boots do not fit, and who do not wear gloves, and who would be out of place in a salon. Their appearance in the diplomatic service was a dreadful mortification to the young secretaries and attachés of legation of the old régime all over Europe, who accordingly resigned a few years ago in great numbers. There is to-day a tale of horror among them, about one foreign Minister who keeps his old mother, a plain, unpresentable peasant sort of woman, on the top floor of the Embassy. In fact, "society" has in France gone out of politics almost as completely as here. And the bench, which belongs to society in Paris, and forms the best part of it in the provinces, feels the change keenly, and does not conceal it.

The Republican patience has accordingly been exhausted, and the process of "épura-

tion," as they call it, is going to begin; or, as we should say, the axe is about to fall, and 600 judicial heads will soon be in the basket, selected as the Minister of Justice pleases. He says he will be impartial, and will be guided by the reports of the presidents of the various tribunals, and that his main object will be to get the bench completely and finally out of politics. Of course, however, the Monarchists do not believe him. To them the measure is one of political proscription pure and simple. The dismissed judges are not, to be sure, to be cast on the world—they are to be pensioned for the rest of their lives; but it cannot be denied that it is as extraordinary and dangerous a power as ever was lodged in the hands of one man. Final judgment, however, can hardly be passed on it as yet. If the Republic lasts, and remains as moderate and conservative as it is now, the mischief of the scheme will rapidly disappear. But if the monarchy should be restored, or the Clémenceau Radicals should ever get into office, it would furnish a precedent which would probably be used to destroy the last traces of judicial independence in France.

SUMMER REST.

THE question has occurred to a good many, and has been more than once publicly asked, When do the people who frequent "Summer Schools" of philosophy, theology, and the like, which are now showing themselves at some of the watering-places, get their rest or vacation? At these schools both the lecturers or "paper"-readers and the audience are engaged in the same or nearly the same work as during the rest of the year, and therefore in summer get no rest. We have been asked, for instance, whether a clergyman or professor who has a period of leisure allotted to him in summer, in order that he may "recruit," as it is called, is not guilty of some sort of abuse of confidence if, instead of amusing himself or lying fallow, he goes to a Summer School, and passes several weeks in discussions which, to be profitable either to himself or his hearers, must put some degree of strain on his faculties.

The answer undoubtedly is, that nobody goes to a Summer School who could get refreshment through sheer idleness. One of the greatest mistakes of the Middle Ages, and one which has come down to our own time in education, in theology, and in medicine, was that all men's needs, both spiritual, mental, and physical, are the same; and it long made the world a dreadful place for the exceptional or peculiar. In most things we have given up the theory. It was soonest given up as regards food, because the evidence against it was there plainest and most overwhelming, in the severe suffering inflicted on some people by things "disagreeing with them," as it is called, which others relished and profited by. It has only been surrendered with regard to children and youths, however, after a hard struggle. The idea of a young person being entitled to special treatment of any kind—that is, having in any respect a marked individuality—remains to this day odious to a great many of our theologians and teachers. It is, however, rapidly making its way, and has already obtained a secure footing in some of the colleges. It is the hotels, perhaps, which are now the strongholds of the old doctrine, and in which a person who does not want what everybody else wants is considered most odious; partly, of course, because he gives extra trouble, but mainly because he is considered to be given up to a delusion about himself and his constitution. There is probably nothing which excites the anger and contempt of a summer-hotel clerk more than a request for something which is not supplied to everybody or which nobody else asks for. We remember once irritating a White Mountain hotel-keeper extremely by asking to be allowed to ride up Mount Washington alone, instead of in a party of forty. He not only refused our request, but he punished us for making it by selecting for our use the worst pony in his stable, and watched us mounting it with a diabolical sneer.

There is, however, still a good deal of intolerance about people's mode of spending their vacation. Those who take it by simply sitting still or lounging with no particular occupation, are more or less worried by the people who take their rest actively and with much movement and bustle. So also the young man who goes off fishing and hunting, on the other hand, scorns the young man who hangs about the hotels and plays lawn-tennis, or goes to picnics with the girls — a rapidly diminishing class, let us add. A correspondent, who takes a low view of sermons, wrote to us the other day complaining of some mention which recently appeared in our columns of Mount Desert as a good place for "tired clergymen," and wished to know what there was to tire them, seeing that they did nothing but produce two essays a week, which need not be very original. The truth is, however, that everybody's occupation, including that of the young man who does nothing at all, does a great deal to tire him. What probably tires a minister most is not the sermons, but his parishioners; and we suspect that nine-tenths of the ministers, if they made a clean breast of it, would confess that rest to them meant getting away from their parishioners, and not in getting away from the sermons. Sermon-writing in our day, when the area over which a preacher may select his subject is so greatly widened, is probably to a reflective man a great help and relief, as furnishing what nearly every student needs to stimulate study—a means of expression. Sustained solitary thinking is something of which very few men are capable. To keep up what is called active-mindedness nearly every one needs somebody to talk to. Conversation with a friend is enough for most, but those who have more to say find a sermon or a magazine article just the kind of intellectual stimulus they need. What probably most wears on a clergyman's nerves are his pastoral duties, which do not consist simply in consoling people in great trials, but in listening to their fussy accounts of small ones. Nine-tenths of a minister's patients, like a doctor's, do not know what is the matter with them, and consult a physician largely because they take comfort in talking to anybody about themselves, and doctors and clergymen are the only persons who are bound to listen to them. A professor or teacher is somewhat similarly situated. His business is the most wearing of human occupations—that of putting knowledge into heads only half willing to receive it, and persuading a large number of people to do their duty to whom duty is odious.

To these men, a Summer School of philosophy or theology or anything else must be repose of the best sort. It gives light work of the kind they love, free from all nagging, and in good air and fine scenery. At such schools, too, one finds uses for "papers" that no periodical will print, and which no audience would assemble to listen to in a city in the busy part of the year, and to many men an audience of any sort, interested or uninterested, is a great luxury.

The persons who perhaps find it hardest to get rest in summer are brokers. Their activity in their business and the excitement attending it are so great that quiet to them, more than to most other men, is a hell; so that their vacation is a problem not easy of solution, except to the rich ones, who have yachts and horses without limit. Even to these, every day of a vacation has to be full of movement and change. An hour not filled by some sort of activity, spent on a piazza or under a tree, is to them an hour wasted. A land where it was always afternoon would be to them the most "odious section of country" on earth. The story of one of them, who in Rome lost flesh through pining for "the corner of Wall and William," is well known. Such a man finds nearly all summer resorts vanity and vexation of spirit, because none of them provides excitement. The class known as financiers, such as presidents of banks and insurance companies, is much better off, because it has Saratoga. Its members have generally reached the time of life when men love to sit still, and when the liver is torpid, and they are generally men of means, and wear black broadcloth at all seasons, as being what they have from their youth considered the outward and visible signs of "respectability" in the financial sense. What they need is a place where they can have their livers roused without exercise, and this the mineral water does for them; where they can see a good deal going on and many evidences of wealth without moving from their chairs, and this the Saratoga piazzas supply, and where their financial standing will follow them, and for this there is perhaps no place in the country like Saratoga. Newport has not nearly as much solidity. It is brighter and gayer and more select; but though it contains enormous fortunes, a great fortune does not here do so much for a man. It has to bear the competition of youth and beauty and polo and lawn-tennis. The young man with little besides a polo pony, an imported racquet, and good looks counts for a good deal at Newport; at Saratoga he would be nobody.

THE LIBRARIANS IN CONVENTION.

THE American Library Association continues to be young; its period of interest and enthusiasm is not over. This may proceed in part from its varying membership, but it is worthy of note

that those who take the chief part in its debates are for the most part its earliest members. The same questions, too, are discussed each year, but there is a change in the relative prominence given to them. Fiction, for instance, no longer rouses every ear to listen. A general consensus seems to have been reached that the best fiction is literature to be studied, that the worst is poison to be shunned, and that between these limits there is a vast amount, of varying merit, which is to be furnished in greater or less quantities, according to the demand of the public, the degree of independence of the purchasing board, and their views of their duty to the readers. The technical questions of cataloguing and classification, when they are touched upon, receive as close attention as ever; but more time is given to matters that can be better appreciated by the general public—to the architectural and educational side of librarianship. At Buffalo, last week, the Library of Congress was considered, as usual, and the Washington scheme (as it may be called) of making it a vast show-building was defended in a letter from the Librarian. The Association would like to see the national library housed in Washington in a building which should be a worthy representative of the three thousand libraries of the country. They have no objection to its being a monument to the glory of the architect and a symbol of the wealth of the nation; indeed, it is manifestly to their advantage that the importance of libraries to the country should be materially represented in the capital. They have no objection to seeing it associated with an art gallery, or with any other reasonably appropriate show-rooms; but they desire that it should be first and foremost a library, a place expressly made for the safe keeping and convenient use of books, a place where the library idea shall receive its best expression. If they can have this, they care not whether ten or fifteen millions are spent in ornament; but they do not wish the books to be subordinated to or made a part of the architecture, for they know by wretched experience what that always leads to. For the success of a building as a library it is absolutely necessary that the purpose of making a *library* be prominently and persistently put forward as the first, almost as the only, object: the plans must be made for that end only, and, when they are complete, the architect may be permitted to design a handsome case for the machine. No other course ever prevents the books and readers being sacrificed to the stone and the gazers. This appreciation of the true object of a library may have existed in the various committees or commissions who have had the plans in consideration, but there has never been the slightest indication of it. Moreover, in the judgment of many persons, even in an architectural regard there is little to applaud in the designs hitherto exhibited; so that the petition of the Association, "that Congress provide suitable buildings for the library of the nation," does not excite in its members any lively hopes of a pleasing result.

A new building plan for large libraries was suggested on the present occasion. We have already three leading forms, any one of which is good when taken at its best, and carefully guarded against its special defects: first, the cathedral form, in which the reading-room is a central nave, surrounded by alcoves and galleries; second, the separate reading room fed by a stack of shelves, which are divided by narrow passages and lighted from the top and sides; and third, the plan advocated by Mr. Poole two years ago in Washington, in which a number of separate rooms contain each the books of a single class, with the tables at which they can be studied, each being in fact a reading-room, with a small stack in it. The new plan, presented incidentally in a paper by Mr. Cutter on "The Buffalo Public Library of 1983," is for a vast central stack, surrounded by a rim of reading-rooms, work-rooms, and special libraries. As it is lighted entirely by electricity, and is independent of the sun, it can be used as well by day as by night, and its extent is limited only by the number of books which are to be placed in it. The stack is the most compact method of storing books, and this is the most compact of stacks, for it needs no light-wells. It is also the coolest, because it is heated by no glass roof. Nor are the lights expensive, since they burn only so long as some one is using them, whether to get or to look at books, being lighted on entering, and extinguished on leaving, each passage. The reason for desiring compact storage is that it is necessary to quick service, and no doubt the greater cost of artificial light would be in a degree made up by the saving in the time of attendants. The saving in time of the public would justify almost any expense, for nothing is more exasperating and more complained of in great libraries than having to wait for books.

The interest in the educational work of libraries has entirely grown up since the American Library Association began to meet. The idea of interesting the schools in the libraries was initiated by its members, and has been made known and extended through its conventions. At Worcester, at Boston, at Chicago, and at a score of smaller places, attempts have been made, often successful, to attach the school children permanently to the library; and by interesting them in investigation and teaching them to seek books for information rather than amusement, to lead them to continue their studies after they leave school, in the hope that the next generation of adults may read something besides the novel and the newspaper. It is a matter peculiarly suited to the conventions, because it concerns the smallest as well as the larger libraries; indeed, the keeper of a few books in a town may hope to do even more than the librarian of a great collection in a populous city, because he or she comes into closer contact with the children, and can know them better. Especially in the city the teachers can effect more than the librarian if they will only try. Unfortunately, they have too much to do already. But both this year and last some teachers have been present on the day when this subject was to come up, and have shown considerable interest in the account of what had been done. Very little can be effected in a city, however, unless the superintendent of schools or the head master of some great school takes an interest, not to force the teachers, but to leaven them with enthusiasm. Probably it will be found in time that only a teacher or a library here and there does much in this spade husbandry, because it needs peculiar powers, and those who do not feel themselves capable of doing much will not attempt anything.

THE END OF THE SUEZ-CANAL INCIDENT.

LONDON, August 4

AFTER filling men's minds for about three weeks, the Suez-Canal question has now vanished from sight almost as quickly as it appeared, and with its departure the public interest in the proceedings of Parliament has begun to decline. Much will doubtless be said about the abortive agreement during the next few months on Tory platforms, for the mistakes, or at least the failures, of a Government are of course the favorite topics of Opposition oratory. What the so-called "Treaty of Kilmainham" (the communications which resulted in Mr. Parnell's release from prison in May, 1882) was to Conservative speakers last year, the Lesseps negotiations will no doubt be this autumn—a subject upon which abundant invectives against the incompetence or timidity of Mr. Gladstone's Ministry may be poured forth. But as everybody is now tired of politics, and anxious to get soon away to Scotland or the Continent, the affair is quickly dropping out of view, and the time has come when an opinion as to its effect on the position of the Government may be ventured.

That it has damaged their reputation can hardly be denied. To make a solemn proposal to Parliament, and within a fortnight confess that it has been so unfavorably received that it must be withdrawn, is a slur, if not on the administrative skill, at least on the foresight, of a Ministry which ought to have foreseen what the public would think, and have done nothing unless it could do what they were likely to sanction. There has also been a want of tact, as I observed in a previous letter, in the mode which Ministers took in launching their scheme. Yet now, when the first excitement has subsided, and people are looking more calmly at the matter, the censure passed on the Government has sensibly abated. The vehemence with which it was at first expressed provoked a reaction; and those who had at first been loudest in dissatisfaction said the less because they felt they had said somewhat too much. When the various aspects of the matter were regarded, it was perceived that the difficulties surrounding it were greater than had been recognized by the outside world. There was the claim of M. Lesseps and his company to a monopoly of water communication across the Isthmus, a claim which, whether well grounded or not, was at least arguable, and could not be hastily overridden by any honorable Government any more than a similar claim in private life could be by an honorable man. There was the fact that the only courts to decide on the validity of such a claim were the courts of Egypt, a country in our military occupation and so much at our mercy that Europe would have regarded any decision given there as practically dictated by us. There was the fact that M. de Lesseps had made the canal when nearly the whole world derided or disbelieved in him, and made it against the wishes of England, who, in the person of Lord Palmerston, threw every obstacle in his way. And lastly there was the irritable jealousy of France, whose people are already mortified at the supersession by England of the authority they claimed in Egypt, and who look on the canal as virtually a piece of their own national property. They would have resented bitterly anything that could have seemed hard treatment of M. de Lesseps; and although we have in one sense nothing to fear from France, because she cannot afford to add to her European enemies, still any serious estrangement between the two nations would be a misfortune for us as well as for them, and a menace to the peace of Europe. The sense that the hands of the Government had been tied in their negotiations by these and similar considerations told greatly on public opinion; and though it did not make people acquiesce in the provisional agreement, it disposed them to judge it more leniently.

To this there was added the fact that the Conservative leaders failed to improve the occasion, and indeed actually helped the Government out of its embarrassments. The disapproval of the provisional agreement came at first from all classes of commercial or shipping men alike, Liberals as well as Conservatives. But the Parliamentary chiefs of the Tory party could not refrain from the temptation to injure the Government politically. They denounced the agreement warmly. They argued that M. de Lesseps had no monopoly and that the Government had been grossly mistaken and grossly incautious in

admitting its existence. Sir Stafford Northcote gave notice that he would move to reject the agreement when it came before the House of Commons. And the *Times*, which has frequently shown of late that it has little love for Mr. Gladstone, came out with a vigorous attack on the Ministry as generally incompetent. A reaction at once took place. The Liberal party in the constituencies rallied to the Government, and their representatives in Parliament intimated that they had not the least wish to desert, and would be glad to see the agreement got rid of in the quietest way, since it clearly could not be carried. Thereupon Mr. Gladstone, in a speech of great dignity and tact, announced that the agreement would be dropped, M. de Lesseps having, at the instance of an envoy sent to Paris for the purpose, consented not to ask for its submission to Parliament. This was palpably a retreat to avoid disaster, but it was effected in such good order that the prestige of the Government scarcely seemed to suffer. Thereupon Sir Stafford Northcote, not wishing to let his foe escape, gave notice of a resolution repudiating the claim of the Canal Company to a monopoly of water communication "from the Red Sea to the Mediterranean." As these words would cover a canal from the Levant through Palestine and the Wadi el Araba to the Eastern arm of the Red Sea, or from Alexandria to Suez, regions to which the company have never asserted their concession to extend, Mr. Gladstone replied that the Government had no objection to such a resolution, and, while suggesting in a patronizing way that perhaps it would be better not to discuss the matter, gave Sir Stafford a day, and his resolution was duly debated and rejected by a large majority in favor of one, moved by a Liberal shipowner and accepted by the Government, which declared that it was undesirable for Parliament to express any opinion on the matter. This wind-up to the affair went far to rehabilitate the Ministry, and on the whole they have come out of it much less damaged than was at one time expected. Some people think that it would have been better to take M. de Lesseps's terms. But the general feeling is that better terms will yet be obtained; and if he is prudent, he will not only proceed to execute those improvements in the canal which he has announced, but make some other alterations in management and reduction in rates which will appease the discontent of British shipowners and prevent further trouble. It is not unlikely that negotiations for this purpose may be resumed in a few months, but improbable that a Ministry will again burn its fingers by submitting to Parliament proposals which have not previously given satisfaction to the mercantile world.

The general character of the incident, its moral, as one may say, is not wholly creditable to the English commercial class. They expressed themselves with a haste and vehemence which might rather have been expected from Frenchmen. They forgot that Egypt does not belong to us, though we are in temporary military occupation of it, and that we have no right to deal in a high handed way with those to whom the former rulers of Egypt have given valuable rights. They did not realize what the feelings of France are, nor the mischief of exasperating her. On the other hand, it must be admitted that British good sense soon reasserted itself; that the proclamation of exaggerated claims soon led to a reaction in favor of moderate courses, and that the declarations of the Government, that they considered fair dealing and a scrupulous respect for the rights of others to be the safest as well as the most honorable course, were received with general approval. If our people are unreasonable, it is not for long together. Y.

IRISH REFORMATORIES AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

DUBLIN, August 4, 1883.

A VISIT paid lately to Glencree leads me to write something regarding the reformatory and industrial schools of Ireland and the substantial benefits they have conferred upon the country. As many of my readers are aware, the county of Wicklow borders the county of Dublin some ten miles to the south of the capital, stretching thirty miles along the seacoast and extending inland in an irregular form some twenty miles. Comprised in this district is some lovely scenery —wooded glens, valleys, small lakes and tarns, mountains (none of them higher than 3,100 feet), not wooded like yours, but covered with heath, bog, and rock. The baronies bordering the sea are inhabited by a population better off and more comfortable than that of most other parts of Ireland. There are many fine demesnes and gentlemen' seats. The western portion of the country is for the most part wild and uninhabited, and there, after "'98," bands of light-footed insurgents held out for months, setting at defiance the heavily armed and lumbering bodies of troops who upheld the supremacy of the law. To prevent a recurrence of such a state of things a military road was shortly afterward constructed, chiefly by Scotch regiments, from north to south through this western district. It is still kept in tolerable repair, and there it winds and doubles over lonely mountain sides, along valleys, and over drear and apparently limitless moorlands—hour after hour one can follow it without seeing an inhabited house, or a living creature except sheep and cattle, and wild birds and hares. Upon the road four large barracks were built. Thirty years ago they had for the most part fallen out of use; and upon the passage of a Reformatory Schools Act for Ireland, one of them, Glencree, with a tract of moorland surrounding it, was placed at the disposal of the community of Catholic ecclesiastics to whom the care of one of the proposed institutions was confided. It is twelve miles from Dublin, and stands 1,000 feet above the sea. Behind the building stretch bogs and mountain; in front, to the south, the glen from which it takes its name (Glencree—"The glen of my heart")—a wide valley, more than a glen, six miles long, the waste mountain tops toning down into patches of cultivation and comfortable farmsteads.

The corporation of Dublin give a considerable annual grant to this Reformatory, and thither the corporation and their friends, to the number of some 400, are invited annually by the managers. The excursion for this year took place some days ago. We were much favored in the weather. A few miles south of the city the road begins to wind up the mountain side between lawns and plantations. There are grand views over the bay—Dublin "in feudal pride," the plains of Kildare and Meath, the islands of Lambay and Ireland's Eye, and in the distance the Mourne Mountains in County Down. The carriages and cars, the "croydons" and "gigs" dotting the Moorland Road, upon which we emerged, seemed out of keeping with the wild landscape, and must have startled the larks singing above, and the sheep and mild-eyed mountain cattle browsing among the heather and turf-banks. The entrance to the Reformatory was decorated with flags—the Union Jack conspicuous by its absence, and the Stars and Stripes by its presence. We drove into a large courtyard, where we were welcomed by the reverend fathers in their canonicals and the large crucifixes distinctive of the "Order of Mary Immaculate." From the terrace and greenery in front of the main building, slightly raised above the courtyard, we watched the arrival of the other guests. The boys, 200 in number, were marched into the yard from the hillside, where, to leave room for the arrangements of the day, they had been dining. The Lord Mayor arrived in state in his brilliant carriage with his powdered footmen; the lads cheered and the school band struck up. Prizes were distributed and the musicians put through their facings in concerted and solo playing. The boys, from twelve to twenty years of age, coarsely but comfortably clad in frieze and corduroy, looked remarkably healthy and happy, and upon this as upon all previous visits I remarked the kind and confidential relations which evidently existed between them and their superiors. The book prizes appeared to be well chosen—I noticed Miss Martineau's 'Peasant and the Prince,' and others of a like liberal character. While some of the younger visitors listened to the band or entertained themselves on the large swings used by the boys in play hours, the rest of us inspected the departments of the institution. In addition to the main building, in which the Reformatory was commenced (the old barrack now is occupied mainly by the heads of the establishment), workshops, school-rooms, play-rooms, and dormitories, as well as a church in cut stone, have been added, built chiefly by the boys themselves. A large proportion of the inmates are trained in agricultural pursuits. The meadows and cultivated fields surrounding the buildings are results of their labors—an earnest of the change it is possible to work in the bogs and mountain wastes of Ireland. A reservoir on the mountain side supplies the establishment with water at high pressure. A steam engine drives the machinery in the various workshops, where we saw the boys busily engaged at shoemaking, tailoring, cabinet-making, and the forge. The lavatory is well arranged. The main dormitory is a sight in itself, with its vistas of 300 white-covered beds, between which lay-brothers of the institution promenade all night.

At 3 o'clock we were summoned to a plentiful dinner, laid out on long tables in the recreation room, which was tastefully festooned with ivy. The Lord Mayor and Lady Mayoress and persons of distinction occupied a table on a dais. Then came the usual toasts, speechmaking, and mutual admiration. After the meal our party visited those lovely and impressive mountain tarns the Loughs Bray, two miles beyond the Reformatory. Tea was prepared for all who desired; as for us we returned in the twilight through the beautiful scenery of Enniskerry and the Scalp, the air sweet with the scent of hedges and bayfields. The weather at Glencree is often severe in winter. A stone cross on the road near the Reformatory marks the spot where a few years ago a poor boy perished from exposure on an open vehicle while being conveyed to the institution.

The reformatory and industrial-school system of Ireland was commenced some twenty-four years ago. These institutions now number sixty-nine—twenty-one for boys, with 2,420 inmates, and forty-eight for girls, with 3,486 inmates. They are strictly denominational, fifty-six being Catholic, and thirteen Protestant. They are intended to save juvenile offenders from the demoralizing influences of prison and from evil courses—to reform rather than to punish.

They are of three kinds: (1) Reformatories, to which are consigned juvenile delinquents (after they have undergone a few weeks' or months' imprisonment) for terms varying up to five years. These are by last report ten in number, with 1,149 inmates, costing £28,572 per annum. A Government capitation grant gives £18,125; £7,822 comes from local funds, and £578 from voluntary contributions, and £2,047 profits on work sold. The average cost per head per an-

num is £22 15s. for boys, and £26 9s. for girls. The desire to bring children of depraved parents under the influence of these institutions often explains the apparent harshness of sentences for such trifling offences as "stealing flowers," or, as I saw the other day, "stealing a pair of scissors from a mother." These reformatories are for children under sixteen years of age; but as the period of detention extends to five years, many of the inmates are grown up before they are discharged.

(2.) There are 59 industrial schools, with 5,900 inmates, costing £19 19s. per head for boys, and £19 4s. for girls. They are meant for the reception of vagrant or derelict children under fourteen years of age. The advantages of the training afforded by them are so great that it is to be feared many pious frauds are perpetrated to bring children within their scope. I knew a decent lad in Dublin whose parents died, leaving him with several little brothers and sisters, whom he could not support, and whom he managed to have arrested for vagrancy and sent to these schools. This is by no means a pleasing feature of the system, and is but one aspect of the inevitable difficulties and complications certain to arise from the workhouse, reformatory, and state philanthropic systems to which the United Kingdom appears for the present committed, and in which Louise Michel, when she visited England lately, was surprised to find "enlightened communism." The industrial schools in Ireland receive altogether £116,987 per annum—£73,437 from the state, £25,073 from local grants, £6,098 from voluntary contributions, £12,379 from industrial profits and sundries.

(3.) The probationary industrial schools were only lately authorized. We have every right to expect the most beneficial results from their working. It will be open to magistrates to commit to them juvenile offenders under twelve years of age, without any preliminary or contaminating detention in prison; and inmates upon reaching the age of twelve are passed on to the industrial schools.

The beneficial result of all these institutions has, it is safe to say, exceeded the most sanguine anticipations of those who promoted their establishment. In 1853 there were 12,238 children under sixteen years of age in Irish prisons. According to last report, there are now but about 853. To these we must of course add those in the reformatories and schools already mentioned (7,049); but how differently are they circumstanced! These schools are under the inspection of Sir John Lentaigne, a gentleman who has given himself earnestly to the work, and has thereby gained respect and title. He is well advanced in years—a prominent figure in literary, non-political, and Castle circles in Dublin. His annual report to Parliament, from the last issue of which I have taken the foregoing figures, is a deeply interesting record of the progress and condition of these institutions—fully stating as it does the particulars of each, its educational, industrial, and sanitary condition, the efforts of the managers to prepare children for the struggle of life, what they have done for them on discharge, and their after success or failure. Of those discharged from reformatories within the past three years, 84.1 per cent. boys and 86.5 girls are reported as "doing well," 1.3 boys and 5.7 girls "doubtful," 10.5 boys and 6.3 girls "recommitted to prison," 4.0 boys and 2.1 girls "lost sight of." Of those discharged from industrial schools, 89.5 per cent. boys and 93.9 girls reported as "doing well," 2.3 boys and 2.9 girls "doubtful," and 6.5 boys and 3.1 girls "unknown."

The literary education is confined to a course of reading, writing, and arithmetic. History is, as in all our Government schools, excluded. What is the result of this exclusion? Would it not be safer for the Government to permit the use of moderate histories, even of a purely national and Catholic type, than to leave the youth of Ireland entirely and solely to draw its historical information, which it must and will imbibe somewhere, from green-flag and sunburst literature? If we may judge by the repetition in Sir John Lentaigne's report to the effect that "the pupils played the National Anthem remarkably well," we may suppose that the Government are not without hopes of influencing loyalty through the medium of music.

The success of these schools, which it would have been impossible to approach under the "ascendancy" theories of past generations, is suggestive as to what may yet be accomplished in Ireland in other directions, as we utilize rather than thwart the prejudices and aspirations of our people. The monastic teaching and régime of the Catholic (the greatest) Irish reformatories are not such as may commend themselves to Protestants; and yet Protestants can but hope to emulate their results.

There is nothing in Irish architecture or interiors to detain the average American visitor who passes through Ireland on his way to Great Britain and the Continent of Europe. But in such institutions as I have mentioned there is much to stir deeply, and to interest if not to instruct. The Irish may well be proud of Glencree Reformatory and Artane Industrial School, near Dublin, the Malone Reformatory and *Gibraltar* training-ship at Belfast; and these are only samples of what is being done in kindred institutions under Irish management in other parts of Ireland.

D. B.

ORIGINAL EDITIONS OF THE FRENCH CLASSICS.

PARIS, August 3.

THE great bibliophilists are rendering a great service not only by the collection of historical documents, but also by the collection of the original editions of the best writers in every language. It may seem almost an affectation, in the eyes of many people, to choose in preference editions which have been revised by the authors themselves. There are, however, many reasons why a bibliophilist should prefer an original edition, and under that name ought to be comprised all the editions of a work which have appeared in the lifetime of an author, with his additions and corrections. First of all, we must consider a book as an intellectual whole, and fully to appreciate it we must see it, just as a picture, in the original, not in a copy. We like to see it with the type of the time, with the cover or the binding of the period, with the illustrations—if there are any—which show us how the book was first understood. From the philological and grammatical point of view, it is extremely important to read a work in its original edition, for there we find the correct punctuation, the true accentuation, the peculiarities which contribute to the history of language. Just as a story told several times by one person to another becomes altered very rapidly, the original texts in the course of time become extremely distorted, as the booksellers, especially when they reprint a very popular work, content themselves with copying a late edition, and do not take the trouble to refer to the primitive text. It is only very recently that we have become more "difficult" in this respect; but it is quite extraordinary to see how little the editions of Molière printed a few years ago resemble the original editions.

The bibliophilists have always instinctively felt the value of these first editions. Their science is now taking a more systematic form, as several special catalogues, made with great care, have added much to our knowledge of original editions. We are no longer contented with Brunet's famous 'Manuel du Libraire'; we want, for the great classics, more details than can be found in this excellent work, which, nevertheless, preserves all its importance for many parts of literature and of history. M. Rochebilière, who was for many years Conservator at the Library of Sainte-Geneviève, near the Pantheon, left a library entirely composed of original editions of the French authors of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and I cannot too highly recommend a very modest volume, the catalogue of this special library, made by a very learned bookseller of Paris, M. Claudin. The reader of this little work will not lose his time, and he will find himself at once in the *arcana* of bibliophilism.

Let us first take Montaigne. We learn at once that there is not *one* original edition of the famous 'Essays'—we must have several editions; and in the succession of the editions and in their changes we have the history of the development of a great mind. The first original edition, which appeared at Bordeaux (then spelled Bourdeaus), had only two books; it was eight years afterward, in 1588, that Montaigne gave his third book in an edition which was already the fifth. Whoever wishes to have the original Montaigne must of necessity have the first and the fifth editions. After the death of Montaigne, his niece, Mlle. de Gournay, published a folio edition, in 1595, which must also be added to the preceding works as having been based upon the manuscripts of Montaigne. In a modern edition, it would be well to mark what belongs to the first, to the fifth, and to the posthumous edition. We should thus have a more distinct view of the transformations of Montaigne's thoughts, as these editions mark different periods in his life. M. Guillaume Guizot, the son of the famous statesman, is preparing an edition conceived in this spirit.

La Bruyère offers an even more difficult problem to the editor. This great moralist published no less than nine editions of his 'Characters,' and each edition has its additions. If we could mark out, in a complete edition, the chronology of the thoughts, we should, so to speak, render visible the development of La Bruyère; we should see him become more and more eloquent, more and more misanthropic, in the highest sense of the word. An admirer of La Bruyère, who likes to live with him, as it were, and to see him first young and then old, must of necessity find these nine original editions, which are described with the most minute care by Claudin. There are subdivisions for each edition, for books were not made then as they are now, and, the process of printing being then very slow, an author often made slight changes in the midst of it. Consequently, we find that two editions marked "second edition," for instance, can be slightly dissimilar. These shades are not very important, and it seems to me hardly necessary to look for such small peculiarities; but it is of the highest literary importance to study from edition to edition, from the beginning to the end, the creative energy of a great mind. The first edition of the 'Characters' of La Bruyère was published in 1688; he died on May 11, 1696, and the ninth edition appeared three weeks after his death. It is very difficult to collect all the nine editions; the first, the second, and third have become very rare. A collector ought to have them all of the same size, if possible, in their original calf binding. Some copies are found in old morocco, but they are a great rarity. As a rule, the bibliophilists prefer now an original calf binding, with all its simplicity, to a modern mo-

rocco binding. The original binding is a proof of perfect authenticity: it shows that no leaves have been interpolated, no changes made.

The first editions of La Fontaine have an extreme and pleasing simplicity. The 'Contes' appeared before the 'Fables' La Fontaine first published anonymously a few of the *contes*. The first collection of ten signed by him was brought out by Barbin (the publisher of many of our greatest classics, mentioned by Boileau in his 'Satires') in 1665; it is one of the rarest books I know. Other editions appeared in 1667, 1669, 1671, with some additional *contes*. I do not refer to the editions published in Holland. Amateurs now prefer (and the reason of it is obvious) the French editions to the Dutch *contrefaçons;* and even the Elzevir editions of French writers, though they are admirably printed, only hold a second place in their estimation.

The first original edition of the 'Fables' was printed in 1668 at Paris by Denis Thierry. It is a quarto volume, and has engravings by Chauveau, in a *naïf* style, and quite in harmony with the subject and with the spirit of La Fontaine. The 'Fables' were, in the same year, reprinted in a second original edition, in a smaller form, again with Chauveau's engraving. A collector ought to have the two volumes published in 1668, the volume published in 1671, and also the four volumes published in 1678–1679 by Denis Thierry and Barbin, which form the *complete* edition of La Fontaine's 'Fables.' The history of this last edition, which is the definitive text, is very complicated, as the volumes have all been reprinted with *cartons*—that is to say, interpolated pages; but these minutiæ must be studied in a descriptive catalogue. These modest volumes were put in the hands of children. One may imagine, therefore, how difficult it is to find them in perfect condition; but it is an agreeable sensation to see the immortal 'Fables' just as they came out of the shop of Barbin. Few books have been more often and more admirably illustrated than the 'Contes' and the 'Fables' of La Fontaine. Everybody has heard of the *fermiers-généraux* edition of the 'Contes,' which have the exquisitely delicate engravings of Eisen. The splendid edition of the 'Fables,' illustrated by the famous Oudry, is one of the finest books published in the eighteenth century. An amateur is proud to possess fine copies of these two works; still, if he cares for literature as much as for art, he must have also the modest little editions which gave pleasure to the first admirers of the "bonhomme," and which preserve something of his "bonhomie."

Among the rarest original editions are those of Perrault, the immortal author of the 'Histoires ou Contes du temps passé, avec des moralités,' because they were nearly all destroyed by the children of the seventeenth century. The original edition was that of Barbin in 1697. I have only seen it two or three times in my life. Each *conte* has a small vignette. This little volume contains: "La Belle au Bois Dormant," "Le petit Chaperon rouge," "Barbe-bleue," "Le Maistre Chat, ou le Chat Botté," "Cendrillon," "Riquet à la Houppe," "Le petit Poucet." "Peau d'Âne" and "Griselidis" appeared separately, and are equally rare. There was an edition of the 'Contes' in 1697, which has been sometimes taken for the original edition, and which is quite as rare. The widow Barbin published a new one in 1707, and Gosselin reprinted the 'Contes' in 1724. His edition is the third original edition, and is much esteemed, as the first two original editions are hardly to be found. The contemporaries of Perrault were fond of fairy-stories. Madame d'Aulnoy wrote some with much success, and with an extraordinary purity and charm of style. She dedicated her 'Contes de Fées' (Barbin, 1698) to the Princesse de Conti. The same Princess accepted also the dedication of the 'Contes de Fées' of Mme. de Murat (Barbin, 1698).

No work shows how interesting original editions can be for the student of literature better than the famous 'Gil Blas de Santillane,' by Lesage. This work may be considered to have made a revolution in novel-writing. Everybody reads it even now, which can be said of few novels: and it is curious to contrast its present popularity with the limited success which it met with at the beginning. 'Gil Blas' was issued in separate parts. The first two were published in 1715 in Paris; the third part did not come out till 1724, and the fourth till 1735. These dates show that the public was not very eager to follow 'Gil Blas' in his various adventures. Lesage was very much discouraged at the reception given to the first two parts, and he continued his novel without any enthusiasm. For a very long time bibliophilists were contented with a last collective edition which he revised in 1747, and which was published in 1747 by the "Libraires associés," but now they seek, and with much reason, the original editions which contain the parts published separately; and, in fact, the student of literature who cares about the greatest work of Lesage must have the four separate parts as well as the collective edition.

I have, perhaps, said enough to show that quest after original editions is not an idle pleasure, but even a serious and useful undertaking; and since there is a collector and a maniac in every man, especially when he has to divert his mind from some great trouble or some painful recollection, the mania for choice books is among the least frivolous. I recommend to the bibliophilists of America the little catalogue of Claudin, which contains the most exact descriptions of many original editions of Corneille, Descartes, Pascal, Bossuet, Molière, Racine, La Rochefoucauld, Boileau, Fénelon, Régnard, Bourdaloue, Massillon, etc.

Correspondence.

MOUNT DESERT AND ITS FREQUENTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "A. R." has touched upon an evil of some magnitude at Mount Desert, but has, as I venture to think, somewhat misapprehended its cause. The course of the cottagers (of whom I may mention that I am not one) toward the public generally has been, with perhaps a single exception, most kind and friendly, often, as you evidently know, under tolerably severe trials. The fault lies really with the local government, the Selectmen, on whom it never seems to have dawned that they ought to do anything to make the place attractive. I do not suppose that there exists anywhere in the world a spot so frequented by strangers where so little effort has been made to render it pleasant for them.

For example: of all the roads leading out of the village, there is not one that has a side path of any sort outside the village limits; so that every one who wishes to walk must take the middle of a dusty road, full of vehicles often recklessly driven (the native buckboard men are in this respect far worse than the visitors), returning home covered with dust. Consequently almost no one walks, though the roads are very beautiful. A very few hundred dollars would put side paths on all the roads for two or three miles out.

Again, the eastern shore of the island, from the boat landing to Seal Cove, is one of the most beautiful in the world, but it is entirely inaccessible except at two or three points, where it can be reached by leaving the vehicle and proceeding some distance on foot. There is an urgent need for an ocean drive on its whole length. Such a drive would be of unsurpassed beauty, and, as a question of expense, would pay for itself ten times over in a few years. Nor need the expense be very heavy; the property which it would open would be very greatly increased in value, and might therefore properly bear a part of the cost of road construction. A road jury would no doubt take this view, which is, in fact, everywhere acted on. It would be difficult to exaggerate the influence that such an ocean drive would have on the prosperity of Bar Harbor.

The difficulty is not that people will not come here—the hotels are now all full—but that they come for so very short a time. Except for about three weeks, the hotels are almost empty. August is with us so oppressive that people will go anywhere for fresh and cool air, such as they find here. What is wanted is such attractions as will make the place a pleasant residence for a whole summer: pleasant walks in all directions, more roads, especially the eastern-shore drive just spoken of, and a shore drive from Hull's Cove to Salisbury Cove; more tidiness, better-watered streets, better horses, and stronger vehicles. Then visitors would find it pleasant to stay for months instead of weeks, and Bar Harbor would enter upon a long career of success and prosperity.

A Boarder.

Bar Harbor, August 13, 1883.

THE METHODIST CHURCH, SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just read in the *Nation* of the 9th instant an editorial containing the following:

"Only about a year ago the mere proposal to send a fraternal message of greeting from the Methodist Church, South, assembled in convention at Atlanta, to the Methodist Church, North, also in convention in a Northern city, excited in the former body a discussion which continued for several days, and in which violent opposition was developed, on the ground that such a message would be a confession that the Southern Church had been wrong in upholding slavery and supporting secession. The proposition was finally carried, and the message was sent."

This is a mistake, and does great injustice to the M. E. Church, South. The first General Conference of the M. E. Church, South, which met at Petersburg, Va., in May, 1846, by a unanimous vote appointed the Rev. Dr. Lovick Pierce "to visit the General Conference of the M. E. Church to be held in Pittsburgh, May 1, 1848, to tender to that body the Christian regards and fraternal salutations of the General Conference of the M. E. Church, South." The Northern General Conference refused to receive Doctor Pierce in his official capacity. The Southern General Conference held in St. Louis in 1850 took the following action:

"*Resolved*, . . . That we cannot, under their act of rejection and refusal, renew our offer of fraternal relations and intercourse, but will at all times entertain any proposition coming from the M. E. Church to us, whether it be by written communication or by delegation, having for its object friendly relations, and predicated of the rights granted to us by the Plan of Separation adopted in New York, 1844."

Fraternal messengers from the M. E. Church, duly appointed, appeared for the first time before the General Conference of the M. E. Church, South, at Louisville, Ky., in 1874, and were kindly received. Fraternal delegates from the Southern Church were sent to the General Conferences of the M. E. Church at Baltimore in 1876, and at Cincinnati in 1880, and "violent opposition" was certainly not developed at

Nashville, Tenn., last year, when it was proposed to send delegates to the General Conference of the M. E. Church which will meet in 1884. Fraternity between the two Churches is now an established fact, and I feel safe in saying that opposition to it is felt by no representative of the M. E. Church, South. Feeling sure that you will correct the mistake inadvertently made, I am, yours, very respectfully,

JOHN W. SHIPP.

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY, NASHVILLE, TENN., August 15, 1883.

THE POLITICAL PROSPECT IN OHIO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : This is a place first settled on the Western Reserve—the home of the Fords and Hitchcocks, one of whom was Governor, and another for many years Chief Justice, of Ohio. It is now as much a New England town, perhaps more, than any east of you. Among its people one finds a fair expression of the descendants of the genuine New Englanders of these eleven northeastern counties of the State upon current topics. It is the season of the annual reunions of the pioneers and of families—of unusual activities—and one meets men of all shades of opinion and from many places. The son of a pioneer, and widely acquainted, having taken some part in many political campaigns in Ohio, and a present visitor of two weeks, I offer you a word on the political outlook from this point.

The indications are most favorable for the election of Foraker. The Republican county and district conventions are held unusually early, and all the delegates attend ; action is harmonious and satisfactory. There are no local splits, secessions, and small quarrels ; and when you recall the fact that the country population of these counties is diminishing, while the ratio of representation is advancing, and that hence there is a frequent necessity of joining two counties for a representative in the State House, and many for a senator, the harmony of these counties shows a thoroughly healthy state of the Republican organization, and betokens a campaign of very unusual vigor and activity. The old county of Geauga (now Geauga and Lake) nominated G. H. Ford, son of the late Governor Seabury Ford, an able and experienced young man, for the House, while the same, with Ashtabula, Portage, and Summit, renominated Woolcott for the Senate. Ashtabula promises 4,000 majority. When she does nearly her best, the State is certain for 12,000 to 15,000 Republican majority.

Your observations of July 12 were especially true. The aspirations of the Democracy are bad, vicious. Its true men cannot trust it. Chase wanted to find "a new democracy," to evangelize the party, and had to leave it. As you stated, it debauched Thurman ; it will depress Pendleton, or slay him. It is essentially low, bad, depraved ; and in this is the utter hopelessness of good from it. The Republican party occupies a totally different position—the highest in the political history of the Republic. When much is exacted of a party, when it is held to the highest accountability and everything is expected of it, this shows that by some means it has acquired a high, the highest, position in the regards of the people. This is the status of the Republicans.

Coming over the Narrow-Gauge from Warren here, I had a conversation with a brakeman, a Republican, who last year voted with the Democrats.

"The Republicans disapp'inted me. They had most all the brains, an' the places—had done fust-rate ; but somehow they'd kinder fell off like, an' I thought I'd try the Democrats."

"What can the Democrats do for you—what do you expect from them ?"

"Wal, I d'n know as anythin'. I'm kinder tired o' the Republicans, so I thought I'd try the Democrats. I d'n know as they can do anything ; they never have ; but the Republicans has let things kinder run down, an', darn 'em, I'll show 'em."

The talk ran on to details. The idea was one which widely pervades the common mind, that the Republicans, with power, brains, position, the prestige of success, were to be held to a higher standard, a stricter account, or "darn 'em, we'll show 'em," as they did here last year. They know the Democrats, and don't trust them, and will not vote with them except when they want to "show the Republicans," or once in a long time. Like a man weary of lying in one position, they turn over for a change, as some men will.

The Republican party cannot be too often and too strongly impressed with its position before the masses, and the responsibility they unconsciously demand of its leaders in consequence. The criticism of the Republican campaign so far may be, that too much labor is wasted in assailing Hoadly. He presents a fair and broad mark, but there is other work for the Republicans.

A. G. R.

BURTON, GEAUGA CO., O., August 18, 1883.

Notes.

THE *English Illustrated Magazine*, to be issued simultaneously in London and New York by Macmillan & Co., will probably make its first appearance in October. It frankly enters the field against the class of American popular magazines which have invaded England with such signal success, both in respect to its literary contents and the quality of its engravings. It will also compete severely in price, being offered at the low rate of 20 cents a copy, or $2 a year postpaid. The first number, therefore, must be awaited with great curiosity.

The new edition of 'Boston Illustrated' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) appears, upon careful examination, to have been extensively revised and brought down to date, as may be seen under such heads as the Old State House, the Public Library, and the Music Hall. It would be well, in a future edition, to mention and copy verbatim the tablets erected beside the historical burial grounds, and to give a sketch-map of the park system now in course of development. A modern map of the city proper accompanies this volume, and shows the ancient shore-line.

We spoke lately in commendation of Mr. Henry J. Winser's Guide to the Yellowstone Park. The Messrs. Putnam now publish 'The Great Northwest: a Guide-book and Itinerary,' by the same author, which has been prepared with exceptional facilities and will at once become the standard *vade-mecum* of tourists. The introduction contains a summary account of the building of the Northern Pacific Railroad. The information in the successive chapters on the States, Territories, and places through which the road passes is noticeably direct and practical, made readable by literary extracts as well as by anecdotes, whose captions, by the way (*e. g.*, "Origin of Mother Goose," "Turning the Tables," "Wabasha's Logic," etc.), appear too much like the names of stations, being set in the same type and interspersed among them. The illustrations are fresh, and engraved from photographs, and there is a sufficient railroad map. An index will doubtless in time be added. We cite a single passage from the text: "The term Bad Lands . . . is a gross misnomer. It conveys the idea that the tract is wortbless for agricultural or stock-raising purposes. Nothing could be wider from the truth. The fact is, the soil possesses fertilizing properties in excess, and the luxuriant grasses which here flourish attract herbivorous game animals in large numbers."

A little more refinement would still improve Dr. Up de Graff's 'Camping in the Alleghanies,' first published in 1879 and now appearing in a second edition (Lippincott). Its timeliness is unimpaired, for it aims to prove that one need not go 1,000 miles from home to enjoy the benefits of wild wood life.

"The Classic Series" of Roberts Bros., Boston, includes in one volume Scott's "Lay of the Last Minstrel," "Marmion," and "Lady of the Lake." We have a convenient criterion of the editing of the last-named poem in Mr. Rolfe's recent labors, of which we spoke last week in connection with the Osgood edition. The time-honored errors he has detected are all here: in other words, nothing more has been done than to copy a predecessor, himself a copyist. The impression of the work in hand we find a little pale.

We cannot say much for the literary quality of Mr. Rufus Blanchard's 'History of Illinois' (New York: Chas. L. Woodward), but its value as a convenient summary would be considerable even without the historical map which it illustrates. The latter is cloth-mounted and drawn on a very generous scale, and has the distinction of being the second (perhaps in some repects the first) of its kind. An historical map of Pennsylvania was published a few years since, and we do not recall any other. On this of Illinois are delineated the routes of the early explorers Marquette and Joliet, La Salle; Indian trails; army marches; individual journeys; mail roads; the sites of forts and ferries, etc.; while the dates of formation of counties and settlement of towns and many other details are appropriately set down. On the margin we have census statistics and chronological tables ; in the latter the murder of Lovejoy is commemorated, and might well have been inscribed against Alton on the map. Mr. Blanchard's work is deserving of all praise, and ought to become a part of the educational apparatus of the common schools. Moreover, his example should lead to a like service being performed for other States.

The *Modern Age* (Buffalo) has completed its first volume (a very comely one, by the way), and has certainly succeeded in its endeavor to furnish agreeable light reading. Its translations from foreign languages have been a marked feature.

Dr. Coan's latest "Topics of the Time" (Putnams) groups five "Historical Studies"—England (Village Life in Norfolk), Italy (Siena), France (General Chanzy), etc.

No. 5 of the "Théâtre Contemporain" (Wm. R. Jenkins) contains Léon Gozlan's "La Pluie et le Beau Temps" and M. Legouvé's "Autour d'un Berceau." A little more care is desirable in the proof-reading of this useful series. An error like *le* for *la* (*pluie*) shocks one in capitals upon the title-page.

Mr. Sidney S. Rider's *Book Notes for the Week* (Providence) gratifies both the commercial and the antiquarian prochivities of its editor and publisher, and has a more than transient worth. The 'Catalogue of American Poetry,' issued by Mr. Wm. T. Tibbitts, of the same city, is marketable on its own account along with the more or less rare and curious books it offers for sale.

The thirty-first annual report of the Trustees of the Boston Public Library is remarkable for containing two special reports or *aperçus*—the one, by Mr. T. W. Higginson, on the Theodore Parker collection; the other, by Mr. Thomas S. Perry, on the French books in the library. Mr.

Higginson, after describing its chief features, shows that three-fourths, if not nine-tenths, of the Parker collection is in foreign languages; that very few contain the owner's notes and memoranda, such as do being in the line of American history, and obviously having been used in the preparation of 'Historic Americans,' of which, we are told, Mr. F. B. Sanborn is about to prepare an enlarged edition; and that eleven volumes, collected and made up of pamphlets, magazines, original letters, etc., by Miss Matilda Goddard, form a very important aid to a personal understanding of the distinguished minister. These general statements of the strong points of the library or of its departments are even better for the public at large than catalogues would be. Doubtless we shall some day see the principle carried out in a comprehensive view o all our great libraries, as a sort of students' guide. For instance, how else will this item in the present report be remembered (p. 33)?—"Received . . . a collection of more than a thousand portraits and engravings . . . to illustrate Carlyle's 'History of the French Revolution.'"

In the current number of the *Fortnightly Review* Mr. Francis Galton gives a brief sketch of a plan he has conceived for obtaining medical family registers. He offers to award prizes amounting in all to £500 to the successful compilers of family statistics embracing four generations and giving all obtainable details in regard to race, conditions of life, form and feature, health, vigor, sense perception, artistic capacities, intellect, character, etc. Such registers, he thinks, would prove of incalculable benefit for anthropological and medical purposes. They would discover the diseases that are hereditarily interchangeable, and the effects produced by the hereditary union of different varieties of disease-tendencies; they would throw light on the physiological causes of the rise and decay of families and of races; and they would give a physician useful hints in regard to what his patients may and what they may not do. The difficulty lying in the fact that men and women naturally shrink from having their family infirmities recorded, Mr. Galton proposes to overcome by an ingenious plan, for the details of which, as well as for the conditions on which the prizes are to be awarded, we must refer to the article itself.

In the *Antiquary* for June and July Mr. C. F. Keary continues his interesting series of papers upon Coins, in these two numbers treating of "the Coinage of the British Islands." The second paper begins with the reign of Henry VII., in more than one respect an important dividing line in English history. With this sovereign, he says, "portraits began on English coins"; while his successor "was the first of English monarchs who debased the sterling fineness of the coin." The June number contains two other articles of special interest in constitutional history. Rev. Wentworth Webster begins a series upon "Simon de Montfort and the English Parliament," in which he reviews Montfort's administration in Gascony, and undertakes to show that his acts in the contest against the King of England were "almost all framed after the model of his dealings with the courts and with the municipalities of Gascony." Another series is begun by Mr. G. Laurence Gomme, entitled "Notes on some Rebellions in English History"; this first paper is upon Stephen of Blois. This successful rebellion, as it may be called, illustrates two important principles. In the first place, the election of Stephen was by the people of London, acting as it were for the people of England. A more interesting point is in the principle that a daughter might transmit a claim to inheritance, although she could not herself inherit—the rule asserted by Edward III. in claiming the crown of France. It would take too long to discuss this principle; it is enough that it rests upon very archaic usages, discussed by Sir Henry Maine in 'Early Law and Custom' (p 91), to which Mr. Gomme refers. The article is illustrated by frequent reference to Maine, Freeman, and Green.

The thirty-third volume of *L'Art* (J. W. Bouton) possesses more than ordinary interest. We place in the first line of its articles four by Henri Delaborde, on book-illustration in Florence, Venice, Modena, and Bologna, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and on engraving in Milan in the same period. These are accompanied by fac-similes of early cuts on a larger scale, and may well be chapters of a future book. The chief book review is of Perrot and Chipiez's admirable 'Origin of Art in Antiquity,' borrowing many of the illustrations from the work itself. Among the full-page etchings, the portrait of the painter Chardin, the friend of Diderot, and the conjectural portrait by Jean de Calcar of Andrew Vesalius (from the Brussels Gallery) deserve mention, along with the winter scene after Philip Wouverman in the Demidoff gallery; but none surpasses Mlle. Lucie Contour's masterly etching of E. Renard's "Grandmother" in the Luxembourg. Another lady, Mlle. Louise Abbema, who had the pretty fancy of portraying actresses of the Comédie-Française as types of the four seasons, is shown in two of these essays—Mlle. Samary ("Summer"), and Mlle. Barretta ("Spring"). Finally, let us not overlook the fine architectural designs drawn from the Château de Fleurigny; the *orfèvrerie* of Froment Meurice; and the Pergamos fragments, with the letterpress appertaining thereto

L. W. Schmidt, 7 Barclay Street, has received the photographically illustrated catalogue of the remarkable art collection of the late Chevalier Carlo Morbio, of Milan, to be sold in Munich on September 10. It embraces Egyptian, Etruscan, Roman, and early Christian antiquities, in gold, bronze, and glass, and a great many precious pieces of Middle Age and modern manufacture, including some fine articles of furniture.

Any Oriental numismatist desiring to acquire a collection of Chinese and Corean coins, probably the most complete in existence, numbering several thousands, to be sold at the bare cost of collecting, will, on sending his name to W. J. Stillman, Florence, Italy, be put in direct communication with the proprietor.

Every one knows how difficult it often is to obtain any general view of a contemporary literature, and what tiresome researches in periodicals and biographical dictionaries are necessary, even when these take account of living authors. We can commend to students, in spite of its shortcomings, Roux's history of the contemporary Italian literature, which forms part of Charpentier's 'Histoire de la Littérature contemporaine dans les différents états de l'Europe.' The part devoted to Italy is comprised in three volumes, the first embracing the period from the beginning of the century to 1859, the second the literature of the "régime unitaire," 1859-1874, and the third the period from 1873-1883. These volumes were published in 1870, 1874, 1883 respectively, the second alone belonging to the Charpentier collection. The second volume contains a very valuable official list of the papers and reviews published in the kingdom of Italy in 1873, which amount to the large number of 805. An appendix to the third volume mentions the most important changes since 1873. The last two volumes are provided with good indexes.

It is announced that Mr. Worthington C. Ford will succeed the late Mr. R. L. Dugdale as Secretary of the Society for Political Education, whose office is at 4 Morton Street, New York.

Nothing shows better the singularity of Newport as a watering-place than the institution of a local Natural History Society, with Prof. Raphael Pumpelly for President, Prof. Alexander Agassiz for first Vice-President, Mr. George C. Mason for Corresponding Secretary, Lieut. Wm. McCarty Little for Librarian, Dr. J. J. Mason for Curator, etc. Its object is to promote the study of science among residents and visitors, to investigate the geology, botany, and zoölogy of the neighboring lands and waters, to form a museum and library, and establish an aquarium and zoölogical garden. The constitution provides for the Society's dissolution, but we may hope that this contingency will not arise. The annual fee is but $3, and there is no other qualification for membership. The prime object of the museum will be to illustrate the local rocks, fauna, and flora. Field meetings during the summer are contemplated. The Society was incorporated in May last. Contributions to the library are already solicited.

—President Hinsdale has well edited the Works of the late President Garfield, which J. R. Osgood & Co. publish in two handsome octavo volumes. They anticipate the biography which is to follow, yet leave untouched the materials of every kind that antedate the year 1864, when Garfield's Congressional career began, or, more accurately, began to be manifested in speeches on public questions. They also take no account of the minor speeches made between his nomination at Chicago and his inauguration. But in these 1,500 pages are certainly included his highest intellectual productions and his most useful contributions to American legislation. They all have the note of preparation, as opposed to the spontaneity of such a stored and disciplined mind, say, as John Quincy Adams's, and confirm the editor's remark (p. xxi.) in regard to currency, banking, taxation, appropriations, resumption, etc., "that when he [Garfield] entered Congress, he had given no systematic study to any of these subjects." His speeches relating to them are therefore remarkable evidences of diligent and conscientious study, only too rare in Congress, and which, in the case of the census, for example, actually made him almost the only member capable of becoming the advocate and exponent of the improved system which Congress reluctantly adopted. Of what we may call the natural Garfield there is a group of speeches, here found distributed chronologically, which we believe are most truly representative. We refer to the personal tributes, brief or long and elaborate, paid to deceased colleagues and friends and public characters. Such performances are indeed a severe test of the speaker's tact, discrimination, fidelity to moral standards, thoughtfulness, and originality. We do not think these fall below the average of their kind; perhaps they do not greatly rise above it.

—The *Atlantic* for September contains a very amusing criticism on a new writer who has recently set up as a critic of the poets in their treatment of birds. He has had a great run in the *Contemporary*, *Harper's*, and the *Atlantic* itself, and writes with such an assumption of knowledge as to the different species of birds and their career in verse as to make the discovery that his articles have been an elaborate imposture upon the public, and contain the most overwhelming proofs of profound ignorance, combined with the most wanton recklessness, rather funny. It is Harriet C. W. Stanton who comes forward and says all this, and seems to prove it too. The object of our magazinist was to show that the British poets were a set of noodles, who knew little or nothing about birds and had no sympathy with them, and that it was reserved for the poets of

this country to use birds in poetry with force, intelligence, and feeling. His critic, who is very self-restrained and temperate, does not undertake to deny that the fact may be so, but she insists very fairly that any one who makes such a charge ought himself to have "a knowledge of ornithology sufficient to enable him to approach accuracy in the statement of scientific facts, great familiarity with the poets, and a standard of criticism which should be clearly defined in his own mind and which he should be able to make fairly intelligible to his readers." No ornithologico-poetical critic can fairly object to these demands, yet the present writer seems to be able to show that the writer whose work she carefully goes over has not a single one of the qualifications in question, or, in other words, no qualification whatever but that facility of expression which is part of the stock-in-trade of most impostors, literary and other. He coolly begins, for instance, with the cautious statement, well calculated to entrap the unornithological magazine publisher and reader, that there are "known to science more than three thousand species of birds." The joke of this lies in the fact, it seems, that Gray's Hand-List, published in 1871, and accessible, we presume, to any one desirous of informing himself, contains the names of over eleven thousand birds "known to science," while other authorities give over three thousand in the "neotropical" region alone. Of the three thousand of which he admits the existence, our author gives a third to Great Britain; but, alas! another handbook, published in 1871, gives Great Britain only 325. These two remarkable statements are followed by a "complete" list of all the British birds found in the eighty poets, "carefully examined" by our expert. This list begins with the albatross, which perhaps might have been a British bird, but is not. From this beginning, the sequel may be inferred. The articles, our critic insists, abound in flat contradictions and absurd criticism, showing that the critic did not examine his eighty poets carefully, and knows little or nothing about birds. For all this she gives chapter and verse, and makes an article to which he will find it difficult to reply, unless, indeed, he should claim that he is by trade a humorist, and that this is one of his little jokes. But it is dangerous to be jocular in this way.

—*Harper's* has several illustrated articles that are worth looking at, particularly one in which Mr. Montgomery Schuyler belabors Queen Anne architecture in a way that would make the good old Queen blush for shame, were she alive to do it, and handles the New York house of this and all other periods without gloves. The subject is one of appalling proportions, and the wonder still grows why the main feature of the New York house, no matter whether it be Greek, or Gothic, or Queen Anne, or simply New York, should always be ugliness. Bostonians do not make their streets as hideous as we do, and even the New York householder builds himself a nice-looking house in the country, and we have always thought that one reason why he keeps his family, or his family keep him, every year longer and longer in the country is the recollection of the hideous building in which the winter has to be spent. Mr. W. R. Grace, late Mayor of New York, contributes an article on the government of cities, from which we take the following extract, as it relates to a subject on which every ex-Mayor is qualified to speak from sad experience, and is also of great immediate practical importance:

"The first step in the proper direction has already been taken in this State, but only after long delay and much opposition. In 1881 a resolution was offered in the Assembly at Albany proposing an amendment to Section 9, Article VIII., of the Constitution, guaranteeing to cities the right of municipal self-government, republican in form, and restricting the power of the Legislature to the enactment of general laws in reference thereto. It prescribes that it shall be the duty of the Legislature to provide for the organization of cities and incorporated villages, and to restrict their power of taxation, etc., by the passage of general laws only, applicable alike to all incorporated cities, and that the Legislature shall not pass any special or local bill affecting the municipal government of a city. It also provides that 'no city shall increase its permanent debt, or raise the rate of taxation above that prevailing at the time of the adoption of the amendment, or undertake new public works, or direct public funds into new channels of expenditure, or issue its bonds, other than revenue bonds, until the act authorizing the same shall have been published for at least three months, and thereafter submitted to the people of the city at a general election, and received a majority of all the votes cast for and against it at such election.' The resolution failed of passage until 1882, when it passed both the Senate and the Assembly. It will now come up for a second passage by the Legislature about to be elected, before it can be submitted to the people of the State. Whatever objections may be made to the latter part of the proposed amendment, it is certain that its first part is the longest and most practical stride which has ever been taken in this State toward securing the liberties of localities and making a recurrence of past and a continuance of present evils impossible."

The first thing to be done, Mr. Grace insists, is to free the cities from the tyranny of the Legislature; then, and then only, will charter reform be possible.

—The *Rundschau* for August contains two short stories by Wildenbruch and the conclusion of a novelette by Kielland. No less than thirty-six pages are devoted to an article by C. Justi on the "Spanish Bridal Tour of the Prince of Wales in 1623," full of interesting details. An article by Prof. von Urlichs, on "Schiller and Fichte," contains some fragments of letters which enable the writer to give a more complete account than his predecessors of a curious episode in the life of the two Jena professors. Schiller, as editor of the *Horen*, had made arrangements with Fichte for an article on "Spirit and Letter in Philosophy." Schiller, however, did not approve of the article and refused it, telling Fichte in very plain German that he was neither satisfied with its form nor its contents, that it lacked definiteness and clearness, and was guilty of the fault of passing from the most abstruse generalizations to tirades. Fichte's answer, elicited by this severe criticism, contains in a few lines an admirable criticism of the difference between the two thinkers, not to his own advantage, it must be confessed. "You generally adopt the analytic method," Fichte says, "the method of a strict system; and you base your popularity on your inexhaustible supply of images, which you almost invariably make use of in place of abstract notions. You chain the imagination, which can only be free, and wish to compel it to think. For my part, I am obliged to translate everything you write before I can understand you, and others are in the same predicament. Your philosophical writings have been admired and wondered at, but so far as I can find out they have been less read and not at all understood." Prof. L. Sohncke, of Jena, writes on the aims of modern physical science. The four principal aims and problems, he thinks, are the working out of the consequences of the law of the conservation of energy; the further study of spectrum analysis; the solution of the fundamental problems of molecular physics; and the explanation of electrical phenomena. Theoretically, the greatest advance of recent time lies in the abandonment of the notion of six imponderable "fluida," which have been reduced to three, while there is reason to believe that two of the remaining ones—positive and negative electricity—will be ultimately identified with ether, while, inversely, the vibrations of light may be conceived as small electric currents. A. Lammers discusses the new temperance movement in Germany, without seeming to be able to advance any definite proposals or conclusions. The new movement has so far met with passive rather than active opposition, the public indifference being largely due to the fact that a similar movement, started thirty years ago, collapsed spontaneously. It is the opinion of some physicians and managers of charitable institutions that drunkenness is on the increase, but this does not tally with the fact that a drunken person on the streets in German cities is a much rarer sight than formerly. The question, how far drunkenness is responsible for poverty, is to be scientifically considered at the Congress of German Overseers of the Poor, which is to meet at Dresden in the autumn.

—"Can English Law Be Taught at the Universities?" is the title of an inaugural lecture delivered at All Souls' College, Oxford, by Mr. A. V. Dicey, whose name needs no introduction to our own readers, and is familiar to the profession on both sides of the Atlantic. He has recently been appointed Vinerian Professor of English Law at Oxford, which, if we remember right, was the chair from which Blackstone a century ago delivered the lectures that form his Commentaries. It is hardly necessary to say that Mr. Dicey answers the question in the affirmative, and gives good reasons for his belief (largely drawn from the examples afforded by the successful law schools of this country), that law may be learned at a university, and that, without some systematic instruction in legal principles, the law is rarely, if ever, more than half learned, even in the course of the most active practice. Here the old theory that law is something that can only be acquired in an office has been long exploded. In fact, what will most surprise American readers of Mr. Dicey's lecture—and it well deserves reading—is the backward condition of English lega education which it reveals. There has been of recent years so much talk about the Inns of Court and legal examinations that the echoes of it produced an impression that a great deal in the way of educational reform had been accomplished: but Mr. Dicey is able to make the statement that "of direct instruction or tuition English lawyers have, till within the last twenty-five years, received nothing whatever, and even now the lectures which are delivered by distinguished professors in the hall of the Temple or of Lincoln's Inn are the ornament rather than any essential part of legal education. Knowledge of law is still, as it has been for centuries, acquired by actual practice in the courts, or by the imitative practice miscalled 'reading' in Chambers." Moreover, the whole bar is so wedded to superstition on the subject that Mr. Dicey believes that, in the high noon of the enlightened age in which we live, if the question could be submitted in the form of a "case" to a body of eminent counsel, there is no doubt that their answer would be that English law cannot and ought not to be taught at the universities. There are so many points at which the American bar feels the profession here to be a good deal below the level of the profession in England, that it is a satisfaction to reflect that in the opportunities of obtaining a good legal education we long ago took the lead, and that American lawyers have in the Harvard and Yale and Columbia Law Schools a set of institutions which are fair subjects for boasting. Among the class of men who go through college in this country there are hardly any who are so ignorant as to imagine that the law can be best learned by practice, without any theoretical preparation.

With us the trouble is not with the universities, but with the State examinations, which are worthless as a means of keeping out uneducated lawyers, and the result is that with some of the best law schools in the world, we have a bar the level of whose general acquirements is at least not higher than that of the profession in England. The proportion of lawyers who go through the schools with us is very small in comparison with the whole number of the profession, and in the requirements for admission preparatory study in a school generally counts only as so much time devoted to what in England is called "reading"—*i. e.*, sitting in an office and acquiring law chiefly by absorption through the pores of the skin—would do. Young men who get a medical education by watching druggists put up prescriptions, labor all their lives under a disagreeable suspicion of being quacks; and it would be a great thing for the law, both in England and America, if there was the same feeling about the rule of thumb in the preparation for the delicate work of assisting in the administration of justice.

—A curious case has just been decided in the French courts. M. Mario Uchard, the novelist, saw in M. Sardou's play of "Odette" an imitation of his own play "La Fiammina," and he brought suit against the dramatist for literary theft, with the result that M. Sardou has been cleared of the charge. A year ago M. Uchard published his statement in a pamphlet, 'Un Dossier: "La Fiammina" contre "Odette."' M. Sardou prepared a counter-statement, which he published at the time of the trial, 'Mes Plagiats: Réplique à Mario Uchard' (Paris: Librairie Universelle; New York: F. W. Christern). M Sardou is almost as vigorous and as pointed in his memoir as was his predecessor, Beaumarchais, and we imagine that M. Uchard has found this pamphlet very interesting reading. Such it certainly is to all who are familiar with the more modern French drama. Not content with demolishing M. Uchard, and with proving plainly that he owes him nothing, while the indebtedness is probably on the other side, M. Sardou takes occasion to meet squarely the charge of plagiarism brought against many of his works. In this he succeeds not quite so well, although he gives many details as to the characteristic origins of certain of his plays. For instance, "Les Pattes de Mouche," known to us as the "Scrap of Paper," was suggested to him by a half-burnt fragment of a letter with which he lighted his cigar, and he is indebted to Poe, not for the main suggestion, but only for the device of concealing the letter well in sight. "Fédora," again, is based on an episode of Spanish history, for which M. Sardou gives chapter and verse. It is with some surprise that we learn that this sombre tale of Russian intrigue was at first only a plot for an *opéra comique*. But although M. Sardou fences well, he has to stand on the defensive always; and he confesses the obligation to Poe, secondary as it was, for the "Pattes de Mouche," and to an anonymous tale for the chief situation of "Nos Intimes," and to Diderot for "Fernande," and to Charles de Bernard for "Les Pommes du Voisin," thus confirming the general belief that his strength is more in extreme ingenuity of construction than in originality of invention.

—It has been a standing puzzle to antiquaries how the great stones of Avebury and Stonehenge were put into their places. A nation that could command the ingenious mechanical contrivances by which the Egyptians erected their great temples and obelisks and pyramids, would have been able to shape and polish and carve its megaliths better than the pillars at Stonehenge. The *Builder* makes a contribution to the solution of the difficulty by bringing it into connection with the reported discovery in the Pas de Calais of the fossil remains of a race of giants. Muscular strength increases very fast in proportion to height. If the pre-Adamite giants were seven feet high, they would be two and a half times as strong as a race that was five feet four inches high on the average. Such a powerful race could and would delight to build with rocks which their puny successors could not even overthrow. Their existence in geological periods is by no means sure; the very great age of the so-called druidical and the so-called Pelasgic monuments is contested. But the half-proved suppositions confirm one another, and the fractions of certainty come much nearer making two assured facts than the laws of arithmetic would allow. The giants will explain the position of the monoliths; the existence of the enormous buildings implies a race of extraordinarily powerful builders.

MAINE'S EARLY LAW AND CUSTOM.—I.

Dissertations on Early Law and Custom. Chiefly selected from Lectures delivered at Oxford. By Sir Henry Sumner Maine. London: John Murray. 1883.

TWENTY-TWO years have passed since Sir Henry Maine published his 'Ancient Law.' His "chief object" was then "to indicate some of the earliest ideas of mankind as they are reflected in ancient law, and to point out the relation of these ideas to modern thought." This aim he has pursued for nearly a quarter of a century, and whoever studies English literature, or watches the current of contemporary thought, must feel that Maine has more completely than any living writer attained his end. He has turned the mind of English readers, as it never has been turned before, toward the earliest ideas of mankind; he has made them all see that these ideas are reflected in 'Ancient Law'; he has convinced even the dullest of students that such early ideas have a very close relation to modern thought. No doubt the time has been favorable to the success of our author's labors: he has sprung into the current and swum with it. But to discern the line of speculation which suits the age, and which will be fruitful of results, is itself no trifling achievement. The want of such insight has rendered the toil of Buckle utterly futile, and has struck with sterility a good deal of the work of John Mill. Moreover, a man may pursue the right direction in speculation and yet be unable really to further the thought of the world: he may be deficient in freshness of intellect, he may lack the power to impress his ideas on his generation. When a writer produces such an effect on the men of his time as has been produced by Maine, it becomes a subject of legitimate and interesting inquiry to consider what are the special gifts by which his success has been accomplished. 'Early Law and Custom' is a book full of interest from its specific contents. It contains chapters as good and suggestive in their way as the best parts of 'Ancient Law,' and it is hardly possible to give higher praise to the last of Maine's writings than to assert that it may be compared, without disadvantage, with the earliest and best-known expression of his ideas. But the most interesting point in 'Early Law and Custom' is not any one of the theories which it contains, but the light which it throws upon the genius of its author. From a candid and intelligent study of its pages a critic can discern in part what are the qualities to which Maine owes his brilliant success.

To read 'Early Law and Custom' (and the same remark applies emphatically to 'Ancient Law') is like looking of a summer's morning out upon an open landscape. The observer is charmed with a mixed sense of expanse, of light, and of serenity. Of all the qualities which have enabled Maine to fascinate the imagination of his countrymen, none has served him so well as the capacity for seeing, and making others see, the marked outlines, the wide bearings, the infinite interest of legal speculation. Englishmen had been accustomed to think of law as a dry, technical pursuit, of little interest except to persons who wish to succeed at the bar. Historians till very recent times had (as we have often pointed out) overlooked or forgotten the close connection between the legal and the political development of the nation. The one class of thinkers who had made law a subject of speculation had both neglected and even discouraged the historical side of their topic. Till Maine opened a new train of ideas to the English world, law was considered either as a branch of technical training, or, by the school who followed in the steps of Bentham or Austin, as a portion of applied logic. A sentence which we have already quoted, from the preface to the first edition of Maine's first work, struck a new note. The notion "that the ideas of mankind" were "reflected in law," the conception of the "relation of early legal ideas to modern thought," were themselves new thoughts to the mass of even the educated public. They were in fact the expression of a new, broad, and general view, which fascinated readers by its very expansiveness. Look through the headings to the chapters either of Maine's earliest or of his latest book, and the very names display his aptitude for dealing with the general aspects of legal history. "Ancient Codes," "Legal Fictions," "Primitive Society and Ancient Law," "Religion and Law," "The King in his relation to Early Justice," "The Decay of Feudal Property in France and in England"—each of these titles and a dozen more is itself suggestive of new inquiries and of new ways of regarding law, history, and philosophy.

The capacity for taking in the various aspects of a large topic, of which these titles are, so to speak, the accidental sign, is not of itself the same thing as originality; and most of the actual facts laid before the reader in Maine's 'Ancient Law,' though new to the generality of English lawyers (who were twenty years ago profoundly ignorant of any law but their own), might have been gathered from foreign authors or from Roman law. The nature of customary law, the extent and influence of the *patria potestas*, the mode in which the Prætors had moulded the civil law of Rome in accordance with notions of equity, the growth of the ideas connoted by the term 'law of nature,' and the influence which, under different forms, the conception or fiction of a law of nature had exerted in different ages, were matters about which, in 1860, Englishmen might, if they had chosen, have obtained much information (though in matter of fact they did not obtain it) from foreign writers, without waiting for the appearance of Maine's 'Ancient Law.' But the fact that many of Maine's ideas must have been the result of studies which, owing to his influence, are far more usual now than they were when he trained himself as a jurist, does not in any way detract from the true preëminence of our author. This lies not so much in the exposition of ideas in themselves peculiar to himself, as in the breadth of view that enables him to bring together notions which, while scattered and isolated, failed to produce any adequate effect, even among those who knew of their existence, and which, until combined together, could not arrest the attention even of thoughtful and educated men. Neither Mill nor Grote was a man of ordinary type; each of them sought to catch sight of all new truth; each of them had come under the influence of Austin, yet neither of them obtained even a glimpse of the discoveries to be made by the student of early law.

The width of the field, moreover, which Maine is able to take in at one glance is the source of one quality which has a special charm for intelligent readers: he possesses beyond any other author whom we can mention the art of bringing together ideas which seem to ordinary minds to be unconnected, and which yet, when our teacher has combined them, appear to have an intimate connection. What, for instance, is more full of interest than the parallel traced in 'Ancient Law' between the equity of the Prætor and the very different equity administered by the Court of Chancery? or what is more full of real enlightenment than the comparison, constantly suggested by Maine, between the growth of the law of Rome and the development of the law of England? These unexpected approximations of things which, but for the teacher's aid, we should have supposed to have nothing in common, have sometimes almost the character of wit.

"Perhaps there are few things which at first sight seem to have a more distant connection with one another than the customs of Primogeniture and Borough English and the Scriptural parable of the Prodigal Son. Yet precisely the same group of usages lies at the root of the institution and gives its point to the story. The division of the family property does not wait for the father's death. The son who wishes to leave the family home takes his share with him, and goes abroad to add to it or waste it. The son who remains at home continues under *patria potestas*, serving his father and never transgressing his commandments, but entitled at his death to the entire remnant of his property. 'Son, thou art ever with me, and all that I have is thine,' says the father in the parable, and this is precisely the foundation of the rule of ancient law. Which, indeed, shall be the home staying son is a point on which there has been much diversity of usage. In the Scriptural example, it is the eldest son."

Here, indeed, we have a brilliant specimen of what may fairly be termed the wit of generalization. But candor compels the admission that the passage we have cited, if it displays the brilliancy, also betrays the weak side of our author's genius. He takes in so wide a view that one doubts whether he does not occasionally bring into one range of ideas notions between which there is no real connection. The brilliant suggestion that the well-known parable contains a reference to Jewish law and custom, may be the result either of such a flash of insight as is sometimes granted to thinkers whose thoughts and imagination have been long turned to one favorite topic, or of actual knowledge which Sir Henry Maine does not communicate to his pupils. But, so far as these pupils are concerned, the suggestion of their teacher remains neither more nor less than an ingenious hypothesis. What is needed is to show from Jewish law the existence of some such rule of inheritance as Maine's comment on the parable assumes to have been in force. It is hardly conceivable that, if his view be correct, it is not capable of confirmation. But if, as we are perfectly willing to believe, study of the legal ideas of the Jews in the time of Christ would show that Hebrew lawyers then knew of customs resembling Borough English, it is to be deeply regretted that the proofs of a remarkable fact are not laid before the readers of 'Early Law and Custom.' We dwell upon this point because the case we have cited illustrates the one great defect in our author's speculations. Hypotheses which are full of possible instruction are often left by him unverified and therefore unestablished. This is provoking to admirers who are more than inclined to believe that research would generally confirm, as it in many cases has confirmed, the theories propounded in 'Ancient Law,' and the volumes which have followed it. But it may be well doubted whether the somewhat indefinite line which in all Maine's works separates ascertained fact from probable and always ingenious conjecture, has not rather increased than lessened the influence of his writings. A wide and striking view is none the less impressive because of a certain vagueness about its distant outlines.

For if our author's theories are infected with a certain vagueness arising from the very boldness of his conjectures, no reader of Maine's writings has ever reason to complain of obscurity: they are full of light "It was not," he writes, "part of my object to determine the absolute origin of human society. I have written very few pages which have any bearing on the subject, and I must confess a certain distaste for inquiries which, when I have attempted to push them far, have always landed me in mudbanks and fog." This is one of the few statements as to personal feeling or disposition to be found in the pages of a writer little given to obtrude his personality upon his readers. No one can doubt its absolute truth. An abhorrence of intellectual "mudbanks and fog" is exactly the quality which is suggested by every line that he has written. It is, we may add, a quality as rare as it is valuable among thinkers who delight in the captivating pursuit of bold theories. There are authors enough who have mistaken fogs of their own raising for light which was perplexing only because of its dazzling brightness, and have been prepared to declare any mudbank to be a new land of promise if it happened to be a mudbank discovered by themselves.

But width of view and lucidity of style have scarcely conduced more to the impressiveness of Maine's writings than a quality hard to define, but which may be described as intellectual serenity or suavity. The topics in which he has been engaged are full of controversy. Deal with the origin of society, with the early ideas of mankind, with the nature of law, and the like, and you at once enter a field where at every step you meet a disputant, and (truth compels us to add) in general an angry disputant. Why, indeed, purely speculative inquiries should excite hot anger among men who ought to be rivals only in their eagerness to arrive at truth, is a question well worthy the consideration of moral philosophers. But that it is difficult indeed for any one to engage in these inquiries, and yet to preserve a philosophic calm, is proved to any one who wants proof by even a slight acquaintance with literature. That, however, the dignified urbanity of a philosophic inquirer can be maintained even by one engaged in investigating the early habits and institutions of mankind, is convincingly shown by the whole tenor of our author's works. His writings are from their nature controversial, but never did any man preserve a tone less provocative of dispute. In this he is unlike the leading writers of our day. Sir James Stephen, Mr. Freeman, and Mr. Froude are as unlike each other as it is possible for three men to be who are all persons of very marked individuality; yet they have each this in common, that they display throughout their writings a tone of defiance and self-assertion. None of them would dream of avoiding a fight; each of them would perhaps go a little out of his way to seek a fight. The author of 'Early Law and Custom' deals with opposition and with opponents in a manner quite foreign to any of these eminent intellectual athletes. He provokes no combat; he states and expounds his views, and his very statement and exposition become their best defence.

Nor is his calmness the apathetic indifference of a man who avoids discussion. He shows in every page he writes his knowledge that his theories may meet with legitimate and fair opposition. To the thinkers whose writings confirm or extend his own conclusions, such as Mr. Pollock or Sir Alfred Lyall, he gives a courteous welcome. To theorists such as Mr. Morgan or Mr. McLennan, who would undoubtedly have ranged themselves in opposition to many of his views, he displays the courtesy of an opponent who acknowledges that he and his critics are laboring in the same field of inquiry and may learn much from one another. "I think it useful to remark that the point at issue seems to me capable of being more simply stated than it usually is by these writers and their followers." This is the sort of gentle correction of statements to be treated with the utmost respect, by which Maine confutes by simple restatement the theories of "those two most original inquirers," McLennan and Morgan. He offers a sort of compromise to thinkers whom he refuses to regard as in reality opponents. The whole tone of his language suggests that, though he is unwilling to "take sides" with Morgan or with McLennan, he accepts their views as partial solutions of problems that do not admit of any uniform answer, and meanwhile makes the telling if quiet remark that "the physiological elements of the Family must always have been present," and that "the fact alleged [namely, that descent was at one time traced through the mother] is not a fact of human nature, but a fact of human knowledge." The conclusion, in short, to which the reader is inevitably conducted is that the language used by Morgan and McLennan does "lead to a good deal of confusion of thought." Their views are displaced rather than confuted, and Sir Henry Maine's readers are convinced not only of the soundness of his own theories, but also of the intellectual calmness which marks his judgment.

The urbane critic achieves something more by his serenity than the mere avoidance of irritating friction against the self-love of rivals. He conciliates his readers. There is, no doubt, a certain charm in the knock-down, cut-and-thrust style of controversy, but an author who treats his opponents like fools whose errors deserve remorseless exposure, is almost certain to overreach his object. His blows are apt to fall on his readers. His pupils are irritated, they take sides against their teacher, they at best look at him as one subject to the human frailties of passion or impatience. Maine avoids all the disadvantages which in the long run detract from the reputation of the literary polemic. He soothes, he conciliates, he gains over his audience. They are charmed with their teacher's suavity, they trust a philosopher so firmly established in the truth that he cannot be ruffled by contradiction; they above all admire a serenity of wisdom which seems somehow to belong as much to the intelligent reader himself as to his instructor.

THE TWO VAN ARTEVELDES.

James and Philip van Arteveld. Two Episodes in the History of the Fourteenth Century. By James Hutton. Harper & Brothers. 1883.

James and Philip van Artevelde. By W. J. Ashley, B.A., late Scholar of Balliol College, Oxford. Being the Lothian Prize Essay for 1882. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

AFTER Froissart, the great chronicler of the time, the character and career of James van Artevelde have down to our time generally been described in the following manner. James (or Jacob), a native of Ghent, of low birth but great ability, acquired wealth as a brewer, and by the shrewd use of it, and still more by his fascinating eloquence, won a leading influence over his fellow-citizens Revolting against their feudal lord, the Count of Flanders, and his over-lord, the King of France, they made him the chief captain of their forces. Equally audacious and sel-

fish, he surrounded himself with a body-guard of armed ruffians, proscribed the nobility, assassinated his opponents, and used the revenues of Ghent and her allies, the other great communes of Flanders, for his own gratification. He formed an alliance with Edward III. of England, drove the Count of Flanders into France, and induced the Flemings to acknowledge Edward as King of France; but when he formed the project of making the Black Prince Governor of Flanders, the people of Ghent rose against him, and he was slain in the summer of 1345. His son Philip, who, from the tranquil retirement of an obscure life, was, during the siege of the city by the younger Count in 1381, suddenly called to the captaincy by the acclamation of the guilds, and defeated and captured the Count, but in the following year succumbed and fell in the battle of Roosebeke, fighting against the French, has been depicted, after the same Froissart, as a man affected by the popularity and power so suddenly won, fond of pomp and magnificence, and aping the semblance of royalty.

Even after the patriotic historiography of such Flemish writers of our own age as Voisin and Kervyn de Lettenhove had done justice to the higher aims and qualities of James van Artevelde and his son, and exploded many fables about them, English writers continued to represent them in the false light of mediæval prejudices and anti-popular animosities. As early as 1845 Mr. Hutton made an attempt to draw the attention of the English public to the incorrectness of their conception of that period in Flemish history—a period specially interesting by reason of events connected with English conquests; but his attempt was too feeble to achieve its object. He has now returned to his old theme and task after an extensive study of Flemish history, and supported by the great authority of Lettenhove's 'Jacques d'Artevelde' (1863) and 'Histoire de Flandre' (1874), and Vanderkindere's 'Siècle des Artevelde' (1879).

The purpose of his work is thus "to place in their true light, before English readers, the characters and careers of two remarkable men, who, for the space of well-nigh six centuries, have been cruelly misunderstood and misrepresented." He does, however, more than that—though not to the advantage of his sketches as pictures of interesting historical episodes. He tells the history of Flanders from the beginning of the Middle Ages down to the time of James van Artevelde, of the interval between James and Philip, and of the age following the latter, with considerable minuteness, and by so doing not only destroys the dramatic unity of the work, but fatigues his reader with unattractive details before introducing his heroes.

Mr. Hutton also labors under the disadvantage of lacking sympathy with democracy, while vindicating two of its champions from imputations upon their characters made by writers imbued with aristocratic prejudices. He sides with the Flemish communes and their leaders in their struggles with the Counts of Flanders and the Crown of France, and sees in James van Artevelde—instead of the self-seeking demagogue of the chroniclers—a patriotic defender of constitutional freedom and an able statesman, who conceived the lofty ambition of founding a nation through the close alliance of Brabant and Hainaut with Flanders, and with the aid of England; but he shows very little inclination to admire, with Motley, "the violent little commonwealths," with their frequent popular commotions—especially if contrasted not with despotisms, but with states in which a powerful hereditary aristocracy stood between the monarch and the people. His tableau of public and private life in the industrial and commercial cities of Flanders in the fourteenth century—of the galling and stupid oppression constantly practised by the guilds on the laboring classes, of the reckless cruelty with which the commonwealths waged wars against each other or chastised the insubordination of the unprivileged, of the bloody feuds of rival corporations, of such ingratitude toward eminent citizens as caused the tragic end of the elder Van Artevelde, of the vulgar extravagance of the rich, and the superstitious ignorance and laxity of morals which pervaded all classes—is as dismal and distressing to the student of mediæval history as any picture of life in the monarchico-aristocratic states of the same period could possibly be. A mild kind of historical pessimism, which manifests itself even in forebodings of an evil democratic future, breathes through the whole book; and, if correct in his shadows, the author can certainly be reproached with scarcely alluding, in his able review of the time, to all that was then bright through the workings of industry and nascent art, civil communion, and religious benevolence. And with all his zeal in the defence of his two heroes, Mr. Hutton is not blind toward their defects either. Of the younger of them, whom even his detractors depict as just and equitable, eloquent and courageous, he says: "Philip van Arteveld was great neither as a general nor as a statesman. Whatever greatness he had was thrust upon him, chiefly through the accident of his birth." Of James and his position the following extract will suffice to present the principal features:

"The weavers were the most numerous and powerful of all the craft-guilds, and are believed to have been about 40,000 strong at the period under notice. . . . Perhaps as a counterpoise to the weavers, Van Arteveld labored to improve the position of the minor crafts, and caused his name to be entered on the register of the brewers—which may very likely have originated the rumor that he was a brewer [and of low birth]. . . . No sooner was he admitted into the brewers' guild than he was chosen their *deken*, or *doyen*, and then by common consent the fifty-two minor crafts elected him *souverainen deken*. In this capacity he appears to have been entitled to a body-guard of *zweerd draegers*, or sword-bearers, clothed in red, with striped sleeves. . . . James van Arteveld was by no means a dictator or an autocrat. Whatever power he exercised, it was through the free choice of his fellow citizens. . . . In 1342 he had tendered the resignation of his post as *hooftman*, and he was reëlected with three of his former colleagues. He was neither a usurper nor a revolutionist. The real charge to be made against his policy is based on its civic selfishness and commercial narrowness of vision. He thought less of Flanders than of Ghent, and less of Ghent than of the prosperity of the woollen manufactures. He would not have hesitated to slay with his own hand a respectable, industrious fellow-countryman if he presumed to work a loom without belonging to the weavers' guild in one of the 'good towns.' Nor would he have scrupled to raze to the ground any town or hamlet that encroached upon the charters granted to Bruges, Ghent, and Ypres."

Mr. Ashley's book on the Arteveldes differs in plan and execution from Mr. Hutton's. It is almost closely limited to its subjects, as stated in the title. Though considering the history of the Artevelde in its relation to the general development of the Flemish towns, it does not attempt a history of Flanders. The introductory parts are brief, and even the condition of the Flemish commonwealths in the fourteenth century, in which the heroes of the book acted, is sketched only from a political standpoint. Within its narrower scope, however, this concise little book—the author modestly calls it an essay—is much more exhaustive than the other. The general view taken of the two leaders of the Gantois and of the circumstances under which they were called to lead, being mainly based on identical authorities, is nearly the same in both works. But Mr. Ashley analyzes the national, feudal, and municipal points involved more fully than Mr. Hutton, and, without much troubling himself about characters and general moral aspects, examines tendencies and results in a different spirit. He shares as little Mr. Hutton's historical pessimism as his anti-democratic opinions, though his opposite leanings are kept in check by a calm and judicious literary disposition. To him "the history of the Flemish towns in the fourteenth century is the record, not of jealous and meaningless squabbles, and of the uproars of the 'residuum,' but of an intelligible advance in the world's order." Nor does he regard the democratic commotions of Flanders as isolated movements. All Western Europe was beginning to move in the same direction. He decidedly rejects the former notions concerning James van Artevelde, does not believe that he ever assumed the title of Rewaert, or Governor, but is strongly inclined to believe in the scheme attributed to him of making the Prince of Wales Count of Flanders. Of his violent fall he offers the following as "a tentative explanation":

"It has been seen that so long as the Counts were struggling to maintain their independence against France, the ruling class in the great towns were uniformly on the side of the French King. But when, after the battle of Cassel, the Count had become the obedient tool of France, and the King began to assist him in attacking their privileges, the 'majores' were forced to ally themselves with the artisans, with whom, up to that time, they had been engaged in a bitter contest. They had therefore acquiesced in the elevation and measures of Artevelde. But these measures were such as to weaken their power and to concede in principle, if not in fact, the whole contention of the artisans. As soon therefore as Artevelde had freed the country from the yoke of France, his power was threatened. . . . Probably most of the great families . . . were ready to support the present régime, in which they had still considerable power; but it is possible that even they had become lukewarm in their attachment to Artevelde since the Prince of Wales scheme had been put forward. A large body of the burgher aristocracy, however, had not learned wisdom from recent events: they were eager to overthrow one who had attacked their monopoly of office, and who, as a member of their own class, was in their eyes only the more guilty. It was not difficult to induce the fullers and small crafts to rise—men who preferred the semblance of power, if their rivals were excluded, to its reality if shared with them. A convenient cry for all was that Artevelde was betraying county and city to the English. They succeeded. With Artevelde fell the English alliance, and the return of the Count became inevitable."

ENGLISH PAINTERS.

La Peinture Anglaise. Par Ernest Chesneau. [Bibliothèque de l'enseignement des Beaux-Arts.] Paris: A. Quantin; New York: J. W. Bouton.

WRITING for a French public, and apparently called on to give a guide-book on English art, M. Chesneau has suddenly been lifted into a place of importance for the English art-world by the eccentric commendation of Mr. Ruskin, who, after his usual contradictory manner, having told us that he makes no mistakes in matters of art, has recommended M. Chesneau as a critic who knows more than he of art (wherein he is undoubtedly correct), and that where they differ he is wrong and M. Chesneau right. And, although the opinion of Mr. Ruskin on matters of practical detail or individual works of art is of no real value, and is every day, even in England, losing more and more of that ecclesiastical sanction which it has so long enjoyed, there remains to him a considerable congregation of faithful, and his influence on the literary side of art has been far too great in this generation for what he may say on any point in æsthetics not to attract serious attention from a very large public.

M. Chesneau has certainly, if our opinion is trustworthy, written the most sound and lumi-

nous critique on English painting which has yet seen the light. If it is marked by two decided defects, perhaps imposed on him by the guide-book nature of his essay—viz., a too great and too evident condescension to the English point of view, and a want of perspective in his comparative estimates of the artists, so that in his résumé the little men are out of all due relation magnified, when often they are not worthy of mention more than some who are entirely omitted—at least the general views offer a singular contrast to the accepted English criticism, and ought to teach the dabblers in praise and dispraise that there is such a thing as positive knowledge in criticism, and that it is not enough to ape Ruskin in his dogmaticalness and rhetoric to pass for an art critic. If English painting is not art, English criticism is not æsthetic; and this M. Chesneau may show even to men like Mr. Gosse, Mr. Comyns Carr, and Mr. Monkhouse. But there is little danger that they will profit much by M. Chesneau, for though opinions are glib and the public ignorant, it is safer to give, after *their* way, their opinions, than, after *his*, to give their reasons for them.

M. Chesneau deals in first principles, and his opening inquiry is, "Is there an English school?" and his reply is by so much the most important factor in his general review that it is worth quotation entire:

"If we hold to the strict sense of the word 'school,' it applies very imperfectly to the movement of painting in England. In fact, it serves generally to designate an *ensemble* of traditions and processes, a technical system, a particular taste in design, a feeling for color equally peculiar, aiding in the expression of a common ideal followed by the artists of a given nation in a given epoch. In this sense there is a Flemish school, a Dutch school, a Spanish school, different schools in Italy, a French school, but there is no English school. There is no English school, for what is made clear by the study of painting in England is precisely the absence of all common tradition: it is the absolute independence and, so to speak, isolation of every painter."

That this is true is rather a matter of pride to the Englishmen who affect art; the individuality and isolation of their painters being accepted as qualities in the best sense of the term, because they do not understand that art is collective, and is expressed by a development of tradition and a suite of discoveries and experiences through which the expression of the common ideal or ideals is finally attained, and not at all what the standard English critic and amateur take it for—a peculiar way of regarding nature, or a special manner in imitating her facts. English painting, with some few salient exceptions, is not art, but naturalism—neither the search for an ideal nor the expression of an emotion, but the gratification of a love of nature's facts. The most faithful representation of nature, no matter how complete in its faithfulness, is not necessarily art—is, indeed, almost certainly not art at all, but a form of science. Nature is merely the nurse of art at her very best. This is the error of the English as a people, and the explanation of their love for and success in landscape.

Up to a certain point, M. Chesneau follows the merits of English painting with judicial acumen, if showing at times a leniency which is more flattering to the English than useful to the audience to which the "Bibliothèque de l'enseignement des Beaux-Arts" addresses itself. That he fails to rise to the few exceptional attainments of individual English painters—Turner, Rossetti, and Blake, notably—is because in the essence of French art-culture there is a decorum and discipline which does not accept the work of such visionaries, as they seem to the École des Beaux-Arts and its world. To the purely plastic qualities of painting the author does complete relative justice, tempered by quite sufficient indulgence; and when it is question of Sir Joshua, Gainsborough, Hogarth, Wilkie, etc., he is frankly appreciative. Of Hogarth he sums up the qualities as follows:

"Anglo-Saxon in all the force of the term, sternly faithful to the spirit of his race, Hogarth did not understand, and in good faith despised, that which we call style, the traditions of masters, Art as expression or pictorial realization (*réalisation figurée*) of the Ideal. Drawing, color, composition are for him a dead letter—words without sense so long as they do not serve to express, firstly an idea, and secondarily an idea useful with moral tendencies, easily applicable and intelligible to all the world, from the peer of England to the lowest sailor in her ports. He had no feeling, therefore, for Art. . . . In a word, he was not an artist; he was, and was never anything other than, a moralist."

The comparison between Reynolds and Gainsborough is an excellent piece of criticism; there is nothing better in the book, and nothing better has been said of those true artists. Of the former's "Nelly O'Brien" he gives a charming critical description, concluding:

"This masterpiece of Reynolds, which is his greatest title to glory, could only be produced by the brush of an artist who had seen and studied everything at the north as well as at the south—all the sublime realizations of the masters in every country where the Genius of Art has set his divine feet. Everything in this admirable picture belongs to Reynolds, or rather he made his own on that day the elements which he had borrowed on his travels, from Leonardo da Vinci, from Correggio, from Velasquez, and from Rembrandt.

"It is by the employment of consummate science, trained to all processes, that Reynolds obtains in his portraits such piquant effects. He forged for his own use an arsenal of weapons, a collection of rules and processes solidly proven [this sentence shows that M. Chesneau's study of Reynolds's works is incomplete, for many are in a deplorable state—almost faded from view], collected and chosen in attentive study of the masters. He must have so much shadow and so much light; he avoids systematically such and such tones, and, by the extreme cleverness of his execution, he succeeds well in hiding this dreary forethought (*préoccupation aride*).

"Gainsborough, on the contrary, places himself before his model as before nature. The model furnishes him for every new work with new elements of the picturesque. He sees with his own eyes those demi-tints, those reflections which Reynolds planned for. Guided by an elevation natural to him, by the surest instinctive taste, he does not fall, though always sincere, into the trivialities of Hogarth, who was equally sincere, but in another way. Hogarth exaggerates the ugliness of the type to show it off better; hence all his portraits, according to what we learn from contemporary witnesses, have a striking resemblance, but exaggerated, antipathetic, and at least vulgar. Gainsborough imbibes especially the noble and pure impressions of the personage before him, and, without deceit, he gives to every work of his pencil a special character of ideal gravity as well as freedom. He keeps as far from the learned affectations of Reynolds as from the naïve brutality of Hogarth—he is by nature true."

We have space for but a few extracts from special criticism, to show the author's general current of thought:

"What other schools call high art (*peinture de style*), historical painting, has only had in England miserable representatives—certain unfortunates have dared the struggle bravely, but have utterly failed, and left but painful proofs of their courageous efforts. It is a sad series of bad daubs, without taste, without color, and scarcely composed."

"And if Hogarth is scarcely a painter, Wilkie is scarcely more so. The pictures of Wilkie, even in his best time, are marked by a great dryness, extreme weakness of handling, and no sentiment of the artistic wealth of nature. It would seem that these two artists saw with their brains, and not with their eyes."

"It is with Landseer's compositions as with those of John Martin and many other English painters: it is better to look at their engravings and avoid their painting, under penalty of irremediable disillusion. . . . Sir Edwin, then, is not, in the severe sense of the word, a painter any more than were, with all their great pretensions, Benjamin West, Hilton, and two or three other painters of whom we must speak."

"The English painters have finally discovered this pictorial impotence in their elders, but they seem to have considered it due not to a vice inherent in the national temperament, but to a technical mistake—a mistake too long accepted in arranging the palette. Struck as we are today by the fatiguing monotony of neutral tints, they have wished to try the other extreme, seek new processes, and, in their horror of bitumen, given themselves up to a veritable orgie of colors. . . . In the English galleries (Exhibitions of 1855 and 1867) a blinding cacography, a chaos of stupefying colors—not a tint; everywhere crude tones placed side by side, with a barbarism without example: blues and greens, violets and yellows, red and rose, placed at random generally; a face scarred, cut into two equal parts, one violet, the other straw-yellow, or a red earth and a green rock. Certainly there were fine exceptions. But where the French painter, however trivial, becomes at once serious, when the artist is before his easel, it would seem that the young English painters of this epoch, if they were not insane, became so, and put in their pictures all the madness which had troubled their lives: they doubtless believed painting a safety-valve for reason."

The conclusion of M. Chesneau's judgment of the pre-Raphaelite school must content us: "We must decide if the rôle of the painter consists in showing us the anatomy of life—that is to say, death—or the aspect of life. The question thus posed, there is no possible hesitation—we must pronounce against the pre-Raphaelites."

The endorsement of our author by Ruskin must be taken as one of those opinions he reserves the right to reverse when he pleases, upon the alternative of nullifying a great part of his own teaching. We prefer that the latter alternative should obtain.

"'Every plant,' says Mr. Ruskin [we retranslate our author's translation, not having Ruskin's book at hand], 'every flower of the field has its distinct and perfect beauty: it has its habitat, its expression, its particular function, and the highest art is that which seizes the specific character, which develops and illustrates it, and gives it its proper place in the *ensemble* of the landscape, and, by so doing, exalts and renders more intense the great impression which the picture is intended to excite.' Admirable theory, if the application did not destroy its value. . . . Mr. Ruskin attributes pictorial virtues to this truth to detail, studied with rigorously scientific exactitude, which do not belong to it. He seems to me to be in precise contradiction to the evidence given by the facts, when he affirms that this truth of detail is sufficient and necessary to obtain that 'simple, serious, and harmonious character which distinguishes the effect of unity of nature's views.' I insist with great regret, but it is precisely the contrary which happens with the pre-Raphaelites."

There is in this book too much evident reference to another public than that the author openly addresses, and too great a deference to Mr. Ruskin in exposing the differences between them. The general good seems to demand as great a freedom in dealing with the living critic as with the dead painters. So far as artistic culture and common-sense art go, M. Chesneau seems safe and comprehensive; where he fails is when art rises above the common sense to an uncommon attainment of individuality and a position which cannot be measured by the conventional standards. As to the three greatest (as well as most individual) of the English painters—Turner, Blake, and Rossetti—the author is lost. Like Ruskin, he may not underestimate them, but he misestimates them alike. The highest claim to greatness of none of these seems ever to have appeared either to Ruskin or Chesneau.

Martin Luther's Leben und Wirken. Von Gustav Plitt und E. F. Petersen. Leipzig. New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1883.

On the 10th of November of the present year occurs the four hundredth anniversary of Luther's

birth. The Protestant world, divided on a multitude of inferior questions, will be united in rendering honor to the man who, more than any other, gave to the religious movement of the sixteenth century the form which it needed to insure its success. Already numerous signs of a newly-awakened interest in the great reformer have appeared. The little book before us, begun by Professor Plitt, of Erlangen, and continued, after his death, by his pupil and friend, Pastor Petersen, in Lübeck, will remain a worthy contribution to the memorial literature of the occasion. Recent investigations have added much to the stock of information about Luther's life and activity. The result of these investigations has appeared in Julius Köstlin's 'Life and Writings of Luther,' and it is upon that work that at least the contribution of Doctor Petersen to the present volume is avowedly based.

The purpose kept in view by Plitt was to present, in a form suited to the understanding of the whole German people, learned and unlearned, the work of Luther as a reformer; to show him as the devout believer, the cautious doubter, the obstinate dogmatist, and finally the skilful organizer of a new ecclesiastical system. This purpose has been ably fulfilled. Our store of knowledge will not be materially increased, but our picture of the reform will be rendered clearer and more lasting by the reading of these pages. This will be especially true in regard to the many contradictions of temperament and intellectual character which appear in Luther's life, and which have served to obscure his figure in the minds of succeeding generations. Seldom has a character lent itself more readily to every form of misrepresentation. The Catholic writers, who represent Luther as a loud and often foul-mouthed demagogue, bent upon overturning the whole existing order of things, can find authority enough for their opinion. He may truthfully be represented as the fearless advocate of religious liberty, and as the timid, time-serving opponent of every form of individual freedom. We may think of him as the genial, whole-souled, affectionate husband, father, and friend, or as the passionate, bitter, and unforgiving enemy. It has been wisely said of him that he was courageous in character, but timid in intellect. If his mind could have followed where the dauntless heroism of his nature seemed always to be leading him, he might have appeared more consistent, more like our own ideal of what a reformer ought to be; but the German Reformation would never have gained the ground it did, and probably Luther would have found his place in history by the side of Karlstadt and Münzer, instead of towering above them as he now does, like a giant above pigmies.

The volume before us is no fulsome eulogy. Its tone is historical throughout; it presents the man with all his contradictions, leaving the reader to form from these many-sided reflections his own image of the central figure. For this service the authors deserve our thanks. Among Protestants the most usual impression of Luther is probably that of a restless seeker after improvement. We may fancy him, perhaps, to have been like some of our own modern professional reformers, men with a bee in their bonnets, which they are chasing for dear life without regard to other interests. The true Luther, however, as here presented, was as far as possible removed from this type of man. He was by nature conservative, and it was only through the force of a terrible struggle with himself that he was brought into action. Thus it was that all through his career he found himself bitterly opposed to all those other leaders of the religious movement whose primary object was the reformation of outward evils in the Church. Let one read here the story of the conference with Zwingli at Marburg, where Luther wrote with chalk upon the table, "This *is* my body"; and, in place of all answer to the irresistible arguments of his opponent, simply pointed to these words, and refused to budge from the utterly untenable ground he occupied. One must call this the very extravagance of obstinacy, and yet there is a deeper significance underneath. Luther refused to deal with the Swiss Reformers, not because they denied the trans- or consubstantiation, but because, as he elsewhere expressed it, "these men are of another spirit." They took another point of departure, and their methods were other than his. We read of these reformatory movements springing up spontaneously all over Europe, and we must regret that they could not have been united into an opposition which, humanly speaking, must have been irresistible. To Luther, however, alliance with men "of another spirit" would have been treason to his own cause, and it was this fine perception of difference in spirit which saved Luther to Germany, and gave him his far-reaching influence as the one man who could not waver, who overlooked all considerations when the purity of the new faith he had declared was endangered. We might multiply illustrations of this same dogged persistence in what he believed to be right.

This little volume holds thus a unique place in Luther literature, combining as it does a popular style with a true scholarly method, and in a compass which does not alarm even the most careless reader. A very poor woodcut of Luther after the Cranach portrait is in striking contrast to the otherwise elegant appearance of the work. There ought to be in English either a translation of this or a work occupying a similar place.

Brook Farm to Cedar Mountain in the War of the Rebellion—1861-62: A Revision and Enlargement (from the latest and most authentic sources) of Papers numbered 1, 2, and 3, entitled 'A History of the Second Massachusetts Regiment,' and the 'Second Massachusetts Regiment and Stonewall Jackson.' By George H. Gordon, Brevet Major-General, U. S. V., U. S. A., etc. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

General Gordon has done the public a real service in publishing this volume. It is made up of papers written for the annual gatherings of the officers of his regiment; it was suited to the ears of those who on these partly cheerful and partly pensive occasions are eager to recall the mirthful and the serious incidents of their military service, but whose thoroughly truthful appreciation of each other would never tolerate any exaggeration of statement or any simulated feeling. Hence we have as correct a picture of the real life of one of our very best volunteer regiments as it is possible to get. We have the story of its first year's experience, and let us say at once that the story is told very well. General Gordon writes easily; he passes from one mood to another very naturally; he has the power of saying strong things; he has also a nice sense of humor. His narrative is animated; the details never become tedious; and, owing to the fact before pointed out, that the chapters were all prepared for the officers of the regiment, the reader is almost made to feel that he too is in some sense a comrade in this noble regiment, whose organization and early achievements are here related.

The Second Massachusetts Infantry was as much like a regiment of regulars as it was possible for a volunteer regiment to be. Its colonel (Gordon) and lieutenant-colonel (Andrews) were graduates of the Military Academy; both were excellent soldiers. They remained with the regiment or in the same brigade for more than a year from the organization of the regiment, and they contributed largely to give it its solid, trustworthy character for steadiness, gallantry, discipline. There is much in the book before us relating to this subject of discipline. The reader will find how Governor Andrew tried to force Colonel Gordon to replace officers who had been, for some breaches of good order, compelled to resign; how the punishment necessary for soldiers in the field aroused suspicions and hard feelings in neighboring regiments. And it will also be seen how completely the experiment of a thoroughly-disciplined regiment finally succeeded, and what a strong, compact, harmonious body of men the Second Massachusetts became. Nowhere is this most important subject of military discipline treated of or illustrated with such carefulness as in General Gordon's history of his own regiment.

The Second were, fortunately, not engaged in the disastrous affair of Ball's Bluff. But the regiment came up, like many others, just after the fight was over, and our author not only gives us a vivid picture of the appearance of things on the day after the battle, but he has taken the pains to write a connected and lucid account of the whole affair, perhaps the best to be found anywhere. During the winter of 1861 and 1862 the army was in winter quarters. The Second was at Frederick, Maryland, a most loyal place. When the spring campaign opened, the regiment, being in Banks's corps, was sent to Harper's Ferry, and played a very prominent part in the advance and retreat of that corps in the spring of 1862. The descriptions of the night march to Winchester, when pursued by Stonewall Jackson, the gallant little fight near Kernstown, the brave but brief stand made at Winchester, are all very forcibly done, and constitute, we think, the most interesting portion of the book.

In the summer of 1862, Jackson having been recalled to Richmond, our forces again reëntered the valley of the Shenandoah, and the remains of Banks's corps were incorporated into the Army of Virginia under the command of General Pope. The Second Regiment had not, as yet, suffered to any great extent; it was now to pass through its first great experience. The battle of Cedar Mountain, a most unnecessary and unfortunate affair, fought, as General Gordon maintains, against General Pope's orders, cost the Second very dearly: the major was mortally wounded and a prisoner; five officers were killed, seven wounded, of whom two were prisoners, besides one unwounded officer taken prisoner; thirty-five per cent. of the regiment were killed, wounded, and missing. This loss has, of course, often been equalled by other regiments; the Second, we believe, equalled it at Gettysburg. But the feeling of the needlessness of the sacrifice, which was so strong at the time, is well brought out in General Gordon's pages.

A single word more. This narrative is valuable as showing very fairly and impartially the lights and shadows of a soldier's life in time of war, and the tremendous uncertainties of that royal game. No one can read it and retain much of his youthful ardor for the battle-field. But it shows what an admirable school war is for many of the manlier virtues—for self-denial, steadfastness, hopefulness, courage, and, in fine, for devotion to duty, whose claims, presented as they are to a soldier, in a concrete and inevitable shape, can be perhaps less easily evaded than the more general appeals made to peaceful and pleasure-loving humanity.

Text-Book of Geology. By Archibald Geikie. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

COMPILING a text-book of science is a very simple matter, and implies merely a moderate amount of industry and access to a fair library. What need is there, then, for the enormous number of such books which is published every year, and why do nearly all of them take their places on the shelves of unused volumes almost or quite as quickly as commonplace novels? How is it, on the other hand, that the appearance of certain text-books is hailed in scientific circles as an event, and that references to them, decades after their appearance, are always treated with respect? It is because the purpose of scientific instruction is to teach not mere information, valuable only as a possession, or, as children say, "to have," but to impart the power of applying the knowledge obtained in new combinations and under other conditions than those set forth. If an author or a teacher cannot apply the principles of science, if he has no practice in solving the problems which nature presents—in short, if he is not himself an investigator—he cannot vitalize his teachings or impart anything better than barren information. One cannot learn to read either the primer or the geological record from a schoolmaster who has never deciphered a single sentence for himself.

Mr. Geikie is not a mere man of learning, but a very successful original thinker; he is also endowed with excellent judgment in the fields in which his special work has not lain, and he possesses in a high degree the literary faculty. This happy union of qualifications has enabled him to write a text-book which marks an era in British science, as did Lyell's fifty years ago. It is almost impossible to avoid a comparison between the books, and not to dwell on the advance in science marked by the difference between them. Lyell wrote at a time when geological fancy, stimulated by some astounding developments as to the forces which had moulded the earth's surface, and the vastness of the lapses of time which must have preceded the historical period, had run riot, and no theory of tremendous physical revolutions which could be suggested was too absurd to meet acceptance. Lyell wrote in the interest of moderation, and pointed out that action such as can be traced at the present day was sufficient, if long enough continued, to account for many geological changes for which the aid of violent catastrophes had been invoked. In some respects he went too far; but his followers naturally outdid him, and adopted a doctrine of uniformitarianism so rigid as to preclude their acknowledging that any changes more violent than those now going on, or any changes of a different nature, had ever occurred. Thus wild speculation was succeeded by a bigoted conservatism scarcely less harmful to progress.

The English school of extreme uniformitarians is not yet extinct; but it is a most significant fact that neither uniformity nor catastrophe finds a place in Mr. Geikie's index, while in the body of the work each phenomenon as it comes up for discussion is considered upon its own merits, without any evidence of a preconception based upon the historical record. He concedes that physical revolutions which brought about breaks in the continuity of the chain of being sometimes extended over a whole zoölogical province, though more frequently over a minor region; and he was entirely convinced, while in this country, of the validity of the observations and reasoning by which geologists in America were led to believe that immense areas have suddenly been flooded with lava, not from volcanic cones, but from gaping fissures in the earth's crust. As the intellectual descendants of those whom Lyell opposed have long since abandoned the idea of the simultaneous annihilation of life over the whole world, uniformitarians, as represented by Mr. Geikie, and catastrophists of the modern school now meet half-way, and the question between them has disappeared, like the controversy which preceded it between the neptunists and the plutonists. There is, it is true, a fascination about Lyell's 'Principles' which Mr. Geikie's text-book does not possess; but this arises from the fact that Lyell wrote under the inspiration of a great idea, and, though it led him too far, it nevertheless gave a coherency to his disquisitions which no impartial exposition of the present condition of geological science could have. Not that this text-book is dull reading; on the contrary, the development of the subject is so good and the language so clear that one is always tempted to read a few pages further than he had intended.

American geologists cannot but be pleased with the recognition their work receives at Mr. Geikie's hands. Much geological matter has been published in this country which any specialist must recognize as trash, and many of the geological features of the Far West are so astounding in their character that, even in the absence of prejudice, it is difficult to credit without seeing them. The result has been that American memoirs were looked upon in Europe with suspicion, but Mr. Geikie recognizes the large amount of capital work which has been done, and draws his illustrations largely from this country. Indeed, his frontispiece is a copy of one of Mr. W. H. Holmes's wonderfully striking and admirably accurate drawings of the Grand Cañon of the Colorado. One important volume, however, the 'Descriptive Geology' of the Fortieth Parallel Survey, seems to have escaped his notice.

Neither has Mr. Geikie exhibited the too usual aversion of British scientific men toward going to the Continent for material, as he shows especially in his discussion of rocks. The study of rocks under the microscope began in England, but the Germans and French have pursued the subject with far more energy and with great success; and it is to the publications of Messrs. Rosenbusch, Zirkel, Fouqué, and Michel-Lévy that Mr. Geikie usually appeals as authorities on this subject, while adding independent matter of his own.

As a proof of the growing specialism in geology, it is worth while to mention the comparatively small space which historical and palæontological geology occupies in this work—less than one-third of the whole—while in the text-books of twenty years ago structural and dynamical geology, lithology, etc., were always greatly subordinated. Meantime, palæontology has become so vast a science that those who embrace it cannot pursue the other branches, while the general geologist is fain to leave the discussion of fossils to specialists.

It is not to be expected that any other geologist should agree with Mr. Geikie upon all the subjects treated in this book, or, in other words, on every geological question; but our author does not arouse the antagonism of those who differ from him, because he is not dogmatic. Many writers on geology seem to wish to convey the impression that their own views are the only reasonable ones, and that those who do not share them are either ignorant or incompetent; but this text-book, while stating conclusions as definitely as the condition of the science warrants, points out the uncertainty of many of them, and is full of suggestions as to what is yet to be learned, and how it may be approached. In short, it is a candid and suggestive book as well as a sound one.

The Chronicle of James I., King of Aragon, surnamed the Conqueror. (Written by himself.) Translated from the Catalan by the late John Forster, Esq., M.P. With an Historical Introduction, Notes, Appendix, Glossary, and General Index, by Pascual de Gayangos. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1883. 2 vols., paged continuously. Pp. xxxii.–726.

MR. FORSTER and Señor de Gayangos have earned the gratitude of all who do not read Spanish by placing within their reach one of the most remarkable historical productions of the Middle Ages. The translation was begun by Mr. Forster nearly eight years ago, and was completed, except a few chapters at the end, when his sudden death occurred, on the 7th of January, 1878. Señor de Gayangos, who had given him constant aid in the solution of such questions as demanded an especial knowledge of Spanish history and literature, then took the work in hand, and at last, after unavoidable delays, the 'Chronicle' has appeared in English. The editor seems to have printed the text very nearly as the translator left it, and portions of it are consequently very rough; but, with this exception, the book is readable throughout. The treaty or "capitulation" containing the terms of the surrender of Valencia, a table of contents, and a list of "*vocables obscurs*" have been omitted. The editor has inserted an excellent glossary of his own in place of the last, and the text of the "capitulation" may be found in the Spanish translation.

No one is better fitted to edit such a book than Señor de Gayangos, the translator of Al-Makani's 'Mohammedan Dynasties in Spain,' and the author, editor, or translator of many other very valuable works on kindred subjects. The first of his contributions to the present volume is the introduction, containing a brief sketch of the history of Aragon from 1104 to 1213, which, supplemented by the appendices "On the Military Orders of the Temple and the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem"; on the "Civil and Military Constitution" (of Aragon and Catalonia); and on the Moors in Majorca, Valencia, and Murcia, gives one a very good idea of the political condition of the Spanish peninsula and the Balearic Islands at the beginning of James's reign. There the historical sketch stops, and, as the chronicler is very chary of dates, and as those given in the notes are often strangely contradictory of one another, it is not always easy to follow the course of the narrative. A short estimate of James's character, a brief analysis of the 'Chronicle,' and a discussion of its authorship, complete the introduction. The translator and the editor adhere to the opinion, now almost universal in Spain, that the 'Chronicle' was the work of the King, and, in accordance with a memorandum left by Mr. Forster, the words "written by himself" appear on the title-page.

As to the notes, many show great learning, but a large number are mere repetitions of former statements, and not a few are positively incorrect. As an example of this latter defect, take the second note to page 458, which says: "In 1179 a treaty had been concluded between Ferdinand of Castile and James of Aragon." Now, James was born on either the 1st (note to page 10) or on the 2d (note to page xxiv.) of February, 1208; while, according to the last paragraph of "Appendix H.," a treaty was made between "his [James's] own father and Ferdinand of Castile." James's father was Pedro II., who reigned in the years 1196–1213, during which period no Ferdinand ruled in Castile. In fact, from any information contained in these two volumes, it seems impossible to discover when or by whom the treaty described in these ex-

tracts was concluded. The same want of care is very noticeable in the index, as, for instance, under Alfonso X. (of Castile) we find "his daughter married to James, 225," on which page of the 'Chronicle' the author mentions his own marriage with Yolande, daughter of Andrew II., King of Hungary, while Alfonso X. (of Castile) married James's daughter Yolande, or Violante, as the Spanish chroniclers call her. Innumerable errors of this nature, and an entire lack of system in the spelling of the names of persons and places, make the book difficult to use.

But these are subordinate matters, and, although very annoying, do not materially impair the value of the work. The 'Chronicle' is really an autobiography of James, or En Jacme, as he was christened (who is called Jayme by Muntaner, Jakmish by Al-Makani, Gaycum by Condé, and "King Jacob" by Woolsey in his 'International Law'), and the story is told in a manly and graphic way that is perfectly charming. The vicissitudes of the King's early life taught him a shrewdness which one does not generally associate with the times of chivalry. Thus, during the expedition to Majorca, he said: "Barons, horses are of great value in this country; each of us has but one, and one is worth twenty Saracens. I will show you how to kill this one [a dismounted Saracen knight]: Let us surround him; when he thrusts at one of us with his lance let another strike him in the back and send him down, so he will hurt no one." And in after years he writes: "I would not treat with them [certain men of Nules, in Valencia] till they were well warmed with meat and wine"—a passage which, corroborated as it is by others, shows that the Mohammedans of Valencia were not strict observers of the Koran. Another side of James's character is shown in the pretty story of the swallow "that had made her nest by the roundel on my tent, so I ordered the men not to take it down till the swallow had taken flight with her young ones, as she had come trusting in my protection."

James's nature was essentially warlike, and he believed that wars and good deeds were synonymous, as is shown by the following extract, which is remarkable in many respects. He is addressing the King of Navarre, and thus begins:

"Well do you know, King, that when the hour of death comes we kings take from this world nothing but a shroud apiece, which is indeed of better cloth than those of other people; but this only remains to us from the great power we once had, that we can serve God with it, and leave behind a good name for the good deeds we did. If in this world we do not do them, there will come no other time in which we can. If you please, I will show you how you can conquer in this war."

But the 'Chronicle' is of especial value from the glimpses it gives us of the art of war in the thirteenth century, and of the working of the Constitution of Catalonia and Aragon in those days. And here it is interesting to note the high opinion the King had of the common people, and the almost fiendish delight with which he used their money and good-will to thwart the projects of his barons, from whom he received little but opposition and ingratitude. In fine, these volumes deserve a place beside De Joinville on the library shelves.

The Provincial Councillors of Pennsylvania who held Office between 1733 and 1776, and those Earlier Councillors who were some time Chief Magistrates of the Province, and their Descendants. By Charles P. Keith. Philadelphia. 1883. Pp. 476.

So little has been written about the genealogies of families outside of New England, that it is with pleasure we hail a book relating the history of some of the leading families in Pennsylvania. The origin of many of the first settlers of that colony is evidently easily to be found. Unlike the founders of Massachusetts, they came hither after colonization had become open and reputable. They were not devotees seeking a refuge, men who willingly broke all family ties for the sake of conscience, but they were simply emigrants seeking in the fertile fields of a noble province a chance to establish themselves and acquire distinction. Those who were Quakers recorded their connection with the congregation they left in England; those who were agents or protégés of the proprietors seem often to have kept up their relationship with England. It is evident, therefore, that the genealogist will be on unusually sound ground in testing the pedigrees here collected.

The first family recorded herein is that of William Markham, a first cousin of William Penn, of a family long settled in Nottinghamshire. He left an only daughter. The next record is of Thomas Lloyd, son of Charles L., of Dolobran, in Wales, who was graduated at Oxford, and became President of the Council of Pennsylvania. He had one son, whose male line failed in the third generation, and numerous descendants through his daughters. Edward Shippen was a gentleman by birth, a merchant at Boston, where he married a Quakeress, and, joining that sect, he finally found it best to remove to Philadelphia. The sketch here printed was prepared by Elise Willing Balch, and is substantially that which appears in Thomas Balch's book on 'Letters and Papers relating to the Provincial History of Pennsylvania.' Not only is the Shippen name still extant, but one hundred pages are here given to the numerous female lines springing from this stem, and including many famous names in England as well as in this country.

The Logans claim descent from a good family in Scotland, though James, the President of the Council, was born in Ireland. He was a merchant in Bristol when he accepted Penn's invitation to emigrate. Descendants of the name survive, and are recorded herein, with their family connection.

Isaac Norrice, or Norris, was of London, and founded a flourishing family. Samuel Preston, from Maryland, left only two daughters, but it requires forty pages to trace their numerous progeny. Next follow Palmers, Hamiltons, Allens, Brookes, Grœmes, all noteworthy, some especially so. Then Plumsteds, Griffiths, Reads, Tills, Strettells, Hasells, Taylors, Turners, Growdons, Peterses, Shoemakers, Hopkinsons, and Asshetons. The name of John Penn brings in a short notice of that family. Then succeed the Lardners, Chews, Mifflins, Cadwaladers, Tilghmans, Molands, Laurences, Shippens, and Hickses.

It would be impossible to do justice to this volume in any review of moderate extent. It is a "Burke's Commoners" for Pennsylvania, treating in many cases so fully of families of national reputation that the reader is tempted to copy all he sees. It is a new piece of evidence for the argument that certain families and races are above the average of their fellows in qualities which insure them the control of whole communities. Of late years Pennsylvania has done much to redeem its reputation from the Bœotian taint, by the spirited and successful labors of its Historical Society; and as the organ of that society terms this book "the most important of the kind relating to Pennsylvania that has ever appeared," we are sure we have not overrated the value to be attached to it.

Such general collections usually lead to an increase in smaller treatises on particular families, and we hope that such may be the result now. Many of the families herein touched upon would furnish materials for separate genealogies of interest and historic value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bethan Edwards, Miss. "Disarmed!" Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.

Boston Illustrated. New ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.

Demarest, Mary Lee. My Ain Countree, and Other Verses. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 25.

Dixon, Rev. R. W. Mano: a Poetical History. George Routledge & Sons.

Froude, J. A. Historical, and Other Sketches. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.

Gozlan, L. La Pluie et le Beau Temps. Legouvé, E. Autour d'un Berceau. Wm. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.

Griswold, W. M. Index to Articles relating to History, Biography, Literature, Society, and Travel, contained in collections of Essays, etc. Bangor: Q. P. Index.

Lounge, Rev. A. Course of Philosophy, embracing Logic, Metaphysics, and Ethics. Baltimore: John B. Piet & Co.

Perry, Prof. A. L. Political Economy. 18th ed. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 50.

Scott, Sir W. Lay of the Last Minstrel; Marmion; Lady of the Lake. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Simmonds, P. L. A Dictionary of Useful Animals and their Products. E. & F. N. Spon.

Stoddard, W. O. Among the Lakes. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.

Up de Graff, Dr. T. S. Camping in the Alleghanies; or, Bodines. 2d ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.

Waples, R. Handbook on Parliamentary Practice. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.

Winser, H. J. The Great Northwest. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 30, 1883.

The Week.

ONE of the workingmen who testified on Monday before the Senate Committee—Mr. Edward King, a type-founder—declared that the growing opinion among workingmen was that the free admission of commodities, combined with the free admission of labor, would be more just than the exclusion of commodities with the free admission of immigrants. The wonder is that this opinion has not long ago become strong enough to make itself felt. Labor of all kinds, skilled as well as unskilled, is all that the man without capital has to offer for sale, and if any native commodity is worthy of protection, it is. In fact, the high-tariff men are so well aware of this that they always put the effect of the tariff in raising the price of labor in the forefront of their battle. But they never explain why the workingman does not need direct custom-house protection for his wares as well as the manufacturer for his. There is no doubt whatever that under the protectionist theory the American laborer is entitled to the benefit of the tax on immigrants, as the only proper set-off to the high price he has to pay for his clothing and lodging and tools. Every foreign laborer entering the country should undergo an appraisal based on age, health, and the current wages of his calling, and have a sufficient ad-valorem duty levied on him to keep down European competition in the labor market. This is simple justice, and this instead of high tariffs on commodities is what the now deluded American mechanic should hereafter demand at the polls of the protectionist Congressmen.

Justice Angell, of one of the district courts in this city, has awarded $100 damages against the Western Union for refusing to take a message during the late strike, unless the sender agreed to give it "subject to delay and mailing en route." The opinion is very long, and there is a great deal in it which does not seem to flow from the statute which furnishes his text, as that simply requires companies to receive despatches and transmit them "with impartiality and good faith." It does not prescribe the speed with which they will be transmitted, although the Justice seems to think it does. The probabilities are, therefore, that had the company said nothing about delay, but taken the despatches and sent them as fast as it could, it would be in a much better position than it is to-day. It is the imposing conditions which gives its assailants their principal hold on it in law. If a railroad takes a passenger, and carries him only at the rate of three miles an hour, and afterward pleads that it could not do better, it is much less open to attack than if it refuses to take any one who will not sign an agreement to be satisfied with three miles an hour.

We hope the State Department will in some manner explain the recent removal of Mr. B. O. Duncan, American Consul at Naples, who previously held a similar position for four years in Germany, and is in every respect a most competent man. We believe no reason for his dismissal has been given him, but we can hardly believe that the reason is to be found in the fact that his successor is the son of a personal friend of the President, who has never before been in the service, speaks no foreign language, and knows nothing of consular business, but is in poor health and wishes to have a year or two in a southern climate. We can hardly believe this; not simply because it would be a gross piece of jobbery, if true, but because it would not tally in the least with the President's civil-service reform professions. We know that he is in favor of keeping qualified, experienced men in their places as long as they behave well, and therefore do not see how he could turn such a man out in order to enable an invalid to reside abroad at the public expense. It must be that the new man is a robust person, possessing even greater familiarity than Mr. Duncan with the Italian language and life, and that it is supposed that he will make better reports, and be able to stand the wear and tear of the office better, and, in fact, be in all respects an improvement on his predecessor. It must be, too, that the President chose him for the place not because he was the son of an old friend, but because he had been struck with his remarkable natural fitness for consular work.

Judge Hoadly's present "fix" is a curious illustration of the condition of the Democratic party. He was nominated by the Ohio Democrats in the belief that the party must be "progressive" and "keep up with the times," and because he represents in a general way what is called "Tilden." A "Tilden man" among the Democrats has long since ceased to mean a man who desires Tilden's nomination; it only signifies a Democrat who thinks that a political party ought to have some principles, and even insists on putting down in black and white what he thinks they ought to be. A Tilden man always believes in a revenue tariff, some sort of civil-service reform, and, in fact, differs little from sensible Republicans except that on election day he generally votes for a Democrat who hates all reform, instead of a Republican who equally dislikes it. Judge Hoadly was a Tilden man and formerly a Republican, and on his nomination began to prepare to give his followers as much Tilden as he could. It appears, however, that Tilden has a very bad effect on a large part of the Ohio Democrats. It makes them positively sick and disgusted, and not only this, but fills them with thoughts of suicidal revenge. To be revenged on Hoadly they circulated a story at once that he had bought his nomination. As often as he gives them any Tilden, they produce some awful story about him, a mode of carrying on a campaign which naturally takes the heart out of his followers, besides greatly depressing the Judge himself—all of which looks very badly for 1884. The stomach of the party must be drilled into enduring all that Tilden implies, or the "mortgage on success" which it holds will never be foreclosed.

The New York *Globe*, the organ of the colored people in this city, thinks the opinion that the law ought not to compel persons who keep restaurants for white people to admit colored people to them, if by so doing they would drive the white people away and ruin their business, "appears grounded in selfishness and narrowness rather than in law or equity." But the *Globe* must remember that restaurant-keeping is essentially a selfish business. It is intended for the profit of the proprietor simply, and the legitimacy of this purpose is fully recognized by law. Moreover, he is not an innkeeper to whom travellers may have to resort for shelter. Under no conceivable circumstances can it be absolutely necessary for a colored man to get into a particular white restaurant in a large city. We think it is most melancholy and absurd that a respectable, well-behaved colored man cannot have any accommodation whatever that he can pay for, but there is radical injustice in singling out one class by law, and imposing on it the burden of rising, at heavy expense, above a prejudice felt by the bulk of the community. The cause of all the trouble about color in theatres, and hotels, and restaurants, lies in the fact that each man who feels the color prejudice, but is ashamed to confess it, likes to ease his conscience by compelling somebody else to disregard it, even at a great loss. During the late Whittaker affair at West Point it came out that one father, who brought his son up to enter, was very fierce in his denunciation of the color prejudice among the cadets, and the Commandant eagerly availed himself of this to propose that the son should share Whittaker's room, but the offer was promptly and firmly rejected. The way to put down this relic of barbarism is to have every man begin *himself* to testify against it, at some personal inconvenience, however small, and not impose the duty on restaurant-keepers.

Father Lynch, of Lakeville, Connecticut, has succeeded in stirring up a miniature religious war in that quiet town which gives some promise of involving the whole State. The holy man began the trouble by putting up in the main walk leading from the street to the door of the Catholic church a crucifix twelve feet high, an object such as has never been seen in a New England village street, and which a hundred years ago would have been at once pulled down. The Lakeville Protestants protested, on the very fair ground that their feelings were outraged; the Catholics replied by "boycotting" the Protestant shopkeepers; to meet this, Senator Barnum, the local railroad and factory "king," is said to have threatened to discharge every Catholic in his employ if the image was not removed, and to deprive Catholics of all railroad facili-

ties on the occasion of the dedication of the convent, which is to come off next month. Father Lynch, unless he is a very obstinate or foolish man, will take down the image. Catholics can carry on their worship indoors without offending Protestants, and the Pope does not require priests to adorn Connecticut villages with objects which shock the feelings of other Christians. The idea that religious liberty involves the right to do whatever you please in public, or even in public view on your own grounds, is nonsensical; and the Protestants, if they will not wander from the original cause of dispute and seek the aid of kings and monopolists, can easily prevent Father Lynch from posing very long as a martyr.

Many of the most disquieting features of the general business situation have disappeared in the last few weeks. Chief among these, of course, were the various strikes, notably that of the telegraph operators, which not only failed, but is already almost forgotten. The apprehension caused by a succession of mercantile failures and bank embarrassments has also disappeared. The crops are all turning out to be quite as good as the best anticipations of a few months ago, and in consequence of the now acknowledged deficiency of the principal grain crops of Europe, there is a better prospect for a good foreign demand for our surplus. Notwithstanding these improvements in the general outlook, the present situation is not satisfactory. There is still a prevailing distrust on the part of capital regarding new enterprises and even as regards the older channels of investment. Mercantile paper is scrutinized so closely that few are able to borrow except those who have least necessity for it. Railway mortgages have steadily declined in price day by day for more than a month. Those who have taken large amounts from the various bankers' syndicates with the expectation of retailing them out at a profit find no market for them. The banks are unusually full of idle money, which is offered for call loans, and to some extent for short-time loans on collateral security. Between now and November 1 there will also be $27,000,000 more capital dislodged from investment in United States bonds by the redemption of $5,000,000 weekly under the 121st call of the Secretary. The rates for foreign exchange are also gradually declining, so that the importation of specie in the last three months of the year is more than probable, and will thus add to the amount of capital for investment in this country.

All the accounts of the Minnesota tornado agree in saying that the signs of it were distinctly visible for many minutes before it came, that there was time for everybody who was at home when it approached to get into a cellar, and that no one who took refuge in a cellar was hurt. All this seems to point to the conclusion that the towns which lie in the zone which these storms most frequently traverse, and which the meteorologists seem able to define, must create and maintain a new officer, whose duty will be simply that of a lookout, and provide him with bells or other means of giving the alarm when the usual signs of a tornado show themselves. Even if the construction of the houses in these regions, too, has not to be changed, the cellars will have to be prepared as refuges, and it is a question whether farmers will not provide themselves with a pit in every field, into which laborers can jump when likely to be caught by the storm when out working. Safety seems to lie below the surface of the ground, and nowhere else. Anyhow, it is very unlikely that the present condition of unpreparedness which these tornadoes everywhere find, can last much longer, and it would be very un-American if it did so.

The Sultan has failed in his lawsuit against the Providence Tool Company, owing, as the lawyers say, to his having "mistaken his remedy." His complaint was that he had bought arms of the company and paid for them, but they had never been delivered. By a natural mistake, he came to the conclusion that the best thing for him to do was to apply for an injunction —the remedy which, with mandamus and habeas corpus, must by this time seem to foreigners the corner-stone of American jurisprudence. Judge Blatchford has decided, however, that he should have tried replevin or trover, remedies of which neither he nor the Mussulman jurists who surround him have probably ever heard. We fear that he will find the litigation into which he has so precipitately plunged very tedious and unprofitable, though, as tending to spread a knowledge of the common law in Turkey, all American jurists must regard it with approval.

The visit of Lord Coleridge to this country is an interesting event, both in itself and as a reminder of the close kinship that has always existed between the American and the English bench and bar. It is a commonplace that the law under which we live is in substance, notwithstanding all the differences between the two countries, the same as that which governs the relations between man and man throughout the British Empire. For the origin of great safeguards of personal liberty and private right by which our judges protect us against the encroachments of corrupt or arbitrary power, we have to go back to a period of English history in which it was as yet unknown that the western hemisphere existed. The very constitutions which form the legal basis of our Government are modelled upon that of England. American judges and lawyers are so nearly like English judges and lawyers, and their work is so like that which English judges and lawyers have to perform, that until very recently one of the most eminent leaders of the English bar to-day was an American, who had never appeared in an English court until a period of life at which many men retire from practice altogether. Kent and Story are cited in English courts precisely as Blackstone is cited in ours, and the English law reports are as much a part of the necessary equipment of an American lawyer's library as the statutes of the United States. Still, the visit of an English judge of Lord Coleridge's rank serves strongly to suggest that the wonderful advances we have made in the last hundred years in population, in wealth, in literature, in science, and in the arts ought not to blind us to the possibility of our still learning a great deal as to the administration of justice from England. The American ideal of a judge does not differ from the English. It is one of the best and purest ideals that the development of society has ever produced in the world; and that it can be actually realized, the careers of Kent, Marshall, and many living American judges remain to remind us. But that the tendency of our present method of treating the judicial cause—that is, of cutting down judicial salaries to the lowest point, and making the office a political prize, instead of a reward for legal services—is to bring on to the bench the best type of judge, no American lawyer who knows anything about the condition of the profession will venture to assert. English judges have still some of the defects which spring from the connection of the bench with the court, and the aristocratic constitution of the "upper classes" in England; but in the great matters of the law—in perfect independence of politics, in entire freedom from corruption or suspicion of corruption, in absolute impartiality between the rich and the poor, the strong and the weak—the English bench is a signal proof of what a good system of appointment and remuneration might do for us.

The session of the British Parliament has closed, leaving the two parties in a curiously unexpected condition. It has been anticipated, for instance, for some months, that by this time Mr. Gladstone would be so much reduced in health and spirits that he would probably retire. It is now reported, however, that he has not felt so well for ten years, and is very sanguine and cheerful. It is, on the contrary, the leader of the Opposition whose health has given way. Sir Stafford Northcote is said to be permanently disabled for the very fatiguing position of a Parliamentary leader, and Lord Randolph Churchill, in spite of his youth, is worse off physically than either of them. It was expected, too, that, owing to the obstruction both of the Irish and the Conservatives, the Ministry would have accomplished so little of their legislative programme, and suffered so much from the uncertainty of their policy in Egypt, that they would be utterly discredited with the country. Far from this, however, they seem to have produced the effect of accomplishing a good deal. The hardest nut they had to crack was the Agricultural Holdings Bill, giving the farmer compensation for his improvements, and limiting the landlord's right to distrain for rent. This they have succeeded in passing, in spite of the opposition of the Lords, who gave additional *éclat* to its passage by backing down at the last moment from destructive amendments on which they had insisted in the beginning. Moreover, the Ministers have come well out of their Irish troubles. Agrarian crime has greatly diminished. The landlords themselves, in their late remonstrances against the Land Act, bear unconscious testimony to its advantages to the tenants, and the Irish Registration Bill, which the Lords have defeated, would have increased the number of Parnellite voters, and the

blame of its failure rests wholly on the Tory peers. This has probably done something to mitigate Irish indignation over the refusal to amend the Land Act this session.

Lord Salisbury's performances in the Lords over the Agricultural Holdings Bill have sunk his reputation for sagacity lower than ever. In fact, the disorganization of the Tories seems to be greater than ever before. Their old leaders have now all either retired or been discredited, and no new ones are coming forward. They are, indeed, much in the position of the Democrats in this country. They have no hold on the press outside of London, and no very effective hold in London. The Conservative cause is, moreover, not one which attracts young men. It is everywhere the cause of the old and the rich and securely placed. But the able political writers and speakers and canvassers are generally young and poor and have their way to make, and they are therefore, one may say, naturally Liberals, and find it easier to make their way in the Liberal ranks. Under the old system, before the Reform Bill, the Tories were able to get the promising young men into their service by giving them seats in Parliament, or leading them to expect them from pocket boroughs, or by putting them into the civil service; but now, what with Parliamentary reform and civil-service reform, they have nothing to offer to rising talent. They made an attempt lately to show that they had a good deal of literary ability among them by establishing a monthly review, but the ability has not yet begun to show itself. In fact, the Tory party shows greater and greater signs of sinking down into a party of rich men engaged in bitter defence of their property against the rest of the nation, and pledged to oppose all change on the simple ground that even a good change is likely to lead to bad ones, and that, therefore, all change is bad. No political party can ever occupy this position long without having its judgment on political questions discredited, and losing its hold on the great body of the people.

The English Church seems, from Mr. Mackonochie's case, to offer to sincere men a better chance of continuous and harmless martyrdom than any other ecclesiastical organization in the modern world. The litigation over his case has been going on for sixteen years, and for this period he has been a standing testimony in the sight of all mankind of the steadfastness of faith of the good ritualist. The Church first undertook to punish the good man for his candles, and vestments, and genuflexions in 1867; and in 1868 Sir R. Phillimore decided, after a hearing lasting sixteen days, that punishment must be ordered; but so mild and gentle is the Church with offenders nowadays that he was only admonished to conform to the true and established ritual. After the decision it appeared that one or two of his offences had been overlooked, and for these he was taken in hand by the Privy Council, which admonished him over again. But, like the true martyr that he had determined to be, he paid no attention to those admonitions; and, therefore, in 1869 he was admonished once more. In 1870 he was suspended; in 1874 he was again suspended; in 1878 he was suspended for three years for continued disobedience; and now, in 1883, sentence of deprivation has at length been pronounced against him. Even this, it is believed, will not convince him of his errors. This modern kind of martyrdom is a great improvement over the old mediæval sort; but it is so obviously an excellent advertisement for the martyr, that his peculiar faith does not really derive much benefit from it. The Mackonochie martyrdom does not seem to have helped Ritualism or hurt the English Church. If the reverend gentleman, instead of being prosecuted, could have got himself roasted alive in a public place for his heretical practices, what accessions the Ritualists might have had!

The news from the French operations in Tonquin shows an advance, or attempt to advance, along two lines—one over the Red River from Hanoi, where Captain de Rivière was killed, and one over the Thai-binh River, which runs nearly parallel with it. The advance from Hanoi was successful, but the ground gained could not be retained, owing to floods. That over the Thai-binh was more fortunate, for it resulted in the capture of Haidzuong (a considerable place, which was carried by assault), and secured a large number of guns and some money, about $50,000. The French do not appear, however, to have captured any Anamites to speak of. On the most important point in the campaign, the effect of active operations on the health of the troops, we hear nothing. Nevertheless, it is on this that the support which the campaign will receive from opinion at home must depend. The joy caused by the news of the victory in Paris must have been a good deal marred by the article which has just appeared in the semi-official *North German Gazette*, accusing France of being the great disturber of European peace, and the only serious menace to it now. Nobody seems to know what it means, but it caused the funds to fall both in Paris and Berlin, and has evidently frightened the French a good deal, because it makes them see Bismarck in the air. He sometimes seems to torment them for his amusement, by saying something threatening just as they are in the middle of some scheme for the extension of French influence. He growled once or twice in this way when they were up to the neck in the Tunisian enterprise, and it seemed as if all the houses in France shook, and the children awoke and began to cry.

The Comte de Chambord has at last passed away, but his illness has lasted so long, and his death has been so long a question of days, that all its political effects have already shown themselves. The Comte de Paris has been for two months in the eyes of everybody who knows him the heir to the crown. Unfortunately for him and for the crown, probably only a small minority of the French people know who he is or how he comes to be heir to the crown. Mr. Gilbert Hamerton, in his charming description of French life—'Around My House'—gives the total ignorance of all his farmer neighbors about the Comte de Paris and his brothers, and this in a very intelligent neighborhood, as a striking illustration of the completeness with which the old monarchy has perished in France. Even the ruins are gone, as the poet says. But it has to be remembered that it is ninety years in time, and two hundred in events, since Louis XVI. was beheaded, and over fifty years since any one has sat on the French throne who owed it to the grace of God alone.

While the Comte de Chambord was approaching his last hour, his "cousin," the Comte de Paris, again visited him at Frohsdorf, whither he had formerly carried the homage of the Orleans family. The reconciliation between the chief representatives of the two French branches of the House of Bourbon was sealed anew, and the grandson of Louis Philippe, who in 1830 occupied the throne of France from which a revolution had driven King Charles X., and great-grandson of Philippe Égalité, who in 1793 voted in the Convention for the death of Louis XVI., was acknowledged as heir to his royal rights by the grandson of Charles and grandnephew of Louis. There is hardly any doubt that this succession to the dignity of royal claimant will be recognized as perfectly legal by nine-tenths at least of all the supporters of the late pretender. There is, however, a small fraction of French Legitimists who, from aversion to the revolutionary history of the House of Orleans and the Orleans princes' well-known anti-clerical propensities, favor the succession of Don Carlos, the chief representative of the Spanish branch of the Bourbons, according to Legitimist views; and the question has been mooted in independent journals whether the claim of that pretender is not valid in reality. Impartially examined, however, it proves to rest on a sophism. The Spanish Bourbons, with their collateral branches of Naples and Parma, are all descended from Philip V. of Spain, the son of a son of Louis XIV. of France, and thus, it is true, are naturally more direct heirs to the French crown than the Orleans princes, who are descendants of Philip of Orleans, a younger brother of Louis XIV. But Philip V., when confirmed on his throne, after the long war of Spanish succession, by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, formally and most unequivocally renounced, in a separate document attached to that treaty, every right and pretension to the French throne, for himself, for his heirs and successors, and for all times, adding, "de même que si Moy et mes Descendants n'eussions pas été néz ni ne fussions pas au monde." Now, it is pretended that, as this renunciation was made, in the interest of the European balance of power, for a distinct equivalent—the crown of Spain—and this equivalent has been taken from the direct heir, by the male line, of Philip V., through the abrogation by Ferdinand VII. of the Salic law, which ruled the Bourbon succession, the renunciation is to be considered as annulled by the revolutionary act of the father of Queen Isabella, sanctioned by the consent of all the Powers of Europe. Armed with this sophism, Don Carlos may claim the throne of France, as he claims that of Spain, but he will find it difficult to ascend either.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, August 22, to TUESDAY, August 28, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR and his party arrived at the Upper Geyser Basin of the Yellowstone Park last Friday. Their plans were changed on Saturday by the information that Secretary Teller of the Interior Department awaited him at the Upper Geyser Basin. He accordingly met the Secretary there, and a discussion followed on the new Indian policy.

Three promotions were made in the Treasury Department on Monday by Acting Secretary French under the regulations in force before the passage of the Civil-Service Act. There are said to be six or seven vacancies in the War Department, but only requisitions enough to fill three of them have as yet been made upon the Civil-Service Commission, and all of these are for the ten-hundred-dollar class—the lowest grade of clerkship in the department. In all of these cases the vacancies originally occurred in the twelve-hundred-dollar grade, but promotions were made along the line until the vacancies existed in the lowest grade only. It is said in the departments that this will undoubtedly be the case until the rules of the Commission regulating promotions are promulgated.

The Commissioner of Internal Revenue, Mr. Evans, has decided, in regard to a certain so-called "Bitters," that when the mixture is sold as a beverage a license must be paid, but when sold in good faith as a medicine none will be required. The bitters contain 32 per cent. of alcohol.

The complete returns to the General Land Office of public lands disposed of during the fiscal year ended June 30, show that 19,035,683 acres were taken up in that time, an increase of more than 5,000,000 acres over the total for the previous year. Of the aggregate amount, 8,171,794 were taken up under the Homestead Act, 3,101,333 under the Timber Culture Act, and the remainder by cash sales and other means.

Both ends of the Northern Pacific Railroad were connected on Wednesday, thirty miles west of Mullen Tunnel, Montana. A golden spike will be driven on September 8, at the formal opening of the road. Parties of distinguished Germans and Englishmen have arrived in this city from Europe to attend the ceremonies and view the new road.

The Democratic State Central Committee of New York met at Saratoga on Thursday, and decided to call the State Convention to meet at Buffalo on September 27. Robert B. Roosevelt (anti-Tammany) offered a resolution in effect that the New York city primaries should be held by open meeting and on the plan of the County Democracy. State Senator Grady, as the mouthpiece of Tammany, made an earnest plea for the old way of selecting delegates, but Mr. Roosevelt's resolution was adopted by a vote of 18 to 12, after some bitter words not calculated to invite harmony within the party. It is probable that the resolutions will not interfere with the plans of Tammany, and that they, with Irving Hall, will send delegates as usual to the State Convention, in the well-founded hope that they will be admitted.

Chairman John F. Smyth, of the New York Republican State Committee, declared in an interview published on Monday that he would not accept a reëlection, because "the time has come when we of the Republican party must vote either as Republicans or Democrats, and, be it with reason or without reason, it is a fact plainly patent that to select me as Chairman would be viewed with distrust."

The Georgia Legislature on Thursday passed a Congressional apportionment bill which would give six out of ten districts to the Republicans on a proper count of the negro vote. The bill was passed by a Democratic majority.

One hundred and fifty leading Democrats met at the Burnet House, Cincinnati, on Monday, and appointed a committee to determine the best means of calling another convention to nominate a county ticket in place of John McLean's *Enquirer* ticket. It is the opinion of many prominent Democrats in Cincinnati that the McLean ticket will be defeated.

The Missouri Free-Trade League has issued an invitation to all who oppose a protective tariff and favor genuine reform in the revenue laws, to a conference at St. Louis on October 2, 1883, for the discussion of this question. The meeting will be non-partisan.

A Workingman's Congress was in session during the week in this city. Little action of any general interest was taken. It adjourned on Friday.

Mr. Henry George presented his well-known views on land, labor, and capital to the United States Senate Sub-Committee on Labor and Education in this city on Wednesday. The committee will probably continue in session until about the time for the meeting of Congress.

Judgment was given on Friday against the Western Union Telegraph for $100 penalty in the two suits brought against it by Messrs. Marrin, Biddle & Marrin, of this city, in the First District Civil Court. The suits were brought because the company during the strike refused to send two messages offered by the plaintiffs, except subject to delay.

The employees of the American Rapid Telegraph Company have been notified that hereafter they will receive the old rate of wages paid before the strike.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science adjourned at Minneapolis on Wednesday, after electing Prof. J. H. Leslie, of Philadelphia, President. The next annual meeting will be held in Philadelphia on September 3, 1884.

The American Bar Association closed its sixth annual session at Saratoga on Friday. Cortlandt Parker, of New Jersey, was elected President for the ensuing year.

Lord Chief Justice Coleridge, of England, arrived in this city on Friday. He is the guest of the American Bar Association during his stay in this country, which will not end until November 9.

A convention of deaf mutes was opened in Lyric Hall, this city, on Tuesday morning. More than 300 delegates were present.

The Grand Encampment of Knights Templars has been in session at San Francisco for some time. Commanderies from all parts of the United States were present.

It was asserted in Chicago on Tuesday, on good authority, that the Southwestern Railway Association would not contest the suit of the Boston Sugar Refinery, instituted to test the question whether a railway pool can divert freight from the road to which it is specially consigned by the shipper. This is accepted as a confession that the pool managers realize that they have no standing in court on the question raised—namely, that a railway, as a common carrier, is bound to accept all freight tendered, in spite of pool regulations.

The schedules of the insolvent firm of E. C. Stedman & Co., brokers, were filed on Monday in the office of the Clerk of the Court of Common Pleas, in this city. The nominal indebtedness of the firm is placed at $117,940 83, while the actual liabilities are only $62,940 83. The nominal assets are $91,047 62, and the actual assets $33,877 93. Among the largest creditors of the insolvent firm are the National Bank of the Republic to the amount of $20,000, and the Bank of North America to the amount of $35,000, for money borrowed.

Reports from the Middle and Western States say that the apple crop is almost a failure. A sudden blight has affected the Hudson River peach crop, and the earlier peaches at least will be very poor.

At Pensacola, Fla., the yellow fever has increased during the week. On Friday citizens began to desert the town. The Government, through the Surgeon-General of the Marine Hospital, has given orders for relief measures.

Hunnewell, Kansas, has been in an excited state, owing to an attempt of cowboys to run the affairs of the town to suit themselves. The authorities are now masters of the situation.

At Gallatin, Mo., the trial of Frank James, the outlaw and train-robber, has begun.

Reports were received on Wednesday and Thursday of a terrible tornado in Minnesota on August 21. The tornado struck the northern part of the city of Rochester in that State, and made a clean sweep of elevators, residences, railroad engine-house, and other property. The city contained about 8,000 inhabitants. Twenty-nine persons were killed, and about fifty seriously injured. Property to the amount of $400,000 was destroyed. In the neighborhood crops worth $300,000 were damaged. One-third of the houses in Rochester were destroyed, most of them belonging to the poorer classes. A relief committee has been formed, and at least $100,000 are asked for. It is proposed to rebuild the exterior of the workmen's houses, leaving the inside to be furnished by the occupants.

A yacht, the *Mystery*, sailed from New Haven for Nantucket on August 10, with four young men on board. It has not since been heard of. Bodies were washed ashore at West Falmouth, Mass., on Wednesday, and one of them has been identified as that of a member of the unfortunate party. A body found at Pocasset on Thursday was also identified as that of another of the yachtsmen. The sunken wreck of the *Mystery* has also been identified.

The boilers of the steamboat *Riverdale*, which has been plying between this city and various Hudson River towns, exploded when the boat was opposite West Twelfth Street on Tuesday afternoon. There were about sixty passengers on board. Five persons are known to have been killed and a number were injured. The boat sank soon after the explosion. The boilers were inspected recently and pronounced in good condition. A great many tugs and steamboats went to the assistance of the struggling passengers, and they were soon rescued from the water and the decks of the sinking steamer.

A fire in the lumber yards of Williamsport, Pa., on Monday night, destroyed property worth about $600,000.

A duel took place on Tuesday morning near Loudon City, Ill., between Louis Phillips and Jacob Rosenbrook, both residents of Bowling Green Township, in which the latter was killed instantly and the former wounded so badly that he died a few hours after. The affair had its origin in a grudge of long standing, growing out of the disrespectful remarks by Phillips concerning Rosenbrook's sister. Both duellists were young men.

FOREIGN.

Comte de Chambord died at Frohsdorf, Austria, on Friday morning, at 7:15 o'clock, after a long illness. He was sixty-three years of age, the head of the elder branch of the Bourbons of France, and the last of his line. He had acknowledged Comte de Paris, head of the Orleans family, as his successor. The Paris Republican journals spoke respectfully of the dead Count. The will of the Count has been opened. It contains no reference to his political wishes. The funeral will occur on September 3, at Göritz. The Orleans Princes on Monday went to Frohsdorf.

It is reported in Paris that Prince Jerome Napoleon intends to publish a manifesto, to

be issued coincident with the funeral of the Comte de Chambord.

Considerable excitement was caused in Europe by an article in the Berlin *North German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ), replying to the attacks of French journals on Germany and their cry for revenge. It declared that France alone threatened the peace of Europe. It said that such a state of affairs could not continue without serious danger, and that the passions fomented by the agitation might burst the bounds of peace. The article startled Paris and caused prices to fall on the bourses of Paris, Vienna, and Berlin. The French papers repelled the charges, and intimated that France was better prepared than previously for the designs of Bismarck. The English journals declared that the warning was overdone and the cause of it insufficient. The Austrian press asked if the article meant war. The Paris papers give various reasons for the article, including the recent unveiling, at Courbevoie, of the monument commemorative of the defence of Paris, the vote for fortress artillery, the tour of inspection of General Thibaudin, the French Minister of War, and the completion of forts on the eastern frontier. It is also believed in Paris that the Tonquin expedition is particularly distasteful to Germany.

The attack on Hai-dzuong, in Tonquin, the key to an important canal, reported last week, resulted in its capture by the French They took 150 cannon and $50,000 of Anamite cash. The Anamites fled to the interior. On Thursday another less successful movement was reported, which took place on August 15. An attack was made by the French on Phouhai, in the direction of Sontay, a strong post seven miles from Hanoi. The French force was 2,000 strong, and the enemy numbered 15,000. The position was carried, but was found untenable. A portion of the troops retreated to the river, covered by gunboats, while the rest went in the direction of Hanoi. There have been terrible floods, causing loss of life, in the vicinity of that city. The enemy's loss in the engagement was 300 killed and 1,000 wounded. The French doctors complain of a want of medicine and stores. The operations of the French have been stopped for the present, the number of troops being insufficient to attack Sontay and Bacninh, which are the strongest positions in the delta. The repulse of the French has disheartened them and encouraged the enemy. To cope successfully with the enemy it is said the French will require 10,000 men. It was reported from Paris on Friday that the Anamites had fallen back to Sontay. On Saturday a despatch was received in Paris announcing that the French had bombarded and captured the forts and batteries at the mouth of the Hué River after a brilliant land attack. The operations occurred on August 18, 19, and 20. Seven hundred Anamites were killed during the engagement. The only casualties suffered by the French were several men slightly wounded. The gunboats *Vipère* and *Lynx* have entered the Thuan passage. The French Admiral has granted a truce. A blockade has been declared. The Emperor of Anam desires to place himself under French protection.

The Emperor received M. Harmand, the French Civil Commissioner, on August 23, and showed complete submission. Anam is compelled by treaty to pay the costs of the war, the French to retain the forts on the Hué River pending payment. The Anamite troops in Tonquin are to be placed at the disposal of General Bouet, the French commander. The Emperor has not yet accepted the treaty submitted to him, but he will probably accept it. The treaty requires guarantees that a French protectorate shall be recognized all over Anam. The success of the French in Anam has rendered China more hostile to them. Chinese troops continue to arrive on the Yun-nan frontier.

The French Government has received a telegram from Admiral Pierre, the French commander in Madagascar, asserting that the trial of Mr. Shaw, the English missionary who was arrested by the French, has resulted in the dismissal of the charge against him, and he has therefore been liberated, and has arrived at the island of Reunion. The London *Times* declares that this settles the Tamatave difficulty, which should never have arisen. Mr. Shaw intends to press a claim for damages against the French Government.

The previous rumors of the death of Queen Ranavalo, of Madagascar, are confirmed by a despatch announcing that she died on July 13. Her reign, which began in 1868, has been marked by many reforms. The term of military service was reduced to five years. The corrupt system of legal procedure was exchanged for trial by jury. National education was so vigorously promoted that the native schools in the provinces of Imerina and Betsileo alone now muster a total of 130,000 pupils. The cruel practices of native superstition were swept away, and in 1877 all the slaves from the Mozambique coast who still remained in the country were freed. The spread of Christianity was encouraged. Idolatry was extirpated.

Etienne Énault, author of 'The Man of Midnight,' 'The Last Love,' and other novels, died in Paris on Wednesday at the age of sixty-six.

Parliament was prorogued at 2 o'clock on Saturday afternoon. The Queen's speech closing the session was read by a royal commission. She referred to the continuance of harmonious relations with foreign Powers, and reasserted that the occupation of Egypt was only temporary. She said she could refer with greater satisfaction than on some former occasions to the condition of Ireland. The provisions of the Land Act have been brought into wide operation, and the late combination against the fulfilment of contracts, especially for rent, has been in a great degree broken up. There is a marked diminution of agrarian crime, and associations having murder for their object have been checked by the detection and punishment of the offenders.

The House of Lords at the last moment agreed to the Agricultural Holdings Bill.

The Irish Tramways Bill was passed in the House of Lords on Thursday.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Wednesday, said that he regretted that the House of Lords had rejected the Irish Registration Bill, and added that he would introduce a larger measure on the subject at the next session of Parliament.

Sir Stafford Northcote will probably, on account of his poor health, resign the leadership of the Conservative party.

At a conference of the Irish members of Parliament held on Saturday night a programme was prepared for the Convention of the Irish National League of Great Britain, announced to be held at Leeds on September 27. The programme demands self-government for Ireland and direct representation of the Irish laboring class in Parliament.

James McDermott, who is charged with having been connected with the dynamite conspiracy, was brought into court for further examination at Liverpool on Tuesday. It was shown that the prisoner was connected with the conspirator Featherstone, who was recently convicted.

The Supreme Court at Cape Town, South Africa, has rejected an appeal made by O'Donnell, the assassin of James Carey, the Irish informer, asking to be tried in that city. On Tuesday O'Donnell sailed for England, where he will be tried.

The British Government has granted a pension of £250 a year to Matthew Arnold, the poet and critic.

The Right Rev. Francis Kerril Amherst, D.D., a well-known Catholic prelate, and formerly Bishop of Northampton, England, died on Wednesday at the age of sixty-four.

A collision occurred at 3 o'clock on Sunday morning, off Eddystone Light, in the English Channel, between the French steamer *St. Germain*, bound from Havre for New York, and the steamer *Woodburn*, from the East by way of Suez Canal. The *Woodburn* sank about three minutes after the collision, and eighteen of her crew were drowned. The *St. Germain* was disabled, and put back to Plymouth. The *Woodburn* was being towed, and the officers of the *St. Germain* thought the tugboat was the only vessel to clear. The steamer *Palermo*, bound from Hamburg to Lisbon, came in collision on Sunday, off Ushant, between the English Channel and Bay of Biscay, with the steamer *Rivoli*, bound from Bilbao to Middlesborough. The latter steamer sank, and five persons were drowned.

The Prime Minister of Spain, Señor Sagasta, on Tuesday tendered to King Alfonso the resignation of the Ministry. The Prime Minister informed the King of the divergence of opinion in the Cabinet relative to the suspension of constitutional guarantees, the King's proposed visit to Germany, and certain army measures proposed by the Minister of War, who had expressed a wish to resign. The King, deeming it unnecessary to hasten the crisis, postponed his final resolution concerning the Ministry until his return from Corunna. Nothing has been decided upon in regard to the King's proposed visit to Germany.

The German Bundesrath has unanimously approved the treaty of commerce between Germany and Spain.

The Sultan of Turkey has pressed Prince Nikita, the Montenegrin ruler, to prolong his visit at Constantinople. The impression is gaining ground that it is the intention of Montenegro to oppose a further advance of Austria into Turkey.

A reign of terror exists in the vilayet of Kossovo, in Albania. The Arnauts are murdering the Christians, and all of the latter who can get away are fleeing from the country. The Turkish officials connive at the outrage on the Christians, and have arrested and exiled a number of priests.

An American Jew, after a four days' stay, was expelled from St. Petersburg recently, in accordance with the law forbidding Jews to live in the city. Had he accepted the offer of the American Consul to apply to the Prefect for permission, as a favor, to finish his business, he might, it is said, have prolonged his stay.

Violent anti Jewish riots were reported on Monday from Egerszeg, Hungary, and Yekaterinoslav, Russia.

Twelve deaths from cholera occurred at Alexandria. The Egyptian Minister of the Interior has started a fund for the relief of the families of victims of the plague.

A severe battle was fought before Jacmel, Hayti, on August 3. It resulted in a victory for the insurgents.

The eruption of a volcano on the island of Krakatoa has caused great damage. North Bantam, in Java, is covered with ashes, mud, and stones; the crops are ruined, and roads and bridges are damaged. The European quarter of Anjier and the Chinese camp at Merak have been swept away by the overflow of the rivers. The tidal wave also swamped the lower quarters of Batavia. The latest accounts estimate the loss of life at many thousands.

Cetewayo is gathering around him in Zululand a constantly-growing army. A battalion of British troops has been ordered to the border of Natal and Zululand.

A general rising of the Ghilzais against the Amir of Afghanistan has occurred.

A CURE FOR DISCONTENT.

More testimony was given before the Committee on Education and Labor on the 23d instant, as follows: Mr. C. F. Adams told the Committee that he was a lawyer and an "economist"; did not regard private property in land as a bad thing, insisted that all public franchises ought to be sold at auction, and felt that there was no real necessity of having more than one railroad between New York and Albany. He was also in favor of postal savings-banks on the English plan. Gabriel Edmonston, a Washington carpenter, testified that carpenters were badly off, because, owing to the severe weather in winter, they could not work all the year round; he did not, however, suggest any remedy for this. He was followed by John Rogers, a stonecutter, who spoke highly of trade unions, but thought laws ought to be passed to compel owners of quarries to send all stone to be finished in New York, where wages are $3 50 a day, instead of having it done in the country, where wages are only $3. Edward King, a typefounder, said that the time for talk was passed, and what was now needed was "a great social revolution." Labor must now reorganize society, and in the new era he promised that "morals and religion would enter into the management of business, and boss the concern as they never had done before since the beginning of the world." Senator Pugh asked Mr. King what legislation would be adopted by the workingmen when they got control of the Government, a question which Mr. King said would require "considerable study and consideration," but promised to let the Committee know "at some future time."

This is a very good specimen of the testimony thus far taken by the Committee, which falls into one of two great classes. Some of it consists of testimony by representatives of that large class who feel that wages are low, or times are hard, money difficult to get, work very disagreeable, and who find in the Committee and in the press just that audience for their complaints against the injustice of life which every wronged man knows is no more than his due. The rest of it consists of legislative schemes devised by "economists" for clearing away the trouble in the world which flows from some people being richer than others, like Mr. Adams's modest little plan of selling corporate franchises and establishing postal savings banks, or Mr. Henry George's grand remedy, which he produced again before the Committee, and which we are all familiar with. Whatever its general merits may be, this last has the very serious defect of not being immediately attainable. Mr. George proposes substantially that all landed property shall be appropriated by the Government, without compensation, and then rented; or in other words, that all taxes shall be levied on land, but only after a measure of general confiscation. This, of course, gives it a chimerical air, and prevents that very large and influential body of persons who own land from giving it any serious consideration. Labor reformers are very apt to overlook the strength of the landholding class. In this country they far outnumber every other. The discontented laborers of the cities, for whose benefit most schemes of social reform are started, are very inferior to them in numbers and influence. It will take a great deal of talking, however, to persuade the American farmer who has inherited or has purchased a piece of ground, on which he has his home, that the best thing he can do for himself and others is to surrender his fee simple to the state and become a mere tenant. It will probably be impossible within any period worth thinking about to make such a scheme a practical question. At present it has excited great interest in the cities among philanthropists of the speculative kind and among people who own no land, but to succeed it must get out into the country and take hold of the rural imagination. It gives no sign of doing this as yet.

Mr. George is probably right in thinking that the discontent of the laboring classes is increasing. This would, however, seem a more important fact than it does if it could be shown that the laboring class was the only one whose discontent was increasing. The truth is that discontent is now a characteristic of all classes to a degree unknown at any previous period. There has never been a time when men were so dissatisfied with the station in life in which they find themselves, so eager for more of the world's good things than they have got. The causes of this are numerous, and many of its consequences are lamentable. We cannot discuss them here. We merely wish to point out that it is a mistake to suppose that it is only men who labor with their hands who are out of temper with social arrangements, and too ready to try violent or foolish modes of changing them. The frauds and defalcations and crazy speculation which are so marked a phenomenon of the commercial and financial world, are all due to the same passion.

Mr. George asserts that if access to the land were easier, this discontent would be appeased, but that this remedy is not now within reach. He tried to account for the failure of workingmen who are not getting on well in their particular trade, to go out and settle on land, by alleging that land is too difficult to get, that the bulk of it is taken up and held by railroad corporations, and that "to-day, if you were to open a large tract of land near New York, you would find a grand rush for it, which would relieve every overcrowded trade." The members of the overcrowded trades who happened to be present must have smiled when they heard this. We doubt if there is a man in this city, who really wishes to farm, or who could earn his living on a farm, who cannot get one. There would be a "grand rush" to a tract of land near the city if everybody who "rushed" to it was to have a good house and good meals provided for him in return for six or eight hours of easy daily toil. But there would be no rush if a living could only be got on it by the ordinary small farmer's life of long days from daybreak to dark, hoeing and digging and ploughing under a broiling sun, with the risk of having crops ruined by drought or rain, and with nobody to blame when things went wrong but himself. It is because men who have not been brought up to this life do not like it, that the cities are so full of ill-paid people who think the world is out of joint. There is a steady flow into the cities, in fact, of young men who cannot bear farming. It may, indeed, be asserted, without exaggeration, that there are not many thousand men in the United States, capable of getting a living off a farm by their own labor, who do not now live on one either as hired man or owner. There might possibly be a rush out to Mr. George's tract of land the first few days, but it would be nothing to the rush back after a little experience of hoeing or ploughing. The working class in the cities in this country are either men who like their own handicraft, or men who like the city so much — its movement, and animation, and amusements, and social opportunities—that they prefer poverty and dependence in the streets to independence and rude plenty in the country. There is doubtless always a reflex movement of population toward agriculture after a commercial or financial crisis, but the existing opportunities of getting farms is amply sufficient to create it. At best it works slowly. Men do not change their occupations by "rushes." They struggle, and hope and contrive, and wait for better times a good while before pulling up stakes and striking out for fresh woods and pastures new.

A DRY-GOODS NOVEL.

There is no country in the world in which dry goods play so important and prominent a part in commercial and social life as the United States, for the simple reason that nowhere else is there the same, or anything like the same, amount of consumption of dry goods. The great consumers of dry goods are women, who purchase both for themselves and their children; and although women and children must everywhere be clothed, and as a matter of fact are clothed, they are nowhere clothed with as much profusion and variety as in this country. In no country does so large a class of women follow the fashions, or endeavor to follow them, and probably in none is so large a proportion of the family income devoted to enabling them to do so. Not only is the dress fund of a family larger here than elsewhere, but the husband's drafts on it are so small that the wife may almost be said to have it to herself. Nothing strikes foreigners more on their arrival here than the indifference of the men to what they wear, in contrast with the care and outlay expended on the matter by their wives and daughters. As a general rule, the American man's wardrobe, considered as anything more than protection from the weather, excites the surprise and sometimes the compassion of males from other countries—it is so simple, so unpretending, so little calculated to set off the wearer's figure or face, and so free from all sign of pronounced personal taste, in the matter of color or design. "Style," in fact, is unknown in the American man's clothes. We have no national dandy. Anything approaching to him is an imitation of the foreigner. In fact, since the beginning of the present century—perhaps Mr. Grant White would say, as a result of the growth of democracy—it has not been possible for a male citizen of the United States to dress with any splendor or éclat, or even close attention to his clothing,

and remain a "true American." A man who after his first youth occupies himself seriously with the cut of his coat, with his shirts, cravats, or boots, may be said, in a certain sense, to separate himself from his countrymen. The further West one goes, of course, the more marked this peculiarity is, and it is declining somewhat everywhere with the growth of wealth; but it may be asserted, in general terms, that it is not the thing for a true American to care what he wears. In some parts of the country, if he showed that he cared, it would injure him in business, if not in society, as a sign of trivial-mindedness.

The women, on the other hand, enjoy the privilege of dressing as much as they please, or as much as their husbands can stagger under, and not only this, but are expected to do it, and find that the men enjoy their doing it. They are restrained, too, by none of the conventions which in Europe make certain styles of dress suitable for some ages or some stations in life, and not for others. Old George III. used to say, as his view of civil-service reform, that every man was fit for any office he could get. So, also, it may be said to be the rule that the proper thing for an American woman to wear is whatever she can procure. That she has shown herself unworthy of this large liberty, no one who looks at the matter only from the æsthetic side will maintain. Of course the mass of women dress badly, here as well as everywhere, because good dressing requires not only plenty of money, but a cultivated and experienced eye. But no other country now furnishes nearly so large a quota of women possessed of the means of showing what they can do in dress, who come nearer perfection in the art of looking well. In fact, the interval which separates them in this field from the wealthy women of European countries, was happily described by Mrs. Westgate, in Mr. James's 'International Episode,' who exclaimed sorrowfully in glancing at the English Duchess's clothes, "She won't know how well I am dressed."

The effect of this on the dry-goods business in America is obvious. It has given it a social eminence which it does not possess in any other country. Nowhere else is the "dry-goods merchant" so important a person. Nowhere do so many youths dream of successful dealing in dry goods as the summit of their ambition. In fact, we think it is no exaggeration to say that three-fourths of the successful business men have at some stage or other in their career been in dry goods in some capacity. In no other country is the dry-goods market watched with so much interest by the public and the newspapers, and dry-goods sales commented on so earnestly as signs of the general condition of trade. Down to 1868 or thereabouts the dry-goods king was the greatest of American kings. He has since been displaced somewhat by the railroad king, the mining king, or the lard king, but he is to-day probably surer of his crown than any of them, because his power rests on a universal and growing demand, which not only can never cease, but can never greatly slacken.

Under these circumstances it would have been fair to expect that even if the great American novel was not a dry-goods novel, some leading American novelist would have laid his scene in the dry-goods world, and made his heroine a saleswoman in the cloak or linen department, and his hero one of the dry-goods princes, and have filled the stage with characters drawn from various scenes of dry-goods activity. Strangely enough, however, it has been left to a Frenchman, M. Zola, to take possession of this field, and show what fine materials the life of a great dry-goods store affords for a very moving tale of human action and passion. He has simply gone to one of the great modern shops in Paris—where you get everything at one very low price, by which all the smaller competitors have been ruined and the old ways of doing business revolutionized—and taken a batch of salesmen and saleswomen and the head of the house, and surrounded them with a few small dealers making a hopeless struggle for existence under the competition of the leviathan, and a few women customers who love dry goods almost with a passion, and haunt the store from day to day with a thirst for novelties which no number of "openings" can slake or extinguish. The result is a very moving drama. The characters are all thoroughly French. The motives are French. The whole atmosphere is carnal. The religious and moral sources from which we here draw so much, both of what sustains and restrains us, are hardly alluded to in the book. The head of the house is simply an intelligent and active Turk, who has lost all respect for the Koran. The heroine is pure and steadfast through much temptation, but it is rather the purity of a cold temperament than of duty or self-respect. The result is, nevertheless, that one follows the fortunes of a spring opening and the going off of an unusually cheap silk with the breathless interest with which one reads of the varying phases of a historic battle or the ups and downs of a great lawsuit. Moreover, the hero, when he goes abroad, does not leave his dry goods behind. He frequents the salons of good society in Paris, but when he enters a room the ladies crowd around him to hear of the novelties he has and the novelties he expects, and of the goods he is going to "mark down" and the goods he means to "slaughter," just as they might around Bismarck or Moltke to extract from him the secret of a great negotiation or the meaning of a concentration of troops. One watches him, too, as he strides down the store on a morning when a disappointment in love or the unexpected heaviness of a particular class of goods has put him out of temper, hurling dismissals right and left at the trembling salesmen and saleswomen, as one watches the proclamation of a state of siege by a conqueror in a turbulent city.

The whole story is marvellous as an illustration of what the hand of genius can do with what seem the most commonplace materials. Probably no dry-goods novel will ever surpass this one; but there remains in plumbing an unoccupied field in which laurels can be won by a competent American writer, and in which he has nothing to fear from foreign competition. No European novelist has nearly the familiarity with plumbing which every city-bred American possesses, or has the same opportunity of studying the plumber's character or catching the situations which his life creates, or the vicissitudes with which it is filled. The plumbing of a hotel, for instance, or a "mansion," might be made the central feature in a drama of thrilling interest. There is hardly any trial, or temptation, or triumph in life which might not be illustrated by the progress of a plumber's "helper," from the period when he passes his day going to the shop for things which "the man" has forgotten, up to that in which he lobbies for the work on a State-house or a City Hall.

CONCLUSION OF THE WORK OF THE ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE AT ASSOS.

THE firman granted by the Turkish Government to the American Expedition to make excavations at Assos has expired, and the work has been closed. The results of the work of the first year are known to the public through Mr. Clarke's preliminary report. As it will be some time before the final report can be published, some notes on the discoveries of the last two years will be of interest to all archæologists. They were gathered during a stay of several days at Assos in April of this year.

On arriving at Assos we found the work distributed among Messrs. Clarke, Bacon, and Koldewey, Mr. Clarke being engaged on the temple and walls, Mr. Bacon on the western street of tombs, and Mr. Koldewey on the agora and its surrounding buildings. About twenty men were employed, mostly Turks, experience having shown that Turkish laborers are more reliable than Greeks. It was very pleasing to note the degree of confidence which existed between the members of the Expedition and the laborers and people of the village of Behràm. This has been gained but slowly, and by honest dealings. The instrucions of the President of the Institute, to maintain a strictly honorable and truthful course in transactions with the Turkish authorities and people, have been carefully observed. No one could be more delighted than we to see the museums of America enriched by original Greek statues and other works of art, but if they cannot be obtained honestly, let them go where they rightfully belong. So many sharp practices have been indulged in with the Turks, during the last twenty-five years, by archæologists that they are now suspicious of all explorers. They have lately placed a man at the head of the museum in Constantinople who is a professional archæologist, and who will endeavor to get for it everything that belongs to it. But it must not be forgotten that honesty among Turkish officials is something almost unknown, and honesty of intention in dealing with them often places a person in the most embarrassing position. By the general law by which explorations on Turkish soil are regulated, the Turks are entitled to two-thirds of the objects discovered at Assos, but Mr. Clarke will probably secure as favorable a division as any man that could be placed in his situation. Still, the course that would recommend itself most of all would be to purchase the share of the Turks.

The objects which have been mainly studied during the last two years are the inscriptions, coins, the agora, with its surrounding buildings (stoa, bouleuterion, bath, etc.), the theatre, the gymnasium, the great atrium, the temple, the streets of tombs, and the walls. With the skill of the naturalist who from a single bone reconstructs a skeleton and clothes it with flesh, have these buildings been made to rise from their ruins. To read the preliminary report on the spot furnishes the best evidence of accuracy in

the work. In regard to the temple, information has been doubled. To what was already known has been added an accurate knowledge of the character of the ceiling, and much interesting information about the way in which the ancients cut and handled large stones. The remains of the temple were found to a great extent on top of the acropolis where the building stood. The reconstruction of the buildings about the agora was rendered more laborious by its situation on the steep slope toward the sea. The stones were widely scattered, and often built into the walls of goat-pens. The agora was bounded on the east by the bouleuterion, on the north by the stoa, on the west by a building supposed to have been a temple, and on the south by the bath. The bouleuterion has been reconstructed as to foundation and front. It had five columns in front, and four which bore the roof. It was rendered unsymmetrical by a large stairway near it. The stoa was a Doric building two stories high, with four steps and a row of columns in front, and a row through the middle, which supported the ceiling. The intercolumniations in front were all open but four; the second story was approached by the two ends, and seems to have served as an exchange and walk for people of leisure. The lower story was large enough to receive all the people from the agora in case of rain. The height is almost the same as that of the stoa at Pergamos and the stoa of Attalos at Athens. The ceiling was made of earth, very thick, so as to prevent the walking of the people above from annoying those below. Not a single capital of the upper story has been recovered. Otherwise the restoration is complete.

To the west of the agora was a building supposed to have been a temple. Here was also the principal gate to the agora, entered by the street coming from the western gate in the city wall. Below the agora was the bath, a building whose excavation and reconstruction are of the highest importance, as it is the only Greek bath known. Of it thirteen rooms are still to be seen, as well as many details which cannot be described here. It had four stories in front and three at the back, and over all a colonnade on a level with the agora. The water was collected in a large basin, and probably used for the lower part of the city as well as the bath. One of the most remarkable things about the city is that no trace of a watercourse has been found, except one which passed under the agora and conducted the water of the stoa and other buildings from a large reservoir in which it was gathered, at the upper side of the agora, to the bather below. This added much to the importance of cisterns, one of which has been preserved, and is of excellent polygonal work, bottle-shaped, 4 m. wide at the bottom and 7.50 m. deep. Among the discoveries in the agora, two of the most interesting are a standard for liquid measures and a normal for bricks and tiles. The former is similar to those found at Pompeii, the measures being determined by the capacity of holes cut in a large stone. The latter is also a large stone, with the forms of tiles and bricks cut in it.

As late as the year 1864 the most perfect of all the buildings at Assos was the theatre. In that year, however, the Turks carried many of the stones to Constantinople for the construction of docks, though enough has been left to enable an architect to reconstruct the whole. The upper rows of seats did not extend so near the stage as the lower ones, as was also the case in the small theatre at Pompeii. It had but two diazomas. Of the gymnasium sufficient remains have also been found to render its reconstruction certain. In it a church had been built, and a colonnade of it had been used for one of the aisles of the church. It was very large and the plan is very detailed.

When we arrived at Assos, interest was concentrated on the western street of tombs. There is also an eastern street of tombs, but of very little importance. Along this street, as along the Appian Way at Rome and the Street of Tombs at Pompeii, tombs of the greatest variety had been erected. They may be divided into buried and free-standing tombs. Those which were buried may be subdivided according as the sarcophagi were large enough to receive a human body, or consisted of a small stone box designed only for the ashes, either in an urn or without it. Those above ground consisted of various forms of tombs consisting of four slabs of stone set on edge and a cover, or solid blocks of stone. These are naturally the ones which have been most completely destroyed. The large covers lie scattered about in great numbers, and the slabs have often found a place in the wall of a Turk's house or some other building. In the few instances where tombs of this kind are still standing, a round hole has been broken in the side and the contents removed. Some of these last are specimens of very fine work, as may be seen by referring to the cuts in the preliminary report. The age when iron was scarce has passed over these monuments, and the ugly holes which so disfigure the ruins at Pompeii and Rome, and which were dug to get the iron clamps that bound the stones together, are also seen here. Of the buried sarcophaghi a hundred and twenty-four have been opened. They were nearly all constructed of the same stone of which the walls are built. One was found that was made of terracotta, and two of a very porous volcanic stone, which some suppose to have been the "sarcophagus stone" of which Pliny speaks.

The most interesting discoveries were often made in tombs that had once been opened and found to contain neither gold nor silver. The materials of which the articles found in them consist are terracotta, bronze, iron, glass, silver, and gold. (This order indicates the quantity of each.) Of terracotta figurines great numbers have been found. Thirty of them were found in one tomb, of which the following are the most important: four musicians, three flute blowers, and one who holds clappers in his hands; two standing figures of Aphrodite; six figures similar to the Branchidæ at Miletus, with the right hand either on the breast or knee and the left always on the knee. Add three beautiful oil bottles of green and blue glass, ornamented with yellow and light-blue stripes; eight vases, seven ornamented with black palm-leaves and one with flute-blowers. Next in number to the terracotta figures are those of bronze. Strigils, knives, coins, and other small objects were found among them. Of iron, arrow-heads and knives were most common. Of glass, some very fine iridescent bottles were found, and also some of perfectly transparent glass. Of gold and silver nothing of importance was found but coins. In late Roman times the deposits were all of glass, earthenware, and bronze. The glass of this period had been broken either by the falling-in of the covers of the tombs or by plundering.

Very many tombs had been used repeatedly, there being in many instances the bones of five or six persons in one sarcophagus. None of the bones could be removed except a few skulls. Of these, two have been sent to Professor Virchow at Berlin, and the others are still at Assos. These skulls were all found in the large sarcophagi, the bones in the small boxes having, almost without exception, been burnt. Of cinerary urns, great numbers were found. We were present at the opening of a sarcophagus which contained one of these urns. The tomb was as clean and dry as if it had been closed but for a day. The urn was of terracotta, and had a cover of lead. It had been turned on its side, probably by an earthquake, but the ashes were still in it. The lid of this sarcophagus furnished a good illustration of the character of the stone of Assos. It was perfect, except that it was split from end to end almost in a straight line. Another tomb, opened while we were at Assos, contained figures of a boar, a deer, several figures of deities, and many other small objects. In still another was a large mirror, and in another some small objects that seemed to have been weights. This enumeration makes no pretensions to completeness. There are hundreds of other objects that cannot be appreciated till they have been studied and catalogued. No one who has carefully studied this street of tombs will hesitate to attach to it the same value for Greek archæology which Roman archæologists attribute to the Via Appia and the Street of Tombs at Pompeii. About two hundred coins of the city of Assos have been found. They are determined by some form of the word "Assos" and the head of an ox or a sphinx on the reverse, and the head of Athena on the obverse. Others have the heads of various Roman emperors. Of coins not of the city, several thousand have been found. Some of the gold coins of the city are very fine, and we hope may find their way into some one of our museums.

The inscriptions found at Assos and in the vicinity are now being studied by Dr. J. R. S. Sterrett, who is, perhaps, as well qualified for this kind of work as any American scholar. He has already made some ingenious emendations, and by persistent search has increased the number of inscriptions of Assos to seventy-five. He is now at Antioch with Mr. Ramsay, where he will remain till October, and then return to make a tour in search of inscriptions through the entire Troad.

The most striking feature of the place on first approaching Assos is its walls. "They have long been famed as the finest existing monument of Greek engineering." The place is one of the most lonely imaginable. The perfection of these Greek walls, which almost assumes the appearance of newness, seems out of harmony with the ruin that reigns around them. One long stretch is still perfect to the top, and doubtless many more would have been so had they not been used as a quarry. The lines of the cuttings are as clear as if but years instead of centuries had passed over them. In only a few places has the water softened the stones and rounded their corners. Nor does the polygonal wall appear less perfect than the others. This is due to the fact that it has been enclosed in several places in a revetment of later wall of rectangular blocks. The forthcoming report will contain a survey and careful study of all the walls, as well as of the buildings of the city. The drawings of the portions of the walls that will appear in the report have been made by measuring each separate stone. Mr. Clarke has detected seven varieties of wall, which are distinguished from each other by the shape of the stones and the character of the work. Nos. 1 and 2 are built into No. 3. No. 2 is nearly rectangular. Nos. 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 are all rectangular.

The western gate in the city wall is much admired by all visitors to Assos, but it is not now so perfect as the eastern gate, which was excavated during our stay. Modern military engineering could scarcely show anything better designed to give the besieged an advantage over the besieger. The grand lintels (gone from the western gate) are still here, one in position and one fallen. The arrangements for barring the gate on the inner side are still plainly seen, and one of the iron pans in which the gate-post had turned was still in its place in the sill. In this part of the wall there is also a peculiar kind of

tie which binds the two pieces together. In the sill was found a hole an inch in diameter, cut diagonally through the outer corner of the stone. Holes of the same sort are found in the stones of the temple and in the stones along the streets of Pompeii. So far as we know, an explanation of them has not yet been found. Some have suggested that they were used for tying animals, and Professor Overbeck that those in Pompeii were probably used for tying down awnings on hot days. To this particular one neither of these explanations is suitable, for neither ass nor awning would be in place here. In concluding this brief notice of the excavations at Assos, we may add that the final report will be a volume similar in character to the 'Ionian Antiquities,' differing from this great work only in quantity, and not in quality. J. M. Crow.

QUESTIONS OF BRITISH POLICY IN INDIA.

London, August 9.

It is not often that questions of internal administration or legislation in India attract the notice of the British public at home. People in England are so much absorbed by their own politics, so ignorant of India, and, fortunately, so conscious of their ignorance, that they leave these matters alone. Although they are very proud of holding India, and keenly watchful of anything which can affect their communications with it—witness the repeated panics about the Russian advance in Central Asia and the sensitiveness as to the Suez Canal—they have much less curiosity about India, the condition of her peoples and the methods of British rule, than might have been expected. There are plenty of retired Indian military and civil officials living in England whose eyes still turn toward the scene of their life's labors. There is scarcely a large family which has not some son or brother or cousin engaged in work there; yet among average educated people one finds not only little knowledge, but little thirst for knowledge, regarding this greatest of British possessions. Such indifference is in so far fortunate that it saves us from meddlesome interference by Parliament with the Indian Government—an interference which would not only weaken the authority of the Viceroy and his Ministers, but tend to make our policy there less stable and consistent. However, an occasion has at last arisen on which English public opinion has been appealed to by those who disapprove of the measures which the Viceroy has been recently taking, and of the behavior of the Home Government in sanctioning those measures. The defenders of the Viceroy have replied, and a pretty brisk agitation has been kept up in London for the last three or four months on the subject.

It has for many years past been a fully recognized part of British policy in India to diminish the distinction between Englishmen and natives by extending the eligibility of the latter to civil office under the Crown, and also to relieve the Central Government of part of its immense load of work, by creating local self-governing bodies, to whom functions, at first small, but intended gradually to increase in compass and consequence, may be intrusted. This policy was asserted in elevated language by the Queen's Proclamation of 1858, issued when the East India Company's rule was transferred to the English Crown, and has been repeatedly confirmed by Viceroys and English Secretaries for India since that day, whether Liberals or Conservatives. The first signs, if not of retrocession from it, at least of indisposition to carry it out, were seen in the Viceroyalty of Lord Lytton under Lord Beaconsfield's Government. Lord Ripon, who was appointed Viceroy by Mr. Gladstone in 1880, seems to have resolved to proceed all the more rapidly because his predecessor had hung back. In September, 1881, he issued a scheme for the extension of local self-government, which was further developed in 1882, and which, in spite of protests from the subordinate Government of Bombay, has now passed into law. It enlarges the powers of municipalities in towns and local councils in the rural districts, gives them a larger elective element, wider attributions, a fuller control over the local taxes they raise, and in particular abolishes, in some districts, the provision that the local English official shall be *ex-officio* chairman. This measure, and especially the feature last mentioned, which diminishes official control, excited some displeasure among Indian civilians, many of whom thought it premature, distrusting the good sense of the natives, or not liking to part with any of their own authority. Some months later a bill was brought into the Supreme Legislative Council of India (a body composed partly of high civil servants who sit *ex-officio*, partly of persons of note, English and native, nominated by the Viceroy), which provides for extending the criminal jurisdiction over European British subjects to native magistrates. Hitherto it has been exercised by European magistrates only, except in the great presidency towns of Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras, so that in the rest of the country (what Anglo-Indians call the Mofussil) those native members of the civil service who have risen to that grade in the service at which their English companions would be entitled to try Europeans for offences have been debarred from doing so. The native officials to whom the bill would have given jurisdiction are few in number, probably less than twenty, and the change is one which must have been foreseen when natives were admitted to gain posts in the civil service by competitive examination. However, it evoked a storm of opposition from the Anglo-Indians, first in Calcutta, and then over the interior of India generally. In Bombay there was, indeed, but little opposition, for in Bombay the Europeans get on better than elsewhere with the natives, who are themselves more independent and open in character than the people of Bengal. But in Calcutta the excitement rose so high that speakers at the meetings of Englishmen held to protest against the bill are said to have advised the English railway servants to strike, and the English soldiers to mutiny, while the volunteers seriously considered whether they should not lay down their arms.

From India the movement spread to England. The Calcutta correspondent of the *Times* despatched vehement telegrams, which were printed at great length in that journal, while business men and lawyers in all parts of India wrote home to their friends here bespeaking their sympathy, and urging them to agitate in England against the bill. Such appeals soon produced an effect. Strong articles appeared in the *Times* and several other papers. Committees were formed, and at length an influential meeting of Anglo-Indians was held in London to protest against Lord Ripon's policy. Notice of a motion condemning it was given in the House of Commons by Mr. Stanhope, Under-Secretary for India under Lord Beaconsfield's Government—a step which caused some surprise, as it has generally been the care of the leaders of both political parties to avoid raising domestic Indian questions in Parliament. A debate took place in the House of Lords, but no resolution was proposed, and Mr. Stanhope showed no desire to press his motion. However, the bill—Ilbert's Bill, as it is commonly called from the name of the distinguished member of the Viceroy's Council who brought it forward—has also its warm advocates here, and they started a counter agitation on its behalf. There are always a good many natives of India in London, mostly Hindoos, with a few Mohammedans and Parsees, and they were, of course, active in support of a measure intended to remove a disqualification and slur imposed on persons of Indian blood. Those who are called by enemies and friends the Sentimental Radicals, persons always ready to sympathize with the oppressed of every country, and to apply the principles of liberty, equality, and fraternity with courage and earnestness, if sometimes with deficient caution, were zealous for it; while many others, who had no decided opinion on the merits of the proposal in itself, thought that the Executive Government of India ought to be supported when it is not plainly wrong. Speaking generally, those who object to the bill are Tories, and those who approve it Liberals, but there are also some Liberals who share the Anglo-Indian feeling against it. This counter agitation produced two public meetings held within the last month in London. The first was presided over by a respectable retired Indian judge, the second by Mr. Bright. At both, the chief speeches were made by retired Anglo-Indians, while some English Liberal members of Parliament followed on the same side. The weight of Anglo-Indian opinion, no doubt, remains with the opponents of the bill, who gathered to their meeting a far stronger array of names than its defenders can put forward. On the other hand, these latter are more fortunate in their English advocates. Mr. Bright and Mr. Forster are more weighty than any of the Conservative politicians who have attended the anti-Ilbert demonstrations; and no one doubts that if the question were brought before the House of Commons it would support Lord Ripon by a large majority.

The questions of policy involved are far too large to be set forth at the end of a letter, so I must be content with observing that the opinion of judicious men who have lived in India seems to indicate that while Lord Ripon is probably right in the substance of his proposals, he would have done better to proceed more cautiously, and not to follow up a measure like the Local Government Bill, which excited much disquietude among the more conservative officials, by a second bill which irritated and even alarmed the non-official classes. This latter one might have been carried with comparatively little trouble had not the former one made men suspicious, and caused it to appear part of a general scheme for depressing Englishmen for the benefit of natives. The excitement seems to us in England out of all proportion to the importance of the point at issue, and we are forced to look at it as an evidence—a disagreeable evidence—of the extent to which feelings of aversion to, or contempt for, or suspicion of, the natives still sway the minds of Europeans in India. For these feelings there may be more or less ground—some ground there must of course be—but we in England, who receive with no prejudice any foreigner, whatever the color of his skin may be, and perhaps even make a little too much of him as an interesting curiosity, are startled at discovering the social and moral gulf which still yawns between English and natives in India. It is a serious fact for those who have to govern India, and it greatly aggravates their already heavy difficulties, that such an explosion of race hatred should have taken place. Probably the bill will be modified; but to pass it at all will annoy the Europeans, while to drop it would be to wound still more deeply the native mind, and to touch the authority of the Government itself. Y.

THE CONDITION OF THE WEST OF IRELAND.

DUBLIN, August 11.

THE introduction by the Government, at the fag end of the session, of "The Tramways and Public Companies (Ireland) Bill," and the fierce opposition of the Irish party to the clause under which it is proposed to devote £100,000 more of Irish Church surplus money to emigration, again draw attention to the condition and prospects of the West of Ireland.

As to the statistics of its misery and overcrowding we have hardly any better guide than a paper read some weeks ago by the Registrar-General of Ireland (Dr. Grimshaw) before the Statistical Society in Dublin, a paper accompanied by the most elaborate tables, evidently prepared after thought and labor. Dr. Grimshaw neither is nor professes himself to be a sympathetic man; he belongs to the governing and anti-national class in this country, or he would not have secured the lucrative and not very onerous post he holds. His object is to state facts, and these can, I feel sure, be implicitly relied on. He says: "During that sad period of depression [1879–80] I had the honor of being selected one of the Honorary Secretaries of the Duchess of Marlborough's fund, and it became my duty, in conjunction with my colleagues, to determine which districts were most in need of charitable aid. By information collected from various sources, and especially that obtained from the Local Government Board, we ascertained that if a line were drawn from Londonderry to Skibbereen, it would roughly divide Ireland into two districts, the district in urgent need of charitable assistance being situate to the west of the line, and that to the east requiring comparatively little aid. Thus Ireland would be divided into two large social provinces, the western being the less prosperous and always liable to distress, amounting in bad seasons to famine, the eastern being the more prosperous. Practically, the western division includes the six counties on the Atlantic seaboard, with Roscommon and Leitrim, and the eastern the rest of Ireland." Roughly speaking, this impoverished western division embraces one-third the area of Ireland. Doctor Grimshaw, in a series of sixteen tables, shows with what surprising accuracy this generalization is sustained by figures. Summing these up he puts the thirty-two counties of Ireland through what he calls a competitive examination regarding their social and industrial condition: "If all the conditions which represent density of population in relation to productive land, scanty means of subsistence, and low standard of education, be added together, the result will be that the counties will be arranged in the following order: Mayo, Sligo, Donegal, Galway, Leitrim, Roscommon, Kerry, Cavan, Tyrone, Armagh, Longford, Clare, Monaghan, Louth, Fermanagh, Londonderry, Cork, Wexford, Waterford, Down, Limerick, Kilkenny, Kings, Westmeath, Antrim, Tipperary, Dublin, Kildare, Queens, Wicklow, Meath, Carlow."

It is somewhat startling to remark how low down stand the nine Ulster counties, with the exception of Antrim and Down. Some of the statistics brought out in the tables are particularly worth noting. The average county decrease in our population between 1841 and 1881 was 36.7 per cent. Only two counties show an increase, Antrim 19.1, and Dublin 12.4. The greatest decrease has been in Clare, Kilkenny, Meath, Queens, and Tipperary, all above 50 per cent. Between 1851 and 1881 an average of 47.3 per cent. of our people emigrated. Has any civilized country, in a time of peace, ever shown such an exodus? One table tells us the average number of acres (three) of arable and pasture land to each person in 1881. Dublin shows the least, 0.5; Meath the greatest, 6.3 acres. The average Government valuation of holdings in Ireland is put down as £20, Mayo being the lowest, £8, and Dublin the highest, £58. But 14 people out of every 1,000 persons in Ireland belong to the "commercial class"—the lowest average being in Leitrim (2), and the highest in Antrim and Dublin (27 and 48, respectively). One hundred and ninety-three out of every 1,000 of our population belong to the agricultural class, and 134 out of every 1,000 to the industrial. A consideration of these latter tables shows the appalling waste, or, rather, inanition, of human energy in Ireland. Twenty-five per cent. of the population of Ireland of five years old and upward can neither read nor write. The largest percentage is in Galway (45.8), the most favorable in Antrim (12.1), Down (14.3), and Dublin (14.5). Of our people 18.2 per cent. still speak Irish, the highest proportion being in the western district of Doctor Grimshaw's grouping, and the lowest being in Queens, Carlow, Down, and Wicklow, where it ranges only from 4 to 3 per cent. Indeed, the rapid abandonment of the Irish tongue is one of the phenomena connected with the later history of Ireland, and is as surprising as the extent to which the Welsh have clung to their national language.

In truth, we are not a sentimental people, when sentiment is likely to interfere with our pockets. I have known parents in the west of Ireland beat their children for speaking Irish, under the impression that they could not have full command of two languages, and that it was better for them to speak English. We may indeed see what the educational difficulties to Irish emigrants, at the time of the great famine and since, would have been had they generally spoken only Irish. Catholicism, which is not by Protestants supposed to be a reading religion, has doubtless tended to the rapid abandonment of the old language, as the intense Protestantism of Wales has led to their retention of a kindred branch of the Gallic tongue. The translation and wide dissemination of the Bible and Protestant religious publications in Irish, at a time when there was no other general printed Irish literature in the country, induced the Catholic clergy (very properly, from their point of view) to discourage the acquisition of a literary knowledge of Irish, and when the national schools came the extinction of the old tongue was merely a matter of time.

The Registrar-General's figures but tend to crystallize our knowledge of the miserable state of things in the west—an unhappy present, due to the unsettled, nomadic semi-barbarism existing over those districts until within the past two hundred years, aggravated by the ruthless manner in which the people were afterward swept off the better portions of the country "to hell or to Connaught," and by the low state of comfort in which the inhabitants were satisfied to live and increase. Nothing ever discouraged me so much regarding the future of our west as the early marriages and the peopling up, in the face of a life of constant misery and recurrent famines. If people are really satisfied to live under such circumstances, what can be done for them? It may be and is robbery to increase rents from 2s. 6d. to £1 or £2 as tenants improve their holdings; but no reductions in such rents would make the difference between misery and comfort. A Catholic clergyman in one of the poorest districts admitted to me that in spite of famine, pestilence, emigration, and rackrenting, the population of his district was greater than it was in 1846. He boasted that immorality was unknown—nearly every young man married between twenty and twenty-four. What crude ideas of "virtue" such a population must have, when it is considered right to bring children into the world without the least prospect of their being able to gain a living in it. Through all their privations, the physique of these people is much higher than among populations more influenced by prudential considerations, and they are most industrious, the men neglecting no opportunity of finding employment in Great Britain in summer as migratory laborers, and the women satisfied to knit socks at three cents, and long stockings at six cents a pair. It is but fair to Ireland to remember that upon the average her people marry later than the English.

The desire of the Government by emigration permanently to improve the condition of these poor people is humane, and is, I believe, but to a small degree influenced by any desire to lessen their difficulty of dealing with Ireland by systematically decreasing the population; unless to this extent, that there has undoubtedly been among the Constabulary, perhaps without the knowledge of the heads of the Irish Executive, a wish to bully or frighten off to America the young men who took a prominent part in the Land agitation—often the highest-spirited and really best in a district; those upon whom in another country the prosperity and advancement of the nation would so much depend. The bitter opposition, often unreasonable, of the Irish party to these schemes for emigration has its *raison d'être* in this, that the Government does not apply itself as it ought to other modes of developing the country, or rather of removing obstacles to its development.

The tramway clauses of the bill lately introduced are in the right direction. They propose to permit districts to guarantee money for the construction of these means of permanently opening up and improving the country. And the imperial exchequer is, upon certain conditions, to supplement these guarantees. The effort to centralize in the Castle the actual control and arrangements in every detail connected with Ireland leads to this and all bills being exceedingly complex and obscure. None but lawyers can understand and take in their provisions, and we are more and more being hampered by officialism and red tape. From the Government's own point of view of desire to conciliate us without home rule it is difficult to understand why such grants as those contemplated in this bill are not placed unreservedly at the disposal of the Irish members. It would surely be better for the Government that the Irish party should incur the blame of failure or be gratified by success. The prognostications of our members of Parliament as to the starvation likely to ensue in the west last winter, unless a general system of Government relief was inaugurated, have not been justified; and events have warranted the Government in having stood upon the ordinary poor-relief tests. Such distribution of private charity as has taken place has borne its usual demoralizing fruits. The epithet of "pinch-of-hunger" by some applied to the Government policy is a hard one. If, however, nothing but "pinch-of-hunger" will discourage improvidence and force the people of certain districts (depressed by whatever causes) to raise their old standard of comfort and decency, we had better look the fact in the face.

The desirability of transferring to other portions of Ireland the excess of population in the congested districts is much insisted upon. If self-governed England were in the same position as Ireland, the English people would never submit to be taxed for the deportation of a portion of them abroad so long as there was an acre of reclaimable or unsettled land at home.

(It must be remembered that the funds for trying this and other late experiments are not drawn from the imperial exchequer, but from the "Church surplus," every penny of which came originally out of the pockets of Irish landowners and tenants.) With the law as it stands, and with a Government disinclined or apathetic regarding the legal charges that would be necessary to make such an experiment as migration likely to work, I see great difficulties in the way of organizing migration, and I scarcely wonder at Lord Spencer and Mr. Trevelyan regarding emigration as the readiest way out of the difficulty.

Government have offered, if a responsible company were formed for migration, to advance funds on loan. A philanthropic English gentleman, Mr. Rathbone, a member of Mr. Tuke's emigration committee, not himself believing in migration, has offered £1,000 toward giving it a trial, if certain persons he names be among the committee of management, and if £9,000 more be advanced by others. Meanwhile the National party maintain it is the duty of the Government to advance the money and show the same decisive eagerness in the question as they have shown regarding emigration. And so matters move in a circle, and the Irish peasant is made the shuttlecock of party.

I do not entirely share the belief that so long as our depressed western people are in Ireland, their habits of improvidence and early marriages will cling to them, that in fact the "dead lift" of removal to America or the colonies is essential for their elevation. The improvement in the condition of large portions of the population in Ireland has been very great within the past thirty years, and we may confidently hope the same of all in time. Indeed, when we consider what the state of our people was one hundred years ago and compare it with the present, we may hope everything regarding the future.

No thoughtful person can refuse to consider the possible feasibility of migration in the face of Professor Baldwin's belief that it is practicable. As an authority on agricultural matters in Ireland no one stands higher. He has been for many years inspector of the Government agricultural schools and model farms. He is intimately acquainted with every part of the country. As Assistant Commissioner under the Land Act, he has added to his previous opportunities and experience, having been especially engaged in the more backward districts, where there have been most distress and depression. He has long believed in migration. He impressed his views strongly upon the Richmond Commission, before which he was one of the most important witnesses; and he has lately emphasized them by publishing this evidence in book form with prefatory remarks. Additional weight is to be attached to Professor Baldwin's conclusions upon this subject in that he has never taken any part in politics, and that he is an ardent admirer of the Land Act, which he does not hesitate to pronounce "the most advanced code of land tenure in any civilized country in the world."

It will be evident from what has been said that emigration and migration are here regarded from many and different points of view. But how does it affect you? Can anything put a greater strain upon your institutions than the immigration in such vast numbers of the poor, the discontented, and the adventurous from this side of the Atlantic? Can there be any greater proof of the vastness of your resources and the self-working character of your system of government than your assimilation of all this raw material in the past and present? D. B.

Correspondence.

MR. SIDNEY LANIER'S JUDGMENT OF WALT WHITMAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: By reason of illness I was unable to revise the proofs of my husband's lectures upon "The English Novel," recently published by the Messrs. Scribner; and Mr. Lanier's friend, Dr. William Hand Browne, of Johns Hopkins University, very kindly offered to read the proof for me. He found it best to make a few omissions from the volume, as the manuscript—prepared under great disadvantages—had been left unrevised by Mr. Lanier. Upon mature reflection I think that one paragraph omitted from p. 44 ought to be included in the second lecture, which refers particularly to Mr. Whitman and his poetry, because without it a complete expression of Mr. Lanier's views upon this subject would be wanting. While Dr. Browne apprehends some false interpretation of this passage, I feel that Mr. Lanier's exact words should be given. The paragraph, opening the examination of Mr. Whitman's work, is as follows:

"But let me first carefully disclaim and condemn all that flippant and sneering tone which dominates so many discussions of Whitman. While I differ from him utterly as to every principle of artistic procedure; while he seems to me the most stupendously-mistaken man in all history as to what constitutes true democracy and the true advance of art and man; while I am immeasurably shocked at the sweeping invasions of those reserves which depend on the very personality I have so much insisted upon, and which the whole consensus of the ages has considered more and more sacred with every year of growth in delicacy; yet, after all these prodigious allowances, I owe some keen delights to a certain combination of bigness and naïveté which make some of Whitman's passages so strong and taking: and indeed, on the one occasion when he has abandoned his theory of formlessness and written in form, he has made 'My Captain, O my Captain,' surely one of the most tender and beautiful poems in any language."

Let me add that although Dr. Browne and I differ as to the wisdom of making this correction, it is done with his kind sanction, and with his sympathy as regards my own sense of duty in the matter.—Respectfully yours,

Mary Day Lanier.

Baltimore, August, 1883.

SHAKSPERE AND THE COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the list of 'Editions of Shakespeare' given in the last *Monthly Reference Lists* is this note: "Of Peabody's edition, published in Boston by Phillips & Sampson, Mr. Hubbard says: 'I am convinced that it did more to introduce the reading of Shakespeare in this country than any other before or since.'" I can easily imagine the surprise with which this statement would be received by such students as are acquainted with this very respectable, but in no way noteworthy, edition. As the question is one which has some interest in relation to the history of American publications, I beg your leave to make the following correction: One of the first enterprises of the well-known Boston house of Munroe & Francis was the publishing, in 1802–1804, of an edition of Shakspere. This was apparently soon sold, for in 1807 a second edition was printed. It is to this edition that my note was intended to refer, for this reason: special efforts appear to have been made to induce the students in the various colleges to subscribe, and with marked success, except, possibly, in a single instance. In the list of subscribers given in one of the volumes, I find the names of more than half of the students of Harvard, 99 out of about 175,* including those of Edward Everett and Richard H. Dana, the poet. Brown comes next with 28, Union with 17, and Dartmouth with 7 subscribers. Yale, I am sorry to say, is conspicuous by its absence from the list. Considering the fact that this edition fell into the hands of so many young men from all parts of the country at the most critical period of their lives for the formation of their literary tastes, I feel that I am justified in claiming for it a preëminence over all other American editions, so far as regards the awakening an interest in Shakspere's works.—Yours, etc.,

Jas. M. Hubbard.

Blue Hill, Milton, Mass., Aug. 27, 1883.

*I am indebted for these figures to the kindness of Mr. A. M. Knapp, an associate librarian of the Boston Public Library.

THE PLACE OF GREEK IN A COLLEGE COURSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been much interested in Mr. Adams's Phi Beta address and the discussion which it has called out, as far as the latter has come to my notice. But, after all that has been said, there remain some points that I have not seen suggested.

Harvard College—and probably most of the other American colleges more than fifty years old—was founded with the special purpose of fitting men for the ministry. At the present day, however, the number of graduates entering the ministry is not a majority, or even a plurality, of the whole. Taking my own class as an example, out of eighty-two who reported themselves twenty years after graduation, eighteen had gone into business, fourteen had become lawyers, thirteen physicians, thirteen clergymen, seven teachers, six had followed literature and journalism, and eleven are classed as "miscellaneous." Probably the variety of occupations adopted by college graduates is increasing rather than diminishing from year to year. Now, nobody claims, I believe, that it is the duty of a university to give a man a special training for each and every one of these different callings—that is the province of the professional schools; but I think each student has a right to ask of the university such a training as will develop what mental powers he has, so that, whatever be his future occupation, he will know how to attack his professional problems to the best advantage, and place his labor where it will do the most good. In brief, it should be the aim of the university to produce what the English call "good-all-around men," leaving the training of specialists to professional schools.

What course of study is best adapted to produce "good-all-around men"? The answer to this question should come from the professional educators; still, I give my own suggestions for what they are worth. I think a man who can observe accurately, reason logically, and express himself precisely has a complete equipment for any mental work he can ever be called upon to perform. Like the three dimensions of space, these three requirements, taken together, cover all possible needs. How are they to be met?

Accuracy of observation is to be gained by the study of the physical sciences, and that not by memorizing facts from books, but by seeing them, and as far as possible producing them, each student for himself. The second requirement is met by the study of logic and, perhaps most people would add, mathematics. I think mathematical reasoning, however, is mechanical rather than logical. The mathematical mill will grind your grist to any conceivable degree of fineness, but the value of your meal depends entirely on what you have put into the hopper. Precision of expression will be cultivated by the

study of rhetoric and belles-lettres, and the practice of writing and, perhaps, debating. If the Greek and Latin authors have a place in the course I am proposing, it must be on account of their value as literary models.

Granting for the sake of argument all the superiority that is claimed for the classical authors, the next question to be answered is, How far is this superiority due to the writers themselves, and how far to the language in which they wrote? The difficulty of making a satisfactory translation from one language into another illustrates this point. As far as diction is concerned, an English model is better than any other for a writer of English. None of the modern languages are the equal of Latin in its power to say a great deal by the use of very few words—that is, Latin as we moderns know it, in its dress-parade aspect. It is possible that the Romans in their every-day life did not use it so artistically. An attempt to reproduce this trait in a modern language would probably result in obscurity. If we are to consider the classic authors as rhetorical models, I can only say that the manner in which I read an oration of Demosthenes, for example, a page or two every other day, with the lexicon at my elbow, and thinking myself lucky if I succeeded in making logical and grammatical sense of the words as they stood, was not calculated to open my eyes to the beauties of the oration as a whole.

In what has been said above, I have considered the college course simply as a means of mental discipline, leaving the question of acquirement entirely aside. This I consider justified by the view I have taken of the respective offices of colleges and professional schools. For myself, I would say: Give the classics the same value in the course that other studies receive, and no more; and if any one desires to carry his studies in that direction further than such a course would properly go, let him attend a special school for that purpose, as he would for the study of law or medicine, or a physical science.

H. G. P.

EXPRESS CHARGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 946 you descant at some length on the merits of our express system under the heading of "British Enterprise," and state that "immense fortunes have been made in the business." A recent experience fully prepares me to believe this statement. I received from Washington, D. C., a small box of books of about twenty-one inches dimensions in either direction. I do not know the exact weight, but it could not have varied much from 150 pounds. The charge for the service was $13 50. On inquiry of the publisher I found that the books might have been sent by mail for $1 only additional. Reflecting upon the small space occupied by the box, I came to the conclusion that "Reform is necessary" in express companies. Geo. B. Coburn.

Creelsburg, Dakota, Aug. 22, 1883.

Notes.

Nohl's 'Life of Wagner,' translated by George P. Upton, is in the press of Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, together with 'Speech and Manners,' by Miss Kirkland, author of 'Six Little Cooks,' and a selection of twenty 'Sermons,' by the Rev. David Swing.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. publish this week Bret Harte's new story, 'In the Carquinez Woods'; and, shortly, 'How to Help the Poor,' by Mrs. James T. Fields.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, have in preparation 'The Poetry of Other Lands,' a collection of translations into English verse, compiled by N. Clemmons Hunt.

D. Lothrop & Co. are the American publishers, but from the MS., not from advance sheets, of George MacDonald's new novel, 'Donal Grant.'

In devising a duodecimo edition for their Franklin Square Library, the Messrs. Harper seem to us to have reached the *ne plus ultra* of shapeliness, convenience, and cheapness. The result is a book with covers, and not a broadside. The first issue in this style is Lawrence Oliphant's 'Altiora Peto.' Now, is there any reason why the quarto form should not be discontinued altogether?

Louis Creighton's 'Stories from English History' will be reprinted here by Thomas Whittaker.

John Wiley & Sons begin their reprint of the second series of *Fors Clavigera* with 'Lost Jewels,' in which Mr. Ruskin first lays down in a summary way his scheme of political economy, and then slides off into calculations of the loss to the world from what seems to be God's "care, under present circumstances, to prevent, or at least to check, the glut" of "extremely good girls" by making them die early. He furnishes a novel argument to the friends of the higher education for women when he asks "how far a country paying this enforced tax of its good girls annually to heaven is wise in taking little account of the number it has left." This leads to consideration of the folly of our prevailing modes of courtship, in which, with much that is fantastic and mystical, there is also some valuable counsel. A story of two lovers who fatally mistook each other's feelings for indifference, another of a street Arab's fidelity to her father, and a letter from a vegetarian mother, complete the *potpourri*.

A modest little 'Dictionary of Useful Animals and their Products,' by P. L. Simmonds (E. & F. N. Spon), deserves commendation, if only for its fulness in respect to this country. The work is really more liberal than its title, for it admits the Colorado beetle and the phylloxera, which are not generally classed as useful animals, and such doubtful characters as the woodchuck. The products described are both raw and manufactured. The editing seems careful and intelligent, but occasionally the searcher is put off with a scientific name without further definition. The following is a favorable specimen of this defect: "Devil, a name in Tasmania for *Dasyurus ursinus*, Harr., which has a soft, thick fur."

Speaking of Tasmania, there is an interesting chapter on the flora and fauna of that island in the newly-issued 'Official Handbook,' compiled on behalf of the Government Board of Immigration, by Thomas C. Just (Launceston). The population of this colony is a little more than 120,000, with one-seventh more males than females. The climate is salubrious and remarkably equable, as is shown by the mean temperature of the warmest and coldest months, viz., January, 63.17 degrees; July, 46.44.

The proceedings in the extraordinary trial of Jews for the murder of Esther Soiymosi at Nyiregyhaza have been printed in full in pamphlet form—'Der Blut-Process von Tisza Eslár in Ungarn'—by Schnitzer Brothers, No 24 North William Street. A number of rude portraits accompany rather than adorn the text.

Admirers of Coleridge, whose number we hope is not diminishing amid the changing fashions in verse, will be interested in a biographical sketch of his son, Derwent Coleridge, who died in March of the present year, read by Mr. Augustus M. Swift, in June, at St. Paul's School, Concord, N. H. (New York: Charles F. Roper & Co.) Mr. Swift became an inmate of Mr. Coleridge's home at Hanwell in 1868, and speaks with deep affection and reverence of his already venerable teacher. His account of Mr. Coleridge's linguistic capacity and acquirements will surprise most readers. "He had complete mastery of about fourteen languages, and was sufficiently well versed in eight or nine more for all practical purposes." A fine photographic likeness of the subject of this address forms a frontispiece.

Robert von Schlagintweit has begun to celebrate for German readers the Southern Pacific Railroad in a serial work, comprising six or eight parts, called 'Die Santa Fe- und Südpacificbahn in Nordamerika' (Cologne: E. H. Mayer; New York: Westermann). The first part is before us. It is very prettily got up in every respect, and has a number of illustrations and a map. Even Americans might learn much from it.

The first number of vol. iv. of the *Newport Historical Magazine* is significantly enlarged and better printed than hitherto. This interesting periodical is one of the signs of Newport's growth and consolidation.

The Zambesi and its northern tributary the Shire are mapped in No. 105 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Journal* (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer), after a recent Portuguese survey by Alfonso de Moraes Sarmento, whose delineations differ most markedly from those of Ravenstein's map of Eastern Equatorial Africa, especially in the neighborhood of the Shire delta. Richard Kiepert says in an accompanying article that the German marine has learned by bitter experience the little dependence to be placed on the charts of the British admiralty, and he leaves it an open question which of the maps he contrasts is the more accurate, while evidently leaning toward the Portuguese. The editor, Dr. Koner, begins a discussion of the map of Tonquin (Tongking) constructed by R. Kiepert after two French maps of good authority. He alludes in passing to the hopeless confusion of names in the country, whose Anamite-Chinese nomenclature is now being transliterated through the worst possible European medium—the French. The present map follows, in this matter, the forms given in the official chart published by the French Navy Department, and executed by J. L. Dutreuil de Rhins. Thus for Nam-dinh we have Name-digne; for Nim-binh, Nigne-bigne; for Hai-dzuong, Haï-ziuong, etc. Hué is south of the extreme southern limit of Kiepert's map, which, by way of compensation, has an enlarged side-map of Ha-noi, showing its fortifications.

Mr. Edward W. Hopkins's article on "Words for Color in the Rig Veda," in No. 14 of the *American Journal of Philology*, has a wider bearing than the title might imply, for it touches the color-sense of Homer and his contemporaries, so recently in controversy, and effectively uses the Nibelungenlied as an argument to show the fallacy of the belief in a modern evolution of that sense. "In the 9,516 verses of this poem," says Mr. Hopkins, "we have not a single mention of blue, although every opportunity is presented the poet for describing sea and sky by this color." Mr. Alfred Emerson furnishes by parallel drawings an opportunity of testing Conze's perhaps "happy thought" that the head of the "Dying Alexander" at Florence had a Pergamene origin. Mr. Emerson places it on a certain headless giant's torso in the Berlin Pergamum series, and finds it to fit the situation very well.

There is no salient article in *Le Livre* for August, though one may read both profitably and pleasurably M. Henry Houssaye's "L'Amour des Livres et la Folie du Livre," M. L. Derome's

"Olivier de Magny," and M. Fernand Bournon's notes on the library of Blois. Having mentioned in the last number M. Achille Duvau's positive ascription of some unsavory verses to Racine, which was accompanied by a public challenge to call in question the authenticity of MS. relied upon, we must not fail to remark that Mr. Ch. L. Livet denies that the handwriting is the poet's, and finds intrinsic evidence against the verses being his also. An old process, called chromogravure by the editor, has been revived to produce a delicately-colored plate representing a last-century book-worm—a theme which has long ceased to have any freshness, even in the pages of *Le Livre*. Why should we not, for a tithe of the expense, have occasional facsimiles of the title-pages of rare books, the marks of the elder printers and publishers, the more curious illustrations, etc.? If color is insisted on, there is boundless opportunity in the wealth of illuminated MSS. at the command of this periodical and its contributors.

In the August *Portfolio*, Mr. Hamerton's eighth paper on Paris deals with the Pantheon, the Invalides, and the Madeleine in his usual entertaining and enlightening manner; the review of Perrot and Chipiez's history of art in ancient Egypt is continued, with illustrations taken from the work itself; and there are notes on some (English) national portraits, including a Queen Elizabeth and Mary Queen of Scots, the latter at least of somewhat doubtful authenticity, while not lacking in sweetness and innocence of expression. In the Art Chronicle is a respectful though dissentient criticism of M. Chesneau's recent work on the English "school" of painting, which we reviewed at length last week. Kindly mention is also made of an American history of wood-engraving, but a Frenchman could hardly have distorted the author's name more completely: for "Charles G. Woodbury" read "George E. Woodberry."

Seeley & Co., 54 Fleet Street, London, announce an English version of the Eclogues of Virgil, translated and illustrated by the late Samuel Palmer, the well-known engraver. Fourteen etchings will accompany the text, such of the designs as had not been placed on copper by the artist's own hand having been reproduced in facsimile under his son's direction. There will be large and small-paper editions, all numbered. Of the latter "a small number will be printed for presentation and for sale in America."

—Speculation as to the authorship of 'The Breadwinners,' the new American novel running through the *Century*, will probably be stimulated by the appearance of the second instalment in the September number. In this it appears that the title is the name of a labor union, the proceedings and character of which are described with a good deal of minuteness. The suggestion that the novel is by the author of 'Democracy' does not appear to be based on any internal evidence of identity. One showed a great familiarity with Washington society; the other is thus far a novel chiefly of low life—that is, the characters drawn from low life in it are much more skilfully drawn than the gentlemen and ladies. It must be written by some one who knows the town of Cleveland, Ohio, pretty well; there is in it plenty of evidence that the writer is not a new hand, and it is also clear that he—for the theory that it is the work of a woman seems by common consent to be regarded as out of the question—takes a somewhat pessimistic or gently cynical view of the effect of our institutions in developing character among the poor. Mr. W. C. Conant has an article called "Will New York be the Final World-Metropolis?" in which he answers the question in the affirmative. Almost any prediction of the future greatness of this city in population and commerce seems justified by its past history, but we trust it will not become "the final world-metropolis" solely in these respects. Mr. Conant assumes that art, letters, science, and everything that makes wealth worth having and life worth living will come with commerce, but this is by no means clear. London has been thus far a final world-metropolis in point of eminence and numbers, yet, in the opinion of Englishmen, London even now leaves something to desire in many respects. The worst feature in the development of New York is that the classes who contribute to its wealth have no particular attachment to it, and probably never will have as long as they have little or no share in its government and administration except that of paying exorbitant taxes. Since the time of the Dutch families, who really governed the place, and took root here, and transmitted to their descendants an old-world town-feeling, New York has come to be looked upon more and more by all New Yorkers as a great money-hunting camp, the civic spirit being replaced more and more by the love of gain. With all our wealth our parks are not kept in repair; we have no public library; our streets are worse than country roads; we are filthy, and often in great danger of pestilence. Of literature we have little or none; nor is New York a headquarters of either science or art. It is governed, moreover, by an ignorant and superstitious "boss," the Mayor generally being his puppet. Its administration of justice is slow and not infrequently corrupt, and the best people in it are precisely those who are least encouraged by the experience of the past to engage in movements for the redemption of the city. As a final world-metropolis, it will be a failure unless in the next fifty years a great deal is done to change it; for New York as it is, with four or five millions more people in it, would not be the metropolis that Mr. Conant has in mind.

—*Lippincott's* for September has a pleasant article on an Italian watering-place, where it seems that during the height of the season cottages can be rented for 500 or 600 francs a month—a fact which, if brought to their notice, must fill the breasts of our own seaside hotel-keepers with hatred for the Italians who are undertaking to develop the resources of the Mediterranean coast. At $100 a month, a cottage would with us cost for an entire seaside season about $300, while $1,200 for this period is a common sum on the south side of Long Island. The magazines do a very unpatriotic thing in making the American reader familiar with European resorts, for the descriptions they furnish of the delights of these, combined with his own knowledge of the resources his native land affords, encourage him in his aversion for the latter, and do much to stimulate the yearly exodus to Europe. When will rich Europeans, in search of pleasure and ease, swarm over the American continent and spend their money among us, as rich Americans now swarm over Europe? Not until the dastardly magazine and newspaper writers stop showing how much better a place Europe is for rich tourists than America, and encouraging Americans to go abroad. That a Philadelphia magazine should publish articles of this sort shows that the trail of the serpent may be detected even in the very Eden of protection. Colonel McKlure contributes an "Episode of John Brown's Raid," which contains the secret history of the adventures of Captain Cook, the ill-fated abolitionist who escaped from Harper's Ferry, only to be recaptured in the mountains of Pennsylvania and to end his life on the scaffold. Colonel McKlure was, it seems, his legal adviser, and the advice he gave was the same as that given in the old story by the lawyer who, when left alone with his client, pointed to the window and called his attention to the fact that it was open. Colonel McKlure arranged matters so that Cook would have taken French leave of his captors within twenty-four hours, when the prisoner was suddenly carried off to Virginia, on a requisition which was not known to his friends to be in existence.

—The training of librarians themselves and of their assistants for their duties was among the topics considered at Buffalo. The want of some regular instruction has long been felt; members of the Association have often talked over the need of it and discussed the possibility of establishing a "school of librarianship," as they were accustomed to call it, in some large library. Indeed, much has been done in an unsystematic way at the Boston Public Library and at the Boston Athenæum. But it was not of much use to the profession, because it generally turned out that those who were trained there usually found positions in the libraries themselves. Moreover, no librarian has time to give thorough and complete instruction: it is not his business. It was very good news, therefore, that the trustees of Columbia College had been advised by their President to establish among the post-graduate courses a School of Librarianship, and it was received by the body of the Association with marked favor, though a few of the members, unacquainted with the consideration which the subject had received during the last six or seven years, thought that the Association was not justified even in recommending that the experiment be tried till all the details of the plan had been settled and approved. It was fortunate that this slight opposition was made, for it brought out more clearly the strong desire of most of the audience that some attempt should be made by so capable a body as Columbia College to supply the long-felt want. No immediate result is to be expected, for the libraries of the College must first be reorganized, and another annual convention may have an opportunity to criticise the detailed plan before it is carried into execution; but we may hope that we have seen the beginning of the end of the period of self-made librarians and untrained assistants.

—A recent issue of the Franklin Square Library (No. 320, for June 27) is 'Frederick the Second and Maria Theresa, from hitherto unpublished documents,' by the Duc de Broglie, translated by Mrs. Cashel Hoey and Mr. John Lillie. The "unpublished documents" are in great part from the family archives of the author, whose ancestor, Marshal de Broglie, commanded the French army at the time of the First Silesian War (1740-2), the period covered by this work. The recently-published works of Von Arneth ('History of Maria Theresa') and Droysen ('History of Prussian Polity,' Part 5), as well as the political correspondence of Frederick himself, have also furnished material for what may fairly be called a complete rewriting of this chapter of history. Although principally taken up with diplomatic history, the book is extremely interesting reading, and gives a very graphic picture of the times. The sketch of the political condition of Europe in chapter ii., and of the contemptible ecclesiastical electors in chapter iii., are especially instructive. The book, as might be expected, is strongly anti-Prussian in sentiment, and it must be confessed that the delineation of Frederick's character, as displayed in his diplomacy, is most damaging. We suppose, indeed, that his most ardent admirers would admit that few of the great men of history have been more unscrupulous, and probably this is the portion of his career which is most distinguished for perfidy and duplicity. The best that can be said for him is that he was the most successful

gambler in a party of blacklegs. For, if one rises from the perusal of this book with very little respect for Frederick's moral character, the other parties in the game do not impress one much more favorably—with the exception, of course, of Maria Theresa, who at this period appears wholly sincere and honorable, but who was made to suffer for the wrongs done by her ancestors. Certainly France and Austria can cast no stones at Prussia. If—which we do not believe—public morality rests upon different principles from private, Frederick's policy may be justified by the result, in the unification and greatness of Germany, which have grown directly out of his policy. As for his justification of the seizure of Silesia by the sufferings of the Protestants in that country, it happens that the very last number of the *Historische Zeitschrift* (1883, 5th Heft) contains an article by Max Lehmann on "Church and State in Silesia before the Prussian Occupation," which fully confirms this view. Indeed, considering what we know of the treatment of Protestants in the other dominions of the House of Austria, no special proof of this would be necessary.

—Summer theatres and shows are becoming every year more and more a feature of life in and about New York, and the present summer is memorable for the production, at Coney Island, of two new species of open-air amusement capable of "running" an indefinite time in hot weather. One is the Firework Spectacle, the other is the Race-track Circus. One is to be found in great perfection at Manhattan Beach, where three nights in every week a multitude of people witness the "Bombardment of Alexandria," under the pyrotechnic management of Mr. Pain, of London; the other is established at the Brighton Beach Race Course, where "Buffalo Bill," ably assisted by a horde of Indians, scouts, mules, buffaloes, mustangs, stage drivers, bareback riders, and so on, nightly illustrates Life in the Far West by representations of the most vividly realistic nature. The improvised circus afforded by the race-track must be half a mile or more round, so that it affords an ample field for brilliant evolutions of all kinds. The most striking event of the evening is the Deadwood Coach scene. The Deadwood coach—a very old vehicle which has seen hard service in its day—drawn by six mules, starts from a dark and remote corner of the arena, where the audience has for some time been watching it, and in its attempt to reach Deadwood passes at full speed directly in front of the grand stand. As it comes up, however, the yelling savages emerge rapidly from another corner, and swoop down upon it. Now the fun begins; the intrepid driver urges on his team; the crack of the rifle, the yell of the Comanche make night hideous, while a cloud of dust or sawdust, suffused with electric light, tends to give a lurid air of realism to the scene. Suddenly the rescuing troop of scouts appears in the distance from another corner, where they have been lying in wait, and surprise the Indians in the rear. Needless to say that the savages are overpowered and the stage, with its brave passengers and driver, rescued. There is besides this an attack by Indians on the lonely log cabin of the pioneer, which the wretches fire. The innocent occupants rush out to escape the flames, when the head of the cabin is ruthlessly shot down by his skulking foes and his wife pursued very nearly as far as West Brighton Beach by the mounted murderers of her husband. In this case, however, as in the first, vengeance is at hand, and in the terrible battle which ensues the Indians are "knocked out" by the whites. All this is more startling than the Bombardment of Alexandria; but in the latter, too, realism is consulted at every turn. In the first place the city of Alexandria, with its forts, harbor, mosques, and minarets, is represented by a set scene, very much like one at a theatre. There is a foreground, brilliantly illuminated, on which Egyptians, English sailors, and Americans appear, a large body of men of both services and all arms having been secured for the summer. Arabi is called upon by a bold-looking officer to surrender the town, a demand which he meets by tearing up the paper on which it is written and stamping it under his feet. The bombardment then begins, the British fleet coming into action in grooves on the back scene, and firing roman candles into the doomed town. By and by the fort nearest the Oriental Hotel is stormed and captured, the city takes fire and burns rapidly to the ground. It is all as life-like and natural as a child's play in a baby-house, and a great success as a spectacle. There seems, indeed, no limit to its popularity, and no reason why it should not run forever.

—Mr. S. G. Pratt's lyric opera, "Zenobia," has now been given several times at the Twenty-third Street Theatre, with steady improvement in the performance, although it cannot be said that all the elements engaged in the work are equal to the task of interpreting an opera conceived on such an ambitious scale. Of the principal performers, Miss Dora Henninges deserves especial praise for good acting and impressive singing, while Messrs. Connoll and Montegriffo interpreted their parts with a bold impetuosity that betokened much lung-power and self-confidence. The female chorus is small, but remarkably well trained and agreeable to the ear, while the male chorus, at first uncertain and ragged, sang the soldiers' chorus in the third act with so much effect that on Thursday it was demonstratively encored. Several other numbers were redemanded, and the verdict of the audience on the work was, on the whole, favorable. The full *ensemble* seems to be Mr. Pratt's strongest point, and the finales of the first and last acts possess so much merit as to suggest the idea that he would be successful in a choral work written for the concert stage. There is much recitative in "Zenobia," but it is generally of a semi-melodious or arioso character, and richly supported by a full orchestration, the harp, brass, and other modern means of coloring being profusely employed. The work of the orchestra, however, was sometimes rather rough and faulty, owing, perhaps, partly to the fact that the musicians had to play from the MS. Mr. Pratt's harmonies are anything but commonplace. In their concatenation and in the development of the themes in general, there is occasionally an absence of spontaneity and a lack of correlation between the different parts of the musical organism. This, however, is a fault which further experience will doubtless overcome. It would have been wiser if Mr. Pratt had made his first appearance before the public with a comic opera or an operetta. This would have given him the theatric ease, the flow and variety of rhythm, and the dramatic swing which, on the whole, are lacking in "Zenobia"; and it would have made his name familiar to the American public, which is proverbially suspicious of all novelties and newcomers. The subject of "Zenobia" is a good one for an opera, although the incidents are of that pompous style which for full effect requires the dimensions, the masses, and all the resources of a grand opera-house. Mr. Strakosch, however, has placed the opera on the stage with effective scenery and costumes. The libretto was written by Mr. Pratt himself. It does not show the hand of a skilled playwright, but it would be unfair to criticise it in a captious spirit, as its tone and language are superior to the average Italian opera libretto. Nevertheless, if Mr. Pratt writes another opera he will do well to ally himself with a professional playwright, well versed in all the tricks and technicalities of his trade. If "Zenobia" had not been produced at the most unfavorable season of the year, it would have been easy to predict a long run, as the numbers we have already mentioned, besides a quartet, a slumber song, and yet others, have in them the elements of popularity.

—M. Renan's recent lecture, 'Le Judaïsme, considéré comme race et comme religion,' has been followed by another on a kindred topic, 'Le Judaïsme et le Christianisme,' delivered by him before the Société des Études Juives. In analyzing the former, we called the attention of our readers to the philo-Semitic advance made by the liberal Frenchman in these years of rampant anti-Semitism. The lecture before us is a still more striking evidence of this new bent of his mind and sentiment, brought about equally, perhaps, by an innate aversion to intolerance and race hatred and by the charm of Old Testament studies, to which he has been of late more zealously devoted than ever. M. Renan's is an equally enthusiastic and plastic spirit. The subjects on which he fixes his mind with sympathetic predilection assume under his artistic pen symmetrically rounded forms; the angularities and irregularities disappear; the defects are wiped out by a process of idealization. Having, since the completion of his 'Origines du Christianisme'—from the 'Life of Jesus' to 'Marcus Aurelius and the End of the Ancient World'—gone back in his studies to the origins of the 'Origins,' from the apostles and their disciples to the prophets and psalmists, he has not only traced the stream upward to its very fountainheads, but he has discovered identity throughout the entire line, and proclaims this in tones that cannot be mistaken. The analysis of Christianity, he tells his Jewish hearers, has led him to the study of Judaism, and this study has worked in his mind "a most profound revolution." "What is the history of the origins of Christianity? . . . Essentially your history." They must be fixed "at least 750 years before Jesus Christ." When Isaiah told his people that God detested temple sacrifices, and demanded nothing but purity, justice, and benevolence, Christianity took its rise. The author of the fifteenth Psalm—an early writer, M. Renan thinks—sang the God of Christ. The continuator of Isaiah, in the sixth century B. C., preached a religion good for all mankind. The Sibylline poems of the Alexandrine school, the mysterious echoes of which reached Virgil, declare the Jewish dream of eternal peace and fraternity, of a paradise on earth. The founders of the Christianity of history were such Jewish dreamers. They continued the line of the inspired of Israel, and they avowed it—not excepting St. Paul himself. The least Jewish in spirit of all the Synoptics, Luke, depicts Jesus practising all the rites of the Law. The epistles of St. James and of Jude, the apocryphal books of the period, all breathe the purely Jewish spirit of the primitive Church; "none could be more Jewish than the author of the Apocalypse." The antagonism to Judaism which other writings of the New Testament reflect is of later date. Nascent gnostic tendencies ripened it. The complete break between Judaism and Christianity is posterior even to the time of Marcus Aurelius. The period of "mankind's deplorable ingratitude toward Judaism" comes later still—with the arrival of the barbarians.

—While M. Renan is thus, in essay after essay, more and more broadly and warmly avowing sentiments and convictions flattering to the Jewish race and religion, we find him rather severely called to account by a learned

rabbi for coloring history in the opposite sense in the earlier volumes of his 'Origins of Christianity.' Dr. M. Joël, in the second volume (Breslau, 1883; the first appeared in 1880) of his 'Blicke in die Religionsgeschichte des zweiten christlichen Jahrhunderts'—a book of criticism devoted to the Talmud and the earliest writings of the Christian Church, the latter part of which, owing to discussions provoked by recent ebullitions of anti-Semitism, has assumed an historico-apologetic character—strikingly illustrates the inconsistency with which sceptical expounders of the early history of Christianity repeat charges against the Jews after narratives declared to be in the main spurious or obviously false. For this delinquency he takes a number of famous writers to task, among them Keim, Hausrath, and especially Renan—not, however, without an acknowledgment of their merits as critics and historians. He selects Renan (to whom he pays many compliments) above others on account of the readiness with which he is apt to sacrifice historical precision to smoothness of outlines and richness of color, and of the poetical imaginativeness which both enables and prompts him to evolve tableaux out of shadows—that is, detailed history out of hints. As the apostles and their followers are Renan's heroes, and Christian controversialists and Roman satirists his principal authorities as to the moral and social condition of the Jews, his pictures of the latter naturally become overdrawn caricatures, contrasting with idyllic figures. Dr. Joël shows in an almost amusing manner how slender the *pièces justificatives* are which the delineator cites in his notes. Two epigrams of Martial are a dozen times, and not always correctly, referred to in explanation of offensive traits attributed to the sons of Israel. The hostile animus which pervades many Christian stories of Jewish misdeeds is fully acknowledged by the liberal Frenchman, but the story, if interesting, is preserved, and "er schildert, wie es seine Art ist, als sei er dabei gewesen." Thus, in his earlier volumes on the rise of Christianity. But M. Renan, as we have seen, is the last man to cling, for the sake of consistency, to antipathies imbibed in years of immaturity; and Dr. Joël, though yet unfamiliar with his latest philo-Semitic enunciations, knows this, and makes good use of the versatile writer's amiable readiness to contradict himself, which keeps pace with his continued advance as a scholar. The rabbi contrasts Renan's remarks on the degree of guilt which attaches to the Jews in the tragedy of the crucifixion, as contained respectively in the first and in the sixth volume of the 'Origins.' We read in the 'Life of Jesus': "Thus it was neither Tiberius nor Pilate who condemned Jesus. It was the Old Jewish party, the Mosaic law, that did it. Our modern conceptions allow of no transfer of moral guilt from father to son. . . . Therefore every Jew who still suffers today for the murder of Jesus has a right to complain. . . . But nations have their responsibility no less than individuals. . . . And if ever a crime was the crime of a people, it was the murder of Jesus." But the Renan of 'The Christian Church' writes thus: "From the middle of the second century the hatred between the two religions was sealed. . . . The Christians began to cast upon the entire Jewish nation a reproach which, surely, neither Peter, nor James, nor the author of the Apocalypse would ever have thought of directing against it: the reproach of having crucified Jesus. The death of Jesus had hitherto been considered the crime of Pilate, of the high-priests, of certain Pharisees, but not the crime of all Israel."

—The death is announced of Svend Grundtvig, professor in the University of Copenhagen. The magnificent national work upon which Grundtvig has been thirty years engaged, 'Danmarks Gamle Folkeviser,' is abruptly broken off in the middle—the fourth volume lacking, it is feared, a few sheets, and the fifth left half-done. At the rate at which this work has lately been going on, another score and a half of years would have been needed to finish it, and these years Grundtvig seems to have counted on. His father, the Bishop, whose activity in theology, politics, and literature was extraordinary, attained to the age of eighty-nine. The son, whose plans required no briefer term, has been taken away at fifty-nine. Svend Grundtvig's first essay in literature was a series of translations, with notes, of English and Scottish ballads, published when he was eighteen years old. At the outbreak of the Schleswig-Holstein war, he entered the Danish army as a volunteer. He was soon made lieutenant, and served through 1848–50. He retained a nominal connection with the army down to 1863, when he was made Professor of Northern Philology. The first volume of the 'Old Popular Ballads of Denmark' has the date 1853, the second 1856, the third, a very large one, 1862. An edition of the older Edda, and numerous writings and collections relating to the popular poetry and traditions of the North, must account for only one-half as much of this his principal work being accomplished in the last twenty years as in the previous ten. The book is regarded with unqualified admiration all over Europe, and wherever else it is known.

—In our note in No. 942 of the *Nation*, respecting Reinach's commentary on Bondelmonte's 'Liber Insularum,' we fell into an error as to this voyager's having found "more than a thousand statues in Delos." Herein we imitated the slip of an old copyist, whom M. Reinach expressly corrects. The figure which Bondelmonte used was "a thousand" in its vague, Oriental sense, like "the cattle upon a thousand hills." While recurring to a work which we owe to the French school at Athens, we may say that the *Bulletin* which we have had occasion to notice from time to time deserves a more adequate support from the general public than it receives, as the list of subscribers is little more than *one hundred*, while, as a repository of Greek epigraphy, it is unrivalled among periodical publications, and every number contains heliographic illustrations of previously unpublished statuary etc., which are worth as engravings more than the subscription price of the *Bulletin* (25 francs a year). As it is a publication of purely scientific temper and management, it does not advertise itself and is published at heavy expense to the School. Every number contains three or four of Dujardin's admirable heliographs of antique statuary, or ceramics, such as the specimens of what is probably the most valuable collection of figurines, etc. (from Myrina), in existence, to which we have from time to time called attention. In the five years of its existence it has published 150 photographs and 2,000 to 3,000 inscriptions. Subscriptions may be sent to Ernest Thorin, 7 Rue de Médicis, Paris.

MAINE'S EARLY LAW AND CUSTOM.—II.

Dissertations on Early Law and Custom. Chiefly selected from Lectures delivered at Oxford. By Sir Henry Sumner Maine. London: John Murray. 1883.

THE 'Dissertations on Early Law and Custom' is too considerable a work to be used as a mere text to an analysis of the qualities which distinguish its eminent author. A critic's difficulty in dealing with this book arises simply from the proverbial "embarrassment of wealth." He does not know which of the eleven topics embraced in the lectures he should choose for review. The essays on "Religion and Law," on "Royal Succession and the Salic Law," on "Theories of Primitive Society," on "The Decay of Feudal Property in France and England" are each intensely interesting, and each can make a fair claim for exclusive attention. As, however, we cannot notice, even in the most cursory manner, the whole of a series of disquisitions each of which is a compact essay, teeming with suggestions, we are driven to make a choice, and have come to the conclusion that there is no single chapter which is so full of interest to readers, and so good a specimen of Maine's powers, as that which compares and contrasts the development of French and of English institutions as surveyed by the eye of a philosophic jurist. Our author may have written passages of more power and of more striking originality, but in no part of his speculations has he shown more convincingly how much light the study of early institutions may throw on an obscure problem.

The riddle to be solved is this: The feudalism of France was originally, in its essential characteristics, like the feudalism of England. How did it happen that the feudalism of the one country—the *ancien régime*—became so universally detested, and, we may fairly therefore say, so detestable, that Frenchmen were willing to purchase its destruction at the price of the bloodiest among revolutions, while the feudalism of England never, at any rate in modern times, excited any popular hatred, and developed into a fundamental portion of the much-admired English Constitution? Maine is far too profound a thinker to believe that such a riddle as this can be disposed of by any single reply; indeed, there is nothing more marked in the whole of his mode of thinking than his insistence on the principle that the great speculative questions of human history can hardly ever be met by any one theory applicable to all and every instance. What Maine perceives, as many others must have perceived before him, is that the usual modes of accounting for or of explaining away the hostility of France to the *ancien régime* are absolutely futile; and he has perceived, what very few English writers have perceived before him, that a study of French law, especially as it affected the tenure of land, affords at any rate some explanation of an otherwise almost unaccountable condition of public feeling. That the usual explanations are futile is patent. The idea, for example, that the French nobility were, toward the outbreak of the Revolution, wicked and cruel tyrants—a notion which has received its crudest expression in that 'Tale of Two Cities' wherein Carlyle's 'French Revolution' is done into a serio-comic melodrama by Dickens—is confuted by every line of Taine and De Tocqueville. The nobility of France were, in 1789, more filled with benevolence, with liberalism, with what the literary slang of to-day calls the "enthusiasm of humanity," than any aristocracy has ever been before or since. It is an error, again, to fancy that the peasantry were sinking into deeper and deeper wretchedness; they were, in fact, gradually becoming owners of the soil of France; and De Tocqueville has pointed out the curious fact that discontent was most rife where prosperity had most increased. The King, it is said with truth, was incompetent and weak, and, like all irresolute men, not overhonest; but the King, down even to a comparatively late stage of the Revolution, was popular. The nobility did not fall because they rallied to the court; it was the King who fell because, for almost the first time in French history, the Crown allied itself to the aristocracy. It did not need the genius of Mirabeau to perceive that a monarch who had put himself at the head of the people might have destroyed the privileges

of the nobles, and have become the most powerful and the most popular of French rulers.

The suggestion, again, sometimes hazarded, that the French nation did not in reality hate the institutions which they destroyed, amounts to an absurdity. In the darkest days of the Revolution, no man outside the privileged classes regretted the institutions which had perished. De Tocqueville's love for the past does not blind him to this fact. Burke, in occasional moments of inspired insight, perceived a truth fatal to the whole policy of which he was the passionate advocate. There is nothing in literature more striking than a passage in Butler's 'Reminiscences.' The "reminiscent" was present at a party where French *émigrés*, after listening with delight to Burke's diatribes against the Revolution, asked the question, When shall we be restored? The answer was thundered forth in the one word, *jamais*. Nor is anything gained by saying that France, during the political fever which lasted not for months but for years, was a prey to national madness—one might almost say, to national possession by the devil. Such ideas are worse than a libel on human nature, for they are a libel which cannot even pass for an explanation. To say that France went mad gives no explanation whatever of the cause of the madness. If we are ever to answer the inquiry, which needs a reply, we must, as Maine has done, recognize undoubted facts, and approach a very complicated problem with the calmness of lawyers investigating the intricacy of a difficult case. When the matter is looked at in this way, it is easy, under our author's guidance, to see that a comparative study of the law with relation to land in France and in England does really go a good way toward solving the problem which every philosophic student of the Revolution must somehow or other meet. "If I were to say," writes Maine, "that the first French Revolution took place because a great part of the soil of France was held on copyhold tenure, the statement would doubtless sound like a paradox." Yet he certainly establishes that this paradox contains a good deal of truth. Land held on copyhold tenure is land of which one man, the tenant, is the owner, but in respect of which another man, the lord of the manor—or, in French terms, the *seigneur*—can exact rents and services many of which are, or may be, onerous, and some of which may well become in course of time odious and oppressive. In England itself copyholders suffered heavily from their tenure.

"Roger North . . . tells us that the Lord Keeper Guilford qualified himself for practice at the bar by acting as the steward of various manors, and he quotes a good deal of the Lord Keeper's conversation on the subject of manorial rights. Guilford was in the habit of saying that he found himself the executioner of the cruelty of the lords and ladies of manors upon poor men; that small tenements and pieces of land which had been men's inheritances for generations were devoured by fines; that it was wonderful how Parliament, which took away the royal tenures *in capite*, had never relieved the poorest landowners of the nation from extortion and oppression; and that the tenure ought to be abolished. Here is the very muttering of the volcano before the French revolutionary eruption; but there is this difference, that the class compassionated by North is a relatively small one, as well as a poor one, for he goes on to observe on the large number of manors which had become altogether or partially extinct in England."

Suppose, for a moment, that the whole country had been occupied by copyholders. We then get at least a step toward explaining the discontent of the French peasantry. But if we look a little further into the judicial organization of France and England, we advance a step more on our way. The courts of the manor (to use the terms of English law) were in their nature oppressive. The lord became judge in his own cause, and, what was far worse, the lord meant in practice the lord's representative—or, in other words, the country attorney. In both countries, however, the royal courts checked the abuses, curtailed the jurisdiction, and tended to overthrow the powers of the courts of the manor. The Crown thus became the protector of the people. "What the courts at Westminster Hall were to the English Manor, the French Parliaments were to the French Fief." But toward the middle of the eighteenth century the spirit of the French Parliaments changed: they took to presuming against, and not, as before, in favor of, free tenure.

"The Parliament of Paris, just before the Revolution, ordered the work of Boncerf, 'On the Inconveniences of Feudal Rights,' to be publicly burnt; and the decree no doubt testifies to the opinions most strongly and permanently held by the majority of the French judges. . . . This change of feeling is connected with the innovation, generally regarded as disastrous, by which offices in the great French judicial assemblies became purchasable and hereditary. Thenceforward . . . a judge was almost invariably a man of inherited wealth. In the France of that day, the only investment for wealth was land or interests in land, and proprietorship was just as likely to consist in a right to seignorial dues as in ownership of the soil."

One abuse, in short, as is the way in countries destined to revolution, strengthened and intensified another. The courts went over to the nobles, and the nobles became more and more, not landowners, but the owners of charges upon land. An obvious encumbrancer is hateful to the man whose land he encumbers. While tithes were levied in kind, the parson was not loved by the English farmer; he was more hated by the Irish tenant than the landlord or the middleman. Let no one with these facts before him fancy that the mode in which a class exercises rights over the land may not, even though the rights are not very onerous, be a cause of the deepest popular discontent. The nobility, moreover, in France bore all the odium without possessing the strength of privilege. As the peasants and the middle class increased in wealth, the position of the *seigneurs* became less and less respectable. The English lord or squire was the great man of his village or county; the French *seigneur* was a poor devil who saved himself from starvation by wringing out dues and fines from the peasants, or, in other words, from the petty landowners. "Turn to the 'Bride of Lammermoor,' and gather from it the opinion which the feudal tenants of the Lord of Ravenswood had of the raids of Caleb Balderstone on Wolfshope; extend this to a whole population, and understand that a legion of Caleb Balderstones overran France, and one may be able to bring home to one's self the view which the French peasantry took of the institutions under which they lived."

If, as has been sometimes said, the people of France were irritated by the aristocratic privileges claimed by the *nouveaux riches*—the new nobility who bought patents and privileges—the mass of the nation assuredly did not love those who have been happily called the "old poor." But if you ask why the old families were poor, you find your answer in the legal and the economical conditions of pre-revolutionary France. Those who wish for further explanation on this point must go to Maine's pages. Two circumstances, however, which can be briefly stated, must be noted for the way in which they intensified the bitterness of popular sentiment. The "copyholder" of France did not, like the English copyholder, compare himself with a body of tenant-farmers, but with a body of landowners. He was not, as in England, a man who felt himself lucky not to be an ordinary tenant, but a landowner who felt himself intolerably aggrieved at being loaded with special burdens. The sacredness of contract, again, was one of the fundamental ideas of the French philosophical creed, and was accepted by popular opinion. But manorial rights in France did not, in fact, originate in contract, and were not, by the mass of the people, felt to depend upon agreement and to be, according to the phraseology of the day, natural rights. What, however, was untrue of France was, as Maine points out, true, in a certain sense, of England: "It is a fact of great political and juridical interest, that from very early times landed property changed hands by purchase and sale more frequently than elsewhere." Hence the possession of landed property has rested in England on a basis which commended itself to the prevailing sense of justice. Most of the rights exercised by French *seigneurs* rested on a basis which did not recommend itself to prevailing notions of fairness. Combine together all the different circumstances to which we have been able in this article to do little else than refer, and you get an account, which is at least intelligible, of the revolutionary state of rural France at the meeting of the States-General. The "extremity of detestation" entertained by the rural population for the landowners may not be fully explained by the causes suggested by Maine, but those who doubt that some special cause is needed for an astonishing state of feeling will do well to read and reread this picture of what this condition of sentiment really was:

"The provincial cities and towns were slowly drawn into the movement through the action of Jacobin clubs gradually established in them, and taking their instructions from the central body in Paris, which, no doubt, from the first was a furnace of revolutionary agitation. But the peasantry, always excepting those of the western provinces, were from the very beginning enthusiasts for the destruction of the ancient institutions, and so they remained until they gained their objects. This universal hatred of the peasants had for one of its effects a condition of the country which, no doubt, has often perplexed the reader of the ordinary histories. After a while France became hermetically closed, and escape from the guillotine became almost impossible. Some writers, in explaining this, have attributed to Robespierre a special genius for police organization; but the truth seems to be that the cultivating classes, who at first witnessed with pleasure the emigration of the nobility, constituted themselves a voluntary police as soon as they found that by detaining the nobles in France, they would probably send them to the scaffold."

If any one further doubts whether Maine's explanation of this condition of things is, as far as it goes, true, let him read with the utmost care the whole of the dissertation on the decay of feudal property in France and England. Let him then study 'La Révolution Française et la Féodalité' of Doniol, and let him meditate on the history and the present condition of Ireland. He who does this will hardly hesitate to hold that the study of early law and custom has led Maine very near the true answer of a great historical riddle.

THE ART OF ACTING.

Talma on the Actor's Art. With Preface by Henry Irving. London: Bickers & Son; New York: Roorbach & Co.

The Paradox of Acting. Translated, with Annotations from Diderot's 'Paradoxe sur le Comédien,' by Walter Herries Pollock, with a Preface by Henry Irving. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribner & Welford. 8vo, pp. xx.–108.

THERE are very few books in English on the art of acting, and most of them are good for nothing. It is therefore with great pleasure

that we welcome these translations from the French. Talma's essay was originally prefixed to the edition of the memoir of Lekain, issued as a volume of the collection of 'Mémoires sur l'art dramatique' which was published in France early in this century. The present translation, by an anonymous hand, has been done at the suggestion of Mr. Henry Irving, a most careful student of his art. Diderot's 'Paradox on the Comedian,' although written in 1773, and rewritten, was not published until 1830, long after Diderot's death, and quite in the thick of that Romanticist revival which Diderot's influence had done much to bring about. It was for Grimm that Diderot wrote his 'Salons,' thereby inventing modern art criticism; and it was to Grimm that he addressed the first draft of the 'Paradox.' To Diderot dramatic art and histrionic art were of more interest than pictorial and plastic art, and his alert and open mind delighted in sketching out a scheme of dramatic reform. It is to Diderot's precept rather than to his practice that we owe the modern domestic drama. Beaumarchais was his first and greatest disciple, and yet Beaumarchais failed as long as he relied on Diderot's teaching instead of his own wit; and Diderot's own plays achieved no great success, although we may infer that one of them at least was acted occasionally in English for a while, since it was during a performance of an adaptation of the "Père de famille" that the famous fire in the Richmond Theatre broke out.

Until lately Diderot has fared badly at the hands of translators, who have either betrayed him or abandoned him. Mr. John Morley's translation of the 'Neveu de Rameau,' appended to his volumes on 'Diderot and the Encyclopædists,' was the first adequate rendering into English of anything of Diderot's. The present translation of the 'Paradox' by Mr. Pollock is worthy of its immediate predecessor. Mr. Pollock has an advantage over most translators, in that he really knows thoroughly and well both languages, the one from which as well as the one into which he is translating. His success is the more praiseworthy, since Diderot is by no means as easy to translate as most Frenchmen. He has, moreover, added brief and sufficient explanatory notes, in which he has availed himself of the learned labors of the editors of the recent complete edition of Diderot, correcting their errors and supplementing their omissions wherever it has been necessary. Mr. Pollock's volume is printed as carefully as it has been edited, and its antique type and rough paper are a delight to the eye and the hand of the book-lover, although, on behalf of the general reader, we feel bound to protest against the use of long s's. Diderot's 'Paradox' is to the effect that the actor, like any other artist, must be primarily a thinker and observer, and that he need not at all feel the emotions he simulates on the stage. He declares that the man of sensibility is a poor artist; that the great actor must be cold and calm, and that "he must have in himself an unmoved and disinterested onlooker." He tells us that "extreme sensibility makes middling actors; middling sensibility makes the ruck of bad actors; in complete absence of sensibility is the possibility of a sublime actor." An actor "must have, consequently, penetration, and no sensibility—the art of mimicking everything, or, which comes to the same thing, the same aptitude for every sort of character and part." Diderot goes on to prove his case, giving many examples to show that the artist must always remain master of himself, and must never suffer himself to be carried away by the whirlwind of his passion. He accumulates instances of men "reduced at one moment to flat stupidity by the sensibility, and the next rising to sublimity by the self-possession following the stifling of" their "sensibility."

The preface which Mr. Henry Irving has prepared for Mr. Pollock's translation is interesting, like his acting, like which, again, it cannot be accepted without criticism. In his discussion of the French critic's argument it seems to us that he is not quite fair—or, say, is less acute in his analysis than we had expected. He wastes words in an attempt to explain Diderot's attitude by assuming that he was "thinking of the stage of Racine, and not of the stage of Shakspere." This is not quite the fact; Diderot was too piercing a critic to pause at the surface of the contemporary French repertory, as his many allusions throughout this very dialogue serve to prove. His theory is of a more general application; and it is as true of the acting of Shakspere as of the acting of Racine, no more and no less. But Mr. Irving succeeds to perfection in showing to what extremes Diderot forced his theory; and he adduces the evidence of Talma to controvert Diderot. The fact is that Diderot's was at all times a militant criticism. His attitude is ever that of the advocate, and never that of the judge. He was unable to throw off his habit of polemic discussion even when considering a naked question of art. Moreover, he made no effort to disguise the fact that he was guilty of overstating his case.

"Sensibility" in Diderot's day was a much-abused and overworked word, just as "emotional" is nowadays. It was a common belief then—and the belief is not altogether dead now, in spite of Diderot and Talma and Lewes and M. Coquelin—that the actor should abandon himself to the situation, and should rely for his effect on the emotion of the moment. Talma himself gave in to this heresy in his youth, and so did M. Mounet-Sully. But it is easy for Diderot to show us what Talma and M. Mounet-Sully soon discovered by themselves, that the actor's reliance on "sensibility" and on his "emotional faculty" is a leaning on a broken reed. Diderot even goes to the other extreme, as we have seen, and declares that an actor should have no emotion at all. Here, of course, he is in error. But as between the two opposite positions—Diderot's, denying the possession of passion to the great actor, and the opposite, allowing the great actor nothing but passion—it is impossible to doubt that Diderot's position is very much the nearer to the truth.

In his posthumous book of lectures on the 'English Novel' the late Sidney Lanier records the fact that "Charlotte Cushman used often to tell me that when she was, as the phrase is, carried out of herself, she never acted well. She must have her inspiration; she must be in a true *raptus;* but the *raptus* must be well in hand, and she must retain the consciousness, at once sublime and practical, of every act." Mrs. Kemble, too, going back to her first appearance as *Juliet*, describes the curious dual state in which she found herself—at once possessed both by the feelings of *Juliet* and by those of Miss Fanny Kemble. "To form a great actor like Lekain the union of sensibility and intelligence is required," says Talma; adding that "the actor who possesses this double gift adopts a course of study peculiar to himself." He is perpetually observing himself and others, and attempting to reproduce typical effects of feeling. He is all the time taking stock of his emotions, not to call them again into being, but to imitate them externally. As Diderot says of the good actor, "at the very moment when he touches your heart he is listening to his own voice; his talent depends not, as you think, upon feeling, but upon rendering so exactly the outward signs of feeling that you fall into the trap." So deceptive is the art of the actor to those who have not familiarized themselves with its methods, that most play-goers, and indeed most professed dramatic critics, are inclined to overestimate the actor's native ability and to underestimate his acquired faculty. Great actors, like all other great men, are born, not made; but having the gift, they become great only by incessant study. The definition of genius by the English novelist as the art of taking pains is particularly appropriate to the histrionic calling. Nowhere is a fiery, untamed genius of less use and of less duration than on the stage. "For heaven's sake, have a little less genius and a little more talent," said M. Emile Augier to M. Mounet-Sully, at a rehearsal nearly ten years ago; and M. Mounet-Sully's high artistic position now is due to his having taken the advice to heart and forsworn the false gods who led him astray. Edmund Kean, who is sometimes taken as a type of the "natural" actor, was so methodical, and took the mechanism of his art so seriously, that he always paced the stage of any new theatre he played at, in order to reduce in exact proportion to one side of the house the rush of his rapid entrance in moments of tense and hurried emotion. David Garrick, like Edmund Kean, was in his day hailed as a reformer, as one who preached a return to Nature; and Garrick was even more precise and exact in his methods than Kean.

The time when the actor can let loose his feelings, and call up the utmost of emotion and experience, is when he is studying his part—"composing" it, as the French call it. Then he feels, observes, records, repeats, and combines. Even after he has once acted a character he may modify minor details here and there, heightening a color or lowering a note. But when his "reading" of the part is once fixed and determined, and the "business" well devised and arranged, there ought to be no capricious change, and there is then no need for the actor of sensibility always to "feel the character," for then, as Diderot suggests, "he must wear himself out by excess of soul."

In the Land of the Lion and Sun; or, Modern Persia. Being Experiences of Life in Persia during a Residence of Fifteen Years in Various Parts of that Country, from 1866 to 1881. By C. J. Wills, M. D., late one of the Medical Officers of Her Majesty's Telegraph Department in Persia. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

THE author's reason for calling his book "'The Land of the Lion and Sun' is, that the lion and sun are the national emblems of Persia, while the second title alone, 'Modern Persia,' would have suggested an exhaustive and elaborate array of matter which is beyond the scope of this work." The work is not meant to be a description of all Persia, nor a full description of any part of it; it contains no geographical sketches, no statistics, no consecutive observations on administration and government, no ethnological sketches, no history. In fact, the author seems to presuppose an ample knowledge of Persian things on the part of his public, and to write for such readers only as are desirous, for some special reason of their own, or from an insatiable avidity for general information, to obtain very minute details about Persian topics not yet exhaustively treated by European travellers. To such readers his large volume, crammed with detailed accounts of his own every-day experience in and around Teheran, Hamadan, Kermanshah, Ispahan, and Shiraz may prove satisfactory; others it will repel or tire out by its copious and often tedious talk about things insignificant and unattractive. Dr. Wills abstains from generalizing almost as scru-

pulously as from imparting knowledge of Asiatic affairs which educated people ought to, but do not always, possess, and leaves the reader "to make his own reflections"—generally leaving him alone with his ignorance. We believe we do the doctor full justice when we say that his book contains much that will be justly appreciated by the few, together with more that nobody cares for, and that, on the whole, it is a very conscientious but far from amusing performance. The following fragment of a sketch of an Armenian bishop, with numerous explanations interspersed, may be here presented as characteristic, though in style and general attractiveness considerably above the average of the author's descriptions:

"The little bishop is a gouty man, and does not indulge, though there are legends that in his youth his potations were pottle deep; he does not even smoke, but he snuffs—a thing that most of the old people in Julfa do. A jovial old man in a skull cap and flowing black robes, he insists on regaling us with gez—a sort of sweetmeat, prepared from the gezanjebine, a mawkish exudation from a plant found in the desert near here, and akin to manna; it is mixed with sugar and made up into round cakes with almonds or pistachios. It is impossible to break these cakes with the finger; they will bend freely, but on striking them with a hammer or another cake they fracture at once. Ispahan is celebrated through Persia for this sweetmeat, and large quantities are sent away in every direction. In Julfa and Ispahan the gez is always offered on the arrival of a guest, and urgently pressed on one; it is considered impolite to refuse. The flavor is merely sickly sweet, and it sticks to the jaws like butter-scotch; it is white in color, and very cloying. The monk, too, always has a glass of good old Kishmish wine for his friends. The Kishmish grape is the smallest in Persia; it is a bright yellow color, and very sweet; it is, when dried, what we call the Sultana raisin. The wine is a golden yellow, delicious when quite new, but terribly heady. It is a great favorite with the Armenians, as it is quickly intoxicating. As a rule it will not keep well, but when it does it is not to be despised. A glass of arrack is offered as an alternative, and this is more suited to the native taste; it is, as a rule, what is called in India 'fixed bayonets.'"

Dr. Wills's life in Persia was uneventful, but his connections, as physician, with all classes of society afforded him sufficient means of observation. He moved much among Armenians, whom he is not at all inclined to admire; was often shocked by the abject degradation in which the Jews are kept; and became familiar with all shades of practical Mohammedanism, from that of the howling dervish to the radicalism of the freethinker. Concerning some "sectaries of the Baab," whom he calls an impostor, and of whose communistic religious tenets he says only that they are very difficult to get at, he relates the following: In 1880 a priest of Ispahan was denounced by his wife as a Baabi. Thrown into prison by order of the Governor, a son of the Shah, he avowed his Baabism, and refused to retract, while denying the crimes laid to his charge. He was led in chains to a place of execution, and bastinadoed, but offered his life if he would curse Baab. He replied: "Curses on you, your Prince, your King, and all oppressors," and suffered death. A few days after his execution three brothers, intimate acquaintances of Dr. Wills, were arrested as guilty of Baabism. As near relatives of the former Imam-i-Juma, or high-priest, whose protection was all-powerful, they had, in fact, made no secret of their heterodoxy. This was, however, not the real cause of their arrest. The new Imam-i-Juma owed them a large sum of money. They were sent for, and required to relinquish the claim on penalty of being denounced and executed. As they refused to remit even a portion of the debt, the debtor made "a proposition . . . to the Prince that the whole of their property should be confiscated by him, and they should be accused of Baabism and executed. This was agreed to." They in vain protested their innocence, the youngest brother even cursing Baab as proof of his orthodoxy. The English missionary in Julfa, the Assistant Superintendent of the Telegraph, our author, and a few others, fruitlessly attempted to save the three victims of priestly and princely avarice. The Prince showed himself furious. He asked the doctor, "What would your Prince of Wales say if *he* were interviewed, and letters written to him about confessed criminals by obscure Persians?" The city being in great excitement, the throats of the two elder brothers were cut in prison, and their bodies flung into the square; the youngest brother was spared. The high-priest shared the plunder with the Prince. "Such was Persia in 1880," remarks our author here, and he has many other instances of cruel oppression and fierce barbarism to relate. And if such is the government and the priesthood of Persia, what must its people be? To our pleasant surprise, "after a residence of fifteen years in various parts of the country," Dr. Wills—this time broadly generalizing—presents these among the main characteristics of the people:

"The character of the Persian, as it appears to me, is that of an easy-going man with a wish to make things pleasant generally. He is hospitable and obliging, as honest as the general run of mankind, and is especially well disposed to the foreigners. Home virtues among the Persians are many; he is very kind and indulgent to his children, and as a son his respect for both parents is excessive. . . . An undutiful son or daughter is hardly known in the country. No act of serious import is ever undertaken without the advice of the mother. . . . And by the very poorest the support of their parents would never be looked on as a burden. Respect for the aged is universal. . . . The peculiar honesty of the Persian servant toward his master in respect to his goods and chattels has been previously remarked; and in commercial morality, I fancy that a Persian merchant will compare not unfavorably with that of the European generally. . . . To the poor, Persians are unostentatiously generous; most of the rich have regular pensioners, old servants, or poor relations, who live on their bounty; . . . charity, though not organized, is general. . . . Only the upper classes and the natives of towns among the military and servant class are in the habit of indulging in intoxicants, and unchastity is confined to the females of these classes; . . . the Persian woman compares favorably with her European sister in this respect. . . . Cruelty is not a Persian vice. . . ."

Practical Notes on Etching. By R. S. Chattock, Fellow of the Society of Painter-Etchers. Scribner & Welford. 1883.

THESE chapters on etching, the author tells us, appeared originally, for the most part, in the pages of the *Etcher*. Gathered up into this form they make a very handsome thin octavo volume of seventy-two pages, which contain much entertaining and instructive matter relating to the etcher's technical processes. For those who wish to understand these processes the book will be found very serviceable, as it not only gives such information as is contained in treatises like those of Lalanne and Hamerton, but a good deal in addition concerning minor details, the want of which has caused many embarrassments to the solitary etcher. For instance, respecting grounds, the author remarks that the main desiderata are that they should be firmly adhesive to the metal, absolutely impervious to the acid, hard enough to insure a clean line, and soft enough to allow the perfectly free play of the needle. Many different grounds, each composed of many ingredients, are used; but they all involve more or less trouble in their preparation, and do not all work perfectly well. Mr. Chattock, desiring one that should be as simple as possible consistently with thoroughness and efficiency, found that a mixture of asphaltum and wax answered every purpose in his own practice. It has, besides that of simplicity, the advantage of being dark enough to show the lines plainly without being smoked, and pale enough to show them still when bitten by a hydrochloric mordant, which darkens the copper as it bites. A useful device for preventing too rapid evaporation, when the ground is applied in the form of a solution, is described. It consists of a pane of glass so placed in a wooden frame as to be raised about a quarter of an inch from a level board on which it rests. The plate to be bitten is placed on the board under the glass, which being lifted, the solution is poured on. The glass is then let down, and the board is gently tilted in all directions till the solution has reached every part. The thin stratum of air between the plate and the glass is not enough to dry the ground till after this process is easily completed.

Very full instructions are given for preparing and using the etching-needle, and the methods of stopping out, rebiting, and working-in the acid are also fully treated. We think the author, though he has the concurrence of nearly all modern etchers, makes too much account of the effects obtained by these means. The fine gradations thus secured do not seem to us qualities that ought to be sought to any great extent in etching. Good and expressive lines, with comparatively little variation of depth (though often with considerable variety of effect consequent upon skilful use of the needle), are characteristic of the class of etchings which seem to us best; and the energies of etchers would, we think, as a rule, be more usefully spent in striving to render their lines expressive than in seeking these refinements of tone, which properly belong to other processes.

The chapters on Mordants, on Dry-Point, on Printing and Inks, and on Papers are all clear and sufficient, but the author argues weakly and erroneously in favor of the *retroussage* method of printing. That method is one of the chief obstacles to progress in modern etching. Plates thus softened and disguised by the printer pass, with the not yet very discriminating body of both artists and public, as artistic, which would not be much admired if they had to depend upon the merits of the etcher's actual work upon them. We regard this method as a temporary fashion which will ere long run its course. In fact, *retroussage* is simply a trick of execution, and everything of this nature is intrinsically bad, as well as foreign to good and honorable art. Whatever effect, or suggestion, of light and shade an artist may desire in a copper-plate—beyond such as his actual lines will produce—should be honestly wrought in mezzotint or some other legitimate process.

The text is accompanied by eight etchings by the author, which vary in quality, but do not, any of them, reach a high degree of merit. The frontispiece, "The Barn-Door," is like school-boys' work in point of drawing. "The Larch Wood," facing page 64, is pleasantly suggestive, but it is not strong work. "The Brook," facing page 32, is conventional in execution, and inharmonious in chiaroscuro. The up-stream passage in shadow (got largely by *retroussage*) forms a too heavy spot of dark in relation to the rest of the design—which is wrought in comparatively open line and clean-wiped. Still, the subject is a good one, and there is some clever work in it. The open line-work shows about as much power of sketching as is possible where the essentials of drawing are no more keenly felt than they are at present by average etchers. The best plate in the series is "The River Llyfuant," a dry-point, facing page 48. This is in some respects charming, and is wrought with much tenderness and skill.

Man before Metals. By N. Joly, Professor at the Science Faculty of Toulouse. [Vol. xlv. of the International Scientific Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. 365, with 148 illustrations.

THIS book contains nothing new, and its "excuse for being" is to be found in the simple and methodical arrangement of well-known facts, and in the candor with which their bearing upon certain mooted points is discussed. Regarded in this light, the work is entitled to commendation even from those who do not fully agree with the author as to the antiquity of man. As a rule, however, his conclusions upon this subject will be generally accepted, though our ability to decide upon the validity of his reasoning is at times impaired by the omission of what may eventually prove to be essential facts. A notable instance of this occurs in the chapter on "Tertiary Man." Justly enough, this question is said to be still open; and being so, it was clearly the author's duty to have aided us as far as possible in coming to a conclusion of our own, by giving us all the material facts of which he was in possession. This, however, is not done; for in omitting all mention of the discovery of stone implements in the pliocene beds of Portugal and California, he leaves us, so far as he is concerned, without the knowledge necessary to the formation of a correct opinion. That the omission was not due to ignorance, and was not the result of an attempt to suppress the truth, is evident from the frankness with which the subject is discussed. Whether it proceeded from a lingering doubt as to the authenticity of these finds, or was simply an oversight, cannot, of course, be determined. In either event, it is inexcusable, since it is upon the genuineness of these two finds that the question of man's existence in pliocene times mainly rests; and to omit all notice of them when investigating this point, or when discussing the evidence of his appearance at a still earlier period in the world's history, is virtually to cut away the rounds of the ladder which we are expected to climb.

In treating of prehistoric man in America, and especially in the few pages devoted to the consideration of the mounds and mound-builders, our author is far from satisfactory. In fact, it would be hard to find a greater contrast than exists between this portion of his work and that in which he deals with the river-drift and bone-caves of France, the peat-mosses and kitchen-middens of Denmark, and the lake-dwellings of Switzerland. In the one case he is evidently at home, and his summary of the evidence, drawn from these sources, of man's existence in the earliest quaternary times is clear and conclusive, while in the other he is completely at sea; and though he defers to authors of acknowledged reputation, like Squier and Morton, yet his facts seem to have been selected at random, without much regard to their bearing upon the main question, or to the light thrown on them by subsequent explorations. As a result, he has given us a piece of patchwork, in which the inaccuracies are so numerous as to make it practically worthless either for purposes of illustration or argument. Some, perhaps a large majority, of these errors are of but little moment, though others, like the statement that many of the mounds "seem to date from a period anterior to the neolithic age of the New World," are more serious and far-reaching in their character. This assertion, it is true, is so qualified as to reduce the number of these palæolithic mounds to an insignificant fraction; but even in this modified form the statement cannot be passed over, since it is an established fact that nothing has yet been taken from the mounds of the Mississippi Valley that indicates a different phase of civilization from that which the red Indians, who held this region at the time of the discovery, are known to have reached: nothing which they could not have made, or might not have bought from their neighbors in Mexico or on the Atlantic coast, with both of whom they had more or less intercourse. As these same Indians are admitted to have been living in the neolithic age, this is, of course, a sufficient answer to the statement, though it does not, perhaps, enable us to identify them with the mound-builders. To do this, we must go one step further, and show that they built either some of these identical works or others of a similar character. Fortunately, this is not a matter about which there can be any doubt; and as no other people, so far as we know, have ever occupied this region, it is believed that we are justified in concluding that the mounds of the Mississippi Valley, of every sort and size, were the work of these same Indians, or of their immediate ancestors. All other inferences are denied us until it can be shown that at some time in the past this valley was held by a people other than the Indians, who built mounds, defended themselves behind earthen walls, and had reached that stage of civilization which, for the want of a better term, we are accustomed to call the neolithic, or age of polished stone.

In the second portion of the work—that which relates to primitive civilization—our author is seen to better advantage. The subject itself is one of never-failing interest, and it is treated in a manner that is at once entertaining and instructive. Instead of an exhaustive study, wearisome by reason of its details and suitable only to the special student, he has given us, under appropriate headings, short and comprehensive sketches of the origin and development of the arts and industries of quaternary man, and also of his religion, so far as he can be said to have had any. To do this successfully, a knowledge not only of the latest teachings of archæology, but also of the manners and customs of modern savages is requisite—the one being to some extent a complement of the other. In both these branches our author is proficient, and hence the satisfactory manner in which much of this part of his work is done. Of course, in an investigation of this character, covering such a wide range of subjects upon many of which opinions differ, errors of "omission and commission," or what are thought to be such, are almost inevitable. Vague statements, too, will creep in, and assertions of a seemingly contradictory character are not impossible. An instance of the former may be found in the denial of "extended commercial relations to tribes of the stone age"; and an example of the latter can be seen on pages 204 and 307, where the discovery of pottery is attributed to two different epochs or phases of civilization. Statements like these are ambiguities rather than inaccuracies, and, though they unquestionably detract somewhat from the value of the account, as given, of the development of civilization, yet in the present instance they do not necessarily weaken the force of the conclusion as to the gradual advance of the human race from a lower level of savagery to a higher plane of barbarism. Upon this point our author's position is believed to be impregnable, as it is the logical outcome of a series of facts, carefully chosen and stated with fairness and precision. Indeed, in this respect, as well as in the modesty with which these conclusions are announced, this work may well serve as a model. Debatable questions are treated as such, and in regard to those matters about which we know nothing, and are not likely ever to be any wiser, he does not hesitate to confess his ignorance. Such frankness would disarm criticism, even if there were points of difference more numerous and of more importance than can be found in the present volume.

Histoire de la Littérature Anglaise. Par Augustin Filon. Paris, 1883; New York: F. W. Christern.

WHATEVER may be their defects otherwise, French writers always have the art of saying things pleasantly. Here is M. Filon, who has taken a well-worn theme, has brought to its treatment neither the brilliant generalization of Taine nor the careful research of Beljame, who, moreover, not seldom trips in his facts, and seems to know some of his authors only by report; for instance, the ascription, more than once, to Marlowe of a tragedy of "Richard II." could hardly have been made by one who had read that ghastly scene at Berkeley Castle. Yet, for all this, he has a way of seizing the leading points, and of saying the *fin mot* upon occasion, so that we read his book with pleasure, and with a feeling that, at least in some points, our knowledge has been refreshed, and with no irritation at a few amiable *bévues*.

The history begins with "The Celtic Period," and opens with a statement that "the Cimmerians were driven by the Scythians from the shores of the Euxine Sea." One feels like crying, with Daudin, "Ah! passons au déluge"; but even granting that the Cymri of Britain were descendants of these Cimmerians, why their eviction should figure as a starting-point for English literature, rather than the Dorian migration or the Eugubine Tables, is more than we can see. The Celtic literature is rich and beautiful, but it is no more one of the "origines" of English literature than the Iroquois or Algonkin myths are the origins of American literature.

Extricating ourselves from this Cimmerian darkness, we come to the "période Saxonne," and here we meet evident signs that M. Filon does not know what he is talking about, and is far from clear as to what he means to say about it. What, for example, is the meaning of this? "If we take away manufactured words—words taken from the Greek or the Latin—which the progress of science and the developments of modern life have made necessary, the English is poorer than the Saxon, since one-fifth of the words in use in the time of Alfred have disappeared from the language." Does he mean that we English-speaking folk are now talking a language made up of four-fifths of the Alfredian vocabulary plus technical and scientific terms? What does he mean by saying that from the beginning of the fifteenth century, "henceforth the Anglo-Saxon calls itself the English"? We had been under the impression that the Anglo-Saxon never "called itself" anything at all, though some scholars, for reasons of convenience chiefly, prefer to call the form of English in use before the twelfth century "Anglo-Saxon"; but that the writers and speakers of that tongue called it "English" for six hundred years before M. Filon's date. But old English is not a strong point with our author, and it is hardly fair to bring him so closely to book. Of the results of the Norman Conquest, we should look to find him better informed; yet we do not escape a statement like this: "Comme la langue est le principal organe de la vie nationale, et le plus puissant véhicule des aspirations autonomiques d'un peuple, on [he is speaking of William and his immediate successors] proscrivit la langue des vaincus; on lui défendit d'exister." And William, who tried to learn English, and who issued many writs in English, but never one in French—!

Readers of early English will be inclined to stare and gasp at this description of Layamon's 'Brut': "Layamon écrit, au commencement du treizième siècle, dans le dialecte du Sud-Est, une triste compilation de Bède, de Saint-Albin, de saint Augustin de Canterbury, et de Robert Wace." However, we prefer to pass on, without

further criticism, to something of which we can speak more favorably. If any one wishes to test a Frenchman's qualifications to write about English literature, let him try him on the Elizabethans. The earlier periods are full of pitfalls and mantraps, and after the Restoration all is plain sailing. But if a Frenchman has so far widened his horizon beyond Racine, Boileau, and the *grand siècle*, to feel the passionate energy, the radiant imagination, the puissant language, the grace and tenderness of the Elizabethans, then we are pretty sure to get something good from him; and here M. Filon comes out very well. His criticisms are sympathetic and, in the main, good. His long and careful article on Shakspere is well worth reading, and shows a thoughtful study of each drama. Here is one good remark out of many:

"Lear, Macbeth, Othello, Hamlet, se ressemblent en un point. C'est la passion qui les mène; nul d'entre eux ne fait ce qu'il veut, nul n'a le gouvernement de lui-même. Bien au-dessus de nos têtes, le théâtre antique avait placé la fatalité; c'est en nous que la place Shakespeare. Il lègue cette idée au drame moderne. Avec Racine et Schiller apparaîtront d'autres héros qui personnifient la liberté humaine: conception fière et sublime, si elle n'est pas démentie par l'étude des faits intérieurs. L'avenir dira peut-être—si l'homme arrive à se connaître lui-même—laquelle de ces trois philosophies dramatiques est la plus conforme au vrai."

A sound thought, well put, and, to the present reviewer's mind, worth lumber-rooms of ingenious metaphysical cobwebs, to say nothing of that fatuous criticism that studies Shakspere with slate and pencil, and measures him by the statistics of "end-stopped" lines, and "run-on" lines, and "double-endings," and "weak-endings." It would be almost parallel criticism to judge the works of Mozart or Beethoven by counting the accidental sharps and flats.

Life on the Mississippi. By Mark Twain. With more than three hundred illustrations. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

MARK TWAIN labors under the disadvantages which attach to the position of a professional humorist. When he writes a serious book, the public receives it with a predisposition to laugh which interferes with its appreciation of what the author has to say. 'Life on the Mississippi' is only secondarily the work of a funny man. Primarily it is a descriptive and historical work, by an ex-pilot of the old Mississippi sort, intended to bring before us the contrast between the river as it is, and as it was in the days before the war, and before the great steamboat trade had been interfered with by the building of rival railroads. Many chapters of the book first appeared in the *Atlantic*. Probably by this time most readers of Mark Twain know that the odd literary *alias* selected by him came from the Mississippi, where "mark twain" was once the cry of the leadsman when he found that he had two fathoms of water. All Mr. Clemens's description of his pilot apprenticeship and of pilot life is interesting, and we take it for granted true, the veins of humorous exaggeration which occur in it having little or no connection with the general drift of the narrative. We have had occasion in these columns once or twice to refer to Mrs. Trollope's formerly discredited book as a probably veracious account of life in that part of America which she saw—a journey up the Mississippi constituted part of her American tour—and curiously enough Mark Twain, whose recollections of Mississippi life go back to the confines of the Trollope era in American development, speaks highly of her book and of her regard for accuracy in general. We have always believed that the real explanation of the storm of criticism which the book met with in this country lay partly in the fact that the headquarters of "culture" in America at the time was the East, while the part of the country that she saw most of was the pioneer West, of which the East knew little, but thought highly. Consequently, when she painted the West as she actually found it, the sensitive East was very much shocked and disgusted because the picture did not at all correspond with the Eastern view of what the West must be, and visited its displeasure upon the wretched author. At any rate Mark Twain vouches, as far as he can, for the truth of the picture.

The book will be found, as a record of a past phase of American life, both entertaining and valuable. The author is not only a humorist, but there is some purpose in his humor: as witness his account of the dreadful pass to which the worship of Sir Walter Scott and the attempt to introduce chivalry into real life brought the South. The best part of the book, however, is that which relates to the Mississippi pilot, a creature as extinct as the dodo.

La Légende des Siècles. Vol. v. By Victor Hugo. Paris: Calmann Lévy. New York: F. W. Christern.

WHAT can be said of this last volume of the famous "Legend" that has not been said of the four that preceded it? The same astonishment is felt at the unabated fury of the poetic fire still burning in the octogenarian breast, at the loftiness of some thoughts, clothed in noble language, made more luminous by the confused background of trivial phrases and incoherent exclamations. Victor Hugo adores Liberty—an immaculate, virtuous ideal, under whose rule every man will be perfect and there shall be no more suffering, no more crime or vice. Then, he believes honestly in God, the invisible spirit, all love and justice, who shall surely reward or punish us according to our deserts; but his romantic vocabulary cannot supply him with terms strong enough to express his hatred of the clergy—the Church is his bête noire, the embodiment of all that is vicious and criminal. He loves the people, and the vilest rascal will enlist his sympathy provided he belongs to the *peuple*: is he not one of the victims of oppression and fanaticism?

Such is the theme that he must develop throughout some three hundred pages of poetry, as he has done these last forty years in prose and verse; and we are tempted to say apologetically with Bilboquet, when some one criticised his solitary musician who always played the same note on his French horn: "Well, it pleases those who are fond of that note." Victor Hugo calls to his aid all the resources of the French language—and no modern writer has them better at his command. He juggles with words; they are the glittering tinsel with which he adorns deftly the merest skeleton of an idea. He excites himself to the highest pitch of indignation, hurling, the while, terrible epithets at the objects of his hatred. He soars so high that the mind can scarcely follow him, then, without transition, he drops into the merest commonplace, as if to remind us that he is but human after all.

The first piece in this volume, "Les Grandes Lois," in which he rejects indignantly Darwin's theory of the origin of man, is an eloquent declaration of faith. He appeals to the heart for arguments to prove the immortality of the soul, and tells those to whom science has not brought proof, but doubt:

"Le désespoir vous plaît, moi je prends l'espérance."

This poem, written in a lofty inspiration, contains many beautiful lines, worthy of the palmiest days of the author's fame. "Dante's Vision" is a vast conception of the Last Judgment, in which we find many beauties and many obscurities. The poem "Inferi" is in the same style. There are some pieces, of a more graceful turn, that are quite refreshing to read after this prolonged poetic nightmare. Such are "The Peasants on the Seashore," and a pretty little piece, without a title, in which "la petite Jeanne," Hugo's darling grandchild, gives him the reason why the cats eat the mice: "You see, grandpa," says she in conclusion, "if the mouse was the bigger animal, it would eat the cat." The allegory is transparent enough.

In conclusion, let us say that while this volume maintains Victor Hugo's claim to the title of first lyric poet of France, there is much in it that is weak, because not clear. The greatest claim ever made in favor of the French language is its clearness and freedom from ambiguity. We don't know that poetry is an exception; yet there are not a few people who think that what is incomprehensible must be sublime. An admirer of Hugo, being told that the sense of certain passages in one of his books was obscure, "You don't understand it," replied the enthusiast; "neither do I, but he knows what he means, and the time will come when it will be clear to all—it is the language of the future!" This prophecy may be a consoling thought to many who wish to admire, yet doubt.

Slavic and Latin. Ilchester Lectures on Comparative Lexicography, delivered at the Taylor Institution, Oxford. By Carl Abel, Ph.D. London: Trübner & Co. 1883.

THESE lectures—resembling in character the author's 'Linguistic Essays,' reviewed in No. 927 of the *Nation*—are four in number, treating of "The Slavification of the Finnish Area," "The Two Russian Languages," "The Russian Linguistic Conception of 'Gentleman' and 'Nobleman,'" and "The Linguistic Conception of Liberty in Russian and Polish as compared with Latin"; to which is added a brief supplement on "Egyptian Inversion." The titles have a slightly sensational sound, and one might suppose it was the lecturer's principal object to amuse his hearers. Far from it, his aim was to initiate them into the mysteries of "Comparative Lexicography, a sister science of Comparative Grammar," the formation of which he has "repeatedly endeavored to advocate"—witness his 'Linguistic Essays' and 'Coptic Researches.' If he speaks of the Russian conception of "gentleman" or "nobleman," he means to elucidate the national psychological grounds which bend the Russian mind to form a certain conception and no other. He endeavors to show you in another lecture that Great Russian and Little Russian—the idioms, in the main, of the northeastern and southwestern divisions of the Czar's empire, respectively—are distinct languages, reflecting the different psychological bases of two distinct nations, one—the larger and northeastern, whose centre is Moscow—originally almost wholly Finnic, but Slavified, and the other—centring around Kiev—purely Slavic. For, Dr. Abel thinks, "it cannot be too emphatically asserted that, on being properly investigated, the words, forms, and constructions of every language are found to display a comprehensive view of the universe, its things, qualities, and transactions, as conceived by each nation after its own peculiar fashion and style."

It is hardly necessary to state that the study of the psychological basis of "every language" is no light task, especially if "the systematic analysis of the dictionary," meaning "the scrutiny of each verbal notion under conceptual categories," is to be supplemented by "the examination of synonymous grammatical forms and

constructions." But it must be worth the trouble, as leading to the ultimate unfolding of the Griqua's and Gbandi's, Herero's and Eve's, "comprehensive view of the universe," which we cannot study from books as we do the Greek's or Hebrew's. Dr. Abel has undertaken a part of the task with a light heart. He has adopted a method, and believes he can sufficiently demonstrate it by "the comparative dissection of a few vocables." To us, we must confess, tasks of this kind appear tremendous; to him they are a scholar's play. Penetrating through all the windings and intricacies of linguistic evolution among an illiterate peasantry, he discovers deeply hidden reasons for things which *we* should deem more or less accidental, or at least dependent upon grounds so flimsy, irrational, or obscure as to baffle all inquiry. Here, for instance, are a few of his more interesting observations, derived from a close study of the two tongues and an ambitious analysis of the two national minds:

"Slavo-Russian knows only the word 'vrag,' a foe from innate evil disposition. Finno-Russian retains the ominous term, but sagaciously supplements it by 'nepriyátel,' an enemy from interest or other more transient motives; a man, in fact, who, under altered circumstances, may think fit to become a friend. . . . 'Sláva,' in Little Russian, 'talk, rumor,' in the more ambitious and political Great Russian speech is exalted into 'glory, honor.' 'Duch,' in simple Little Russian 'vapor, smoke,' in the literary development of Great Russia is raised to 'spirit.' 'Slútchai,' in Little Russian 'an unlucky accident,' in Great Russian, which has a pessimist proclivity, is used to denote *every* kind of accident, all accidents being in that language regarded as pretty sure to turn out more or less unlucky. . . . Again, 'divítysya,' in Little Russian 'to see,' in Great Russian, very much at variance with the classical injunction of *nil admirari*, adopts the more spiritual sense of 'to see and admire, to admire.' 'Golosíty,' in Little Russian 'to sob, to groan,' . . . in Great Russian merely denotes 'to talk aloud.' . . . A cloud in Great Russian is called 'óblako,' from 'óblekaty,' to cover; in Little Russian it goes by the name of 'χmara,' from 'χmúrity,' to darken. . . . Blood, in Great Russian called 'krov,' from a root designating moisture, in Little Russian is known as 'mazká,' from 'mazáty,' to smear. Marriage, which in Great Russian is described as 'svádba,' meaning probably abduction, in Little Russian rejoices in the more modern appellation of 'vesilya,' 'gladness, frolic.'"

It is, however, unfortunate for these efforts or flights of comparative lexicography that the language of the Poles, next neighbors of the Little Russians, like them pure Slavs, and by them separated from the Great Russians—Dr. Abel extends Little Russia as far as Novgorod—agrees on all the points mentioned except *slutchai* (which it has not), not with the neighboring purely Slavic tongue, but with the language which the lectures represent to be Finno-Slavic—that is, a Slavic language transformed by the Finnic mind. In Polish an enemy is denoted both by *wróg* and *nieprzyjaciel; sława* means glory; *duch*, spirit; *dziwić się*, to wonder; *głosić*, to announce aloud; a cloud is called *obłok* as well as *chmura;* blood, *krew;* marriage, *swadźba* as well as *wesele.* The sad fact about the speculations of our author is that they are just as hollow as they are pretentious and seemingly striking. We could prove this by scores of examples, but the above may suffice. His speculations regarding "inversion," both in sound and sense, are worse than hollow—they are mostly ludicrous. Thus, for instance, he asks in his argument on the subject, "Is not 'better,' though derived from 'bad,' the comparative of 'good'? Is not 'melior,' though derived from 'malus,' the comparative of 'bonus'? Is not 'worse,' . . . the opposite of its Sanscrit equivalent 'vara,' meaning 'better'?" These analogies would be very striking if correct; but *better* is not derived from *bad*, nor *melior* from *malus*, nor is *worse* the equivalent of *vara*—as good etymological dictionaries, no less than good sense, show. Doctor Abel uses excellent English in support of his theories, and displays a good knowledge of Slavic idioms, but his transliteration is abominable.

An Outline of Irish History, from the Earliest Times to the Present Day. By Justin H. McCarthy. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. 1883. 12mo, pp. 134. [Also, in the Franklin Square Library.]

MR. MCCARTHY'S short history of Ireland is as good a sketch as could be expected within this number of pages. Written from a positively Irish point of view, it is at the same time fair and temperate in its tone, and accurate in its statements. Its principal defect is what we may call lack of emphasis upon the most essential points. There are three or four crises in the modern history of Ireland—the conquest by Elizabeth, the Cromwellian settlement, the eighteenth-century legislation, for example—which are so conspicuous as history, and have been so vital in their influence, that what the reader needs is to have these described with great vividness and considerable detail, leaving other periods for more cursory treatment. Now, this Mr. McCarthy has not done. The whole history of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries is narrated with about the same degree of fulness and emphasis; and, as a necessary result in so brief a work, the reader often misses what he most needs. For instance, the causes of the rebellion of 1798 are very inadequately told.

For the nineteenth century, and the present situation, it is different: this part of the work is so much more elaborated than the rest that we may consider the earlier chapters as almost an introduction to them. Fifty-two pages are given to the period since the Union; and as recent and contemporary history is always the hardest to get at, and as Mr. Walpole's excellent history ends with the Union, we need not hesitate to pronounce this the most valuable as well as freshest part of the work. Especially the years between O'Connell's agitation and Gladstone's legislation are almost a blank to most of us, so far as Irish history is concerned; and their history will be found narrated in this book with considerable detail and in an interesting manner. Even in these chapters we find some of the lack of proportion that characterizes the book as a whole; they are, however, like the rest, moderate and reasonable in tone.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Graves, R. P. Life of Sir Wm. Rowan Hamilton. Vol. I. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $6.
Gréville, H. Guy's Marriage; or, The Shadow of a Sin. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 75 cents.
Kirk, H. C. A History of the New York State Teachers' Association. E. L. Kellogg & Co.
Larison, Dr. C. W. The Tenting School: a Description of the Tours taken by the Class in Geography in the Academy of Science and Art at Ringos, N. J. Ringos: C. W. Larison.
Oliphant, L. Altiora Peto: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library (12mo). 20 cents.
Schlagintweit, R. von. Die Santa Fe- und Südpacificbahn in Nordamerika. Part 1. B. Westermann & Co.
Sumner, Prof. W. G. What Social Classes Owe to Each Other. Harper & Bros.
Swift, A. M. Derwent Coleridge. New York: Charles F. Roper & Co. 50 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 6, 1883.

The Week.

THE question in what manner the promotions are to be made in the departments under the new civil-service rules is now under consideration at Washington, and it is a very important one. There is no doubt as to what the law is. It says that promotion, as well as entrance, to the service is to be obtained by competitive examination. It is obvious at a glance, however, that the circumstances under which a competition for promotion takes place are very different from those under which a competition for entrance to the service takes place. In the former case, the candidates are taken from a very small class, every member of which is well known to the head of the department or bureau; in the latter, they come from a very large class, of which he knows nothing whatever. In the latter case, therefore, he needs all the protection he can get against the numerous agencies always at work to foist unfit persons upon him. Not only this, he needs to be protected against his own selfish or corrupt interests. With regard to the officers already at work in his office, however, he stands in a totally different position. He is familiar with their character and capacity and peculiarities. One man knows more than others, but is less industrious or less accurate; another is a model of industry and accuracy, but does not know quite enough. One follows admirably a prescribed routine, but is totally unfit to meet an emergency, or deal with an anomaly. Another is remarkable for his erratic tendencies, but also for his fertility of resource and his power of sudden exertion. All these men have their special value in every office, but it is plain that they are not all equally fit to fill every vacancy that may occur in the grades above them, and that certain very important qualifications or defects in them would not be revealed by competitive examination. Something ought, therefore, to be left to the judgment and discretion of the head of the department, but not all. We say something, because he knows things about the candidates which no examination can bring out, and because there can be no proper discipline in a large organization if the chief of it has no power of reward left in his hands. It is not enough that he may dismiss a subordinate, it is also desirable that the subordinate should have something to hope from standing well in his eyes. He ought not to be allowed to punish a man whom he does not like, but who may be a very useful and meritorious officer, by withholding promotion from him altogether; but, on the other hand, no officer ought to feel that he is in no way dependent for promotion on his chief.

We would, therefore, suggest that as regards promotion competitive examination should only be allowed to do part of the work of selection, and that the remainder should be left to the superior officer, on the plan pursued by the Catholic clergy in electing a bishop. They vote for three candidates as respectively fit, fitter, and fittest, and from these the Pope makes his selection. Something of this sort would seem to be what we need in pushing men up the ladder in the civil service. The examination ought to make sure that so far as intellectual qualities go, a certain number of men are fit for the vacancy; but the head, who knows all about their other qualifications, ought to say which shall have it. As long as a large proportion of politicians are hostile to the new system, there will be great risk in making it too hard-and-fast in its operation. Nothing is more welcome to a man who does not wish to work under rules of any kind than a rule which, in matters of administration, leaves him no discretion, because he is sure to find opportunities of making it work mischief or absurdity.

The Republicans of Ohio are said to look upon their campaign as already won, although active work only began last week. They have had little to do thus far except to remain quiet and view the Democratic efforts to commit suicide. A more curious and genuine "shindy" than has been in constant operation since Judge Hoadly's nomination has never been seen in any State. It has been the evident purpose of a large section of his party to secure his defeat, not because he is not a desirable man for Governor, but because he is a reformer, and wants to make his party better. They are afraid that if he is elected Governor he will be nominated for President next year, and they do not want a reformer for President. They want a man who, as Judge Thurman said not long ago, "will take the boys in by the fire and warm their toes." If they can't have their toes warmed, what is the use in having a Democratic victory? Rather than run the risk of any reform nonsense next year, they will "kill off" Hoadly this year. Republican confidence under these circumstances is not unjustifiable.

A few weeks ago the Democrats of Hamilton County, which is the city of Cincinnati, met to nominate a county ticket. Their convention was so notoriously "packed" that a protest was at once made against its work by many eminent Democrats, and the Democratic newspaper which is Judge Hoadly's personal organ flatly refused to support the ticket. Pressure was brought to bear upon the organ, however, by means of a "dicker" between the Judge and the local boss, and a few days later the editor "turned the paper round." The article in which he achieved this familiar journalistic feat was constructed in the way which usage has decided to be the most suitable for such emergencies. The editor was unable to find words to express his abhorrence of the efforts which had been made to "debauch and destroy" the party, but, while he spurned the methods of the debaucher, he was delighted to find that the candidates were so vastly superior to the methods of their nomination that he was able to support the ticket, while he would continue to denounce the despicable autocrat who had endeavored to fasten his "envenomed fangs" upon the Democracy of Hamilton County. This heroic effort to restore harmony was, unhappily, not successful. The protesting Democrats refused to be turned around, and decided to call a new convention on September 8 and nominate a separate ticket. They propose also to endorse Judge Hoadly. The predicament to which they will thus subject the editor of the Hoadly organ is horrible to contemplate. We trust, for the sake of humanity, that the Judge will refrain from turning him around again.

Mr. Sherman S. Rogers, of Buffalo, having been requested to give his views upon the "duties which the political situation imposes upon Republicans," has responded in a letter which we commend to the thoughtful consideration of all varieties of Republican leaders. Mr. Rogers claims that the Republicans who in his section refused to support the Saratoga ticket last year, were the best and most trustworthy members of their party, and that while none of them became Democrats, it will be a great mistake to regard their revolt as a "mere summer cloud." "The action of the Independents," he adds, "marks a settled disposition, and not a temporary impulse. It would not be too much to say that it was the emphatic close of the old and the opening of a new period in the life of the party." That is the whole situation, clearly and accurately stated. What Mr. Rogers says of the character of the bolters in Western New York is true of those in other parts of the State. They were in all sections the best men in the party. They refused to vote the party ticket because they did not like the methods by which it was nominated, and because it represented a system which they detested. They would do the same thing again under similar circumstances. They cannot be won back to unquestioning party fealty by mere proclamations of harmony. Henceforth no ticket can be sure of receiving the united Republican vote in New York, unless it deserves it both in the character of its candidates and in the manner of their selection. The Independents, who only a few years ago were despised and ridiculed as "scratchers," have grown to a great multitude, numbering from 75,000 to 100,000 voters, and they are the real rulers of their party's fortunes to-day.

The long wrangle in the Pennsylvania Legislature over the reapportionment of the State has entered upon its ninth month, and agreement upon any plan is apparently as far off as ever. Neither the Republican majority in the Senate nor the Democratic majority in the House is willing to "give in." When the Legislature came together last January, the Republican Senators drew up their plan, grabbing all the districts that they could, and the Democrats of the House drew up theirs, grabbing all that they could. Each body passed its own bill and promptly refused to pass the other's. Then conferences were held, in

which no concessions of importance were made. Then each house submitted its ultimatum, and the other house in each case rejected it. Then there was endless debating, followed by fresh plans, which differed only in trifles from the first ones. Then each house made propositions which there was no likelihood that the other would accept, and then both began to appeal to the public. This went on through the five months or more of the regular session, and when the day of adjournment arrived without action having been taken, the Governor reconvened the Legislature in extra session expressly to attend to this work. More than three months have since elapsed, and the solution is as far off as ever. The cost to the State is $3,000 a day, making the expense of the extra session nearly $300,000, and of the combined regular and extra sessions nearly $800,000.

The taxpayers of Pennsylvania are naturally becoming interested in the matter, and each party is endeavoring to turn the impending wrath from its own head to that of its rival. A few disgraceful failures like this by other Legislatures might have the effect of arousing public sentiment to the wisdom of taking the burden of apportionment entirely from the Legislatures and putting it in the hands of a commission, composed of men of both political parties, and appointed by the Governor. Some such change will have to be made sooner or later, for the legislative abuse of the duty grows worse every year. The Republican members of the Pennsylvania Legislature based their refusal to refer the matter to a commission on the ground that to do so would be for the honorable legislators to "abdicate their functions." Why should they not abdicate functions which they have shown themselves incapable of performing?

The Pacific-coast jurists have been rather staggered by several of the decisions made under the Anti-Chinese Law, and have set to work to explain what they call the "nullification" of the act by the judges. The San Francisco *News-Letter* says the explanation is the "persistent opposition of New England to our State"; but the *Bulletin* qualifies this by the admission that "perhaps the motives of the persons who have been conspicuous in the nullification of this act of Congress are not in all cases the same." The "mainspring," it says, is, of course, "a desire to be in accord with a supposed prevailing sentiment"; but then some of the judges have been swayed by "the large transportation interests"; some of them think that "the heathen can be made to coerce our own laborers"—whatever that may mean; and some are influenced by a sickly feeling connected with what they call in Boston the brotherhood of man. It mentions Judges Field, Sawyer, Nelson and Lowell as among those whose decisions have been produced in this way. The legal difficulties in the way of the act in question it of course brushes aside as of no consequence. Articles of this sort usually, but very tamely, wind up with a statement that the people will shortly demand the impeachment of the wretched men; but in this case the writer closes with the maddening climax that the "Chinaman of wealth" "sleeps under his own counter, and can do business for what it costs a white man to sweep out his store." It is this image of the cheap pagan counter with the wealthy Mongolian snoring away under it, constantly present as it is in the Californian mind, that United States judges have neglected to take into account in construing the act.

The International Workman's Association has addressed a letter to the New York workingmen, in which it denounces Denis Kearney as a "traitor" to the cause of labor. They declare that Kearney is in the pay of "monopolists," and that photographs of receipts given by him for money received as bribes can be produced if desired; that the expenses of Kearney in his last trip East were defrayed by capitalists, and that he has not done an honest day's work in five years. For confirmation of these charges they refer to any of the labor unions in San Francisco. This is not the first time Kearney has been charged with treason to labor, but the letter is important as showing why he is now generally discredited among the laboring men. They have found out, or think they have found out, that he is a rascal, and the only mistake they make is in applying such a fine-sounding term as "treason" to what they have discovered. The extraordinary feature of his career was the stanch support so long given to his foul-mouthed, raving demagogism by the honest laboring population of the country. Finding him out is a good stroke for the cause.

The *Sun* publishes an interview with Mr. E. N. Hill, of Washington, in which that gentleman declares that General Garfield told him that he had offered Dorsey the Secretaryship of the Interior, and was very sorry the latter had declined. He backs this up with an affidavit, a circumstance which the *Sun* will pardon us for saying it should never have published. For some reason or other, it is now generally recognized that a political charge made by one of Dorsey's friends is better without an affidavit. When a man of Mr. Hill's eminence makes a charge against anybody, that is enough. For him to call at once for a Bible and notary public is not merely superfluous. The reader pauses and hesitatingly asks himself, Why should E. N. Hill take an affidavit? Why should he impeach his own habitual and well-known veracity by suggesting that his word, unsupported by an oath, would not be at once believed? This is the great objection to affidavits, and the reason why in political campaigns they fail to settle so many controversies.

The movement of the crops has been tardy this year, but is now increasing rapidly. The total receipts of grain at the eight principal primary markets in the West during the last week were more than double as much as in the first week of August. The export movement of breadstuffs has also increased, and is now nearly up to the large volume of the corresponding time last year. Notwithstanding some damage to the cotton crop and the depressed condition of the foreign market for cotton, the general commercial outlook is more favorable than at any time for nearly a year. There is unquestionably much distrust yet in regard to the general soundness of mercantile credit. The facts disclosed in connection with the Shaw failure in Boston have shown that in the last few years there has been a great change in the general methods of making mercantile paper, of which the great bulk is now single-name paper instead of double-name, and that in many instances the greater facility for borrowing afforded by this change has induced merchants to borrow for speculative purposes when they did not require the money in their regular business. This is now almost the only unfavorable feature in the whole commercial and financial situation. The crops have been abundant, there are fair markets for all the exportable surplus. Foreign capital is beginning to buy American securities, and the probabilities are in favor of imports of specie before the end of the year. The one thing necessary to a complete restoration of confidence and prosperity is the assurance that the failures of the last month have eliminated the element of unsoundness above referred to.

The recent auction sales of domestic dry goods have been made at losing prices to the manufacturers. It would probably be an underestimate to put the average loss at 10 per cent. The stocks had been carried in the producers' hands as long as was possible, and the sales were made in most cases because the banks were glutted with paper drawn against this class of property and could not take any more. The upshot of the matter is that a portion of the manufacturers' capital disappeared when the goods were disposed of, and that further production must involve a similar sacrifice unless prices improve, or the producer can lessen the cost of his fabrics in a corresponding ratio. Reduction of cost means either lower wages or cheaper materials, or both. There can be no reduction of profits, because profits are below zero already. Many manufacturers will continue work for a time, even at a loss, rather than allow their operatives to leave them and their machinery to deteriorate through disuse, but there are obvious limits to this kind of production. There must come a time when the spindle will cease to turn under such conditions. The manufacturer no more than the operative can make something out of nothing. The cost of production cannot long exceed the proceeds of sales, and we judge that the time is close at hand when the manufacturers must either shorten their hours or reduce wages, or find cheaper raw materials. Fortunately the latter alternative is within their reach. Whether they will be wise enough to avail themselves of it is another question. The existing tariff imposes duties on the raw materials of manufacturing industry which it would be quite within bounds to estimate at an average of 30 per cent. These are duties on wool, ores, metals, dye-stuffs, chemicals, machinery, and a long list of textile fabrics which are not produced in this country to any considerable extent, but which are nevertheless part and parcel of the protective system.

These duties weigh upon the domestic manufacturer like lead. They enter into his cost of production in the same way as motive power, wages, rent, interest, or any other expenditure he has to make. In point of fact they are consuming the profit which he might otherwise make, even in the present state of the market, for his finished product. We commend the fact to his serious consideration.

As New York is one of the great restaurant cities of the world, all disputes involving the respective rights of waiters, "guests," and "proprietors" are of interest to three very large and important classes of the community. Mr. S. H. Preston, of this city, is going to bring a suit for $5,000 against Mr. Shoemaker, the proprietor of a Broadway restaurant, which will involve the responsibility of proprietors for the behavior of waiters. The facts out of which the dispute arose, according to his evidently biassed account, are these: Mr. Preston, who is described as a quiet, inoffensive man, went to the restaurant with a lady, and ordered one of Mr. Shoemaker's most noted waiters named "Billy" to get him a dinner. Billy is a powerful man, and is said to have been a "bouncer" at one time—a position the duties of which, it must be confessed, are clearly different from, and, perhaps, hardly a good preparation for, those of a waiter. Mr. Preston found it impossible to get the dishes which he ordered, and remonstrated, whereupon Billy, threatening him with instant death, sprang upon him and knocked him out of his chair with a severe blow in the face. The unfortunate man was rescued, and now declares it to be his intention to make it a "test case." Billy has disappeared, so we are obliged to be content for the present with the guest's side of the story. Those who like to take a fair view of such matters will, however, be easily able to perceive that the proprietor's view of the matter must be very different. We all know how irritating it must be to a waiter, particularly if he happens to be an ex-bouncer, to be found fault with for such little things as bringing fried potatoes when boiled have been ordered, or mutton when beef was asked for—in themselves mere trifles, and often difficult to remember. The general docility and patience of guests are what mainly makes life supportable to waiters, and a fault-finder will sometimes get into trouble among them. This is the view of such matters generally taken by proprietors. Billy's threat that he would murder Mr. Preston is, of course, a private matter between the two.

The cotton-planters of the South are known to have much trouble with their "labor." After a certain amount of work has been done by the negroes, and advances have been made, the planters are suddenly left in the lurch by the disappearance of their hands, who have gone to camp-meeting or perchance to a new employer. An action for breach of contract is out of the question, as such promise-breakers are generally either utterly insolvent, or possessed of only enough property to come within the exemption laws, so kind in their intentions, and so liberally construed by the judiciary. The remedy afforded by courts of equity—specific performance—is also plainly impracticable, and the result is loss to men least able to suffer loss, and very general loss, for such "contract-jumping," as the Macon *Telegraph* terms it, is very common. The Georgia Legislature has been moved by the importunity of farmers to devise a remedy for this great evil. A bill has lately passed the Senate which declares it "a misdemeanor for any person engaged to labor for another to break his contract after he has obtained credit on account of said employment, and on promise that he would continue in said employment." It is difficult to see why the violation of a contract by one who has promised to pay in work for advances made should be called a misdemeanor, punishable with imprisonment, when a similar violation by one who has expressly or impliedly promised to pay in money for goods bought, or labor done, is not.

London is making anew for itself the wooden-pavement experiment which was tried and found wanting in our streets ten or a dozen years ago. It is curious to notice the unsuspecting innocence with which the London journals discuss the first signs of failure. They little know what is in store for them. They say that while the pavement which has been so extensively laid down in the city is a great comfort in diminishing the noise of travel, it leaves much to be desired as regards cleanliness. The *St. James's Gazette* says: "Small boys are employed in some districts, who endeavor to keep the roads clean with the aid of hand-brushes and scoops, but they are of no avail to remove the coagulated dirt which sticks to the pavement and forms a coating of a most offensive nature." The same journal concludes that a "thorough scrubbing at frequent intervals" is the only adequate remedy, but admits that "how this is to be done is a problem yet to be solved." The other problems of depressions and mud-holes will arise soon, and ultimately the discovery will be made that the only remedy for a wooden pavement is to tear it up and put something else in its place. This remedy was adopted here several years ago, and is at last being adopted in Chicago.

There is an unusual stir just now among the crowned heads of Europe. The Emperors of Germany and Austria-Hungary have met at Ischl. The Prince of Montenegro has visited the Sultan at Constantinople. The King of Rumania, a Hohenzollern by descent, has been to see the imperial chief of his house in Berlin. The King of Servia has been the guest of Francis Joseph in Vienna. Czar Alexander III., with his Danish consort, is staying with his royal father-in-law in Copenhagen. Alfonso of Spain is about to exchange, for a while, the banks of the Manzanares for those of the Spree. Speculation is rife concerning most of these princely journeys, and, as usual, the name of Bismarck is whispered in explanation by political wiseacres. The net astutely woven by "the arbiter of the destinies of Europe" against Russia and France is being extended. Carol of Hohenzollern, Milan Obrenovitch, and the son of Isabella will join the triple alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy; Nikita, in the interest of Russia, courts the favor of the Porte, and the Czar bids for a Scandinavian alliance. There may possibly be a little truth in these guesses. If Alfonso does go to Berlin, he undoubtedly means to seek protection against dangers threatening him from the side of republican France. Whether Bismarck is disposed to offer him any is another question, especially as such a proffer is more likely to precipitate upon the Spanish Bourbon the ruin portended by the late military conspiracy—the fear of which leaves him no rest in his capital—than to avert it. Alexander's journey is easily explained by filial affection and the comparative security which the peaceful royal abodes of Denmark offer to the weary dweller at Nihilist-haunted Gatchina and Peterhof. The King of Rumania has been invited to Berlin to become the godfather of the new-born great-grandson of Emperor William. But it is worthy of notice that he arrived at the very hour when this oldest of monarchs celebrated with ostentatious *éclat* the birthday of his Austrian ally. And there can hardly be any doubt that Milan is very anxious to secure the greatest amount of neighborly help on the part of Austria-Hungary, menaced as he is by the constant plottings of the exiled House of Karageorge, the representative scion of which, Prince Peter Karageorgevitch, has just been united in wedlock with the daughter of the Prince of Montenegro, a less open but not less dangerous foe to the present Servian dynasty.

There has never been the least reason for thinking that the Chinese Government was not in earnest in maintaining its suzerainty over Tonquin and Anam. The "treaty" which the successes of the French at Hué enabled them to extort, week before last, has hardly been announced before we hear of the Chinese advance in force upon Haidzuong, and the beginning of a struggle in which the advantages in point of strength or military prowess are doubtfully on the side of the French. Fighting at arm's length with China is in no respect what it was forty years ago for any European Power. That vast empire now lacks neither the most destructive weapons of modern warfare, nor arsenals, nor ironclads, nor Western tactics; it has lately called to its assistance the telegraph, and the present operations may teach it the utility of the railway as a means of national defence. Ever since the Russo-Chinese collision in Kulja in 1880, speculation as to the result of a genuine set-to between the most populous and tenacious nation on earth and any European force which it could get at has been anything but frivolous. There can be no doubt that both Russia and England are highly interested spectators of the drama just opening in the delta of the Red River. Much anxiety must also prevail among the European inhabitants of the treaty ports of China, for the populace are not very discriminating as to "foreign devils," and the approach of a hostile French fleet might revive scenes of savage violence which are still fresh in the memory of the present generation.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, August 29, to TUESDAY, September 4, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR and his party started East by rail last Saturday morning. They arrived at the Mammoth Hot Springs on Friday, and camped near the hotel over night, having travelled, during the trip, about 300 miles on horseback. They reached Chicago on Tuesday.

The several parties of foreign and American celebrities who had been invited by President Villard to attend the opening of the Northern Pacific Railroad arrived at Minneapolis on Monday, where they were given a very hearty reception. An elegant luncheon was served them by the city, after which there were speeches made in reply to toasts to Mr. Villard, Jay Cooke, and others. The city of St. Paul entertained the excursionists at Minnetonka Beach in the afternoon. President Arthur was present and made a short speech, in which he said: "Coming to you from that wonderland of America I have travelled a thousand miles by the Northern Pacific Railroad. Nothing I have read, nothing I have ever heard, has equalled what I have seen, which convinces me of the importance of this great enterprise, and that it has not been overestimated by its most sanguine friends. All honor then to the zeal and energy which have given to that enterprise such tremendous success." Mr. Villard then thanked the people for their good wishes and kindness. On Tuesday the excursionists were at Fargo, Dakota, and later in the day visited the Dalrymple farms.

The Directors of the Western Union Telegraph Company have made a concession to their employees by issuing the following order: "Commencing to-day (September 1) seven and a half hours' actual service in this office during week nights will constitute a day's work, or, in other words, the hours of the night force will be from 5:30 P. M. till 1:30 A. M., allowing thirty minutes for lunch. Sunday service will be paid for the same as other over-time services, at the rate of one-seventh of a day's pay for each hour. All payments for over-time, including Sunday service, or for a fractional part of a month, will be based upon the number of week days in the month."

Dr. Norvin Green, President of the Western Union Telegraph Company, gave some very interesting testimony before the Senate Sub-Committee on Labor and Education, in this city, on Thursday and Friday. He explained to some extent the financial methods of the Western Union. Mr. John Roach, the shipbuilder, was before the Committee on Tuesday.

Some German capitalists have prepared a claim that the United States is responsible for the payment of certain bonds repudiated by Georgia in 1869 in aid of the Brunswick Railroad, because this breach of faith occurred during the administration of a provisional governor appointed by the United States.

The first appointment in the Post-office Department at Washington under the new civil-service rules was made on Wednesday, when Ovington E. Weller, of Granite, Md., was selected to fill a one-thousand-dollar vacancy.

The United States Commissioner of Patents has made the important decision that a word merely descriptive of an article of trade, or its qualities, ingredients, or characteristics, cannot become a lawful trade-mark by virtue of a change in its orthography to that of a foreign language in which it possesses the same meaning.

It is currently reported that John C. New, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, will soon resign his office, on account of the pressure of private business.

A naval court-martial has been trying a number of cadets at Annapolis, Md., during the week for hazing fourth-classmen. On Tuesday two of the accused were acquitted.

A secret conference of leading Southern politicians of the Mahone school was held in Washington on Wednesday and Thursday. The following persons are said to have been present: Mahone and Brady, of Virginia; Chalmers and Jeffards, of Mississippi; and Longstreet, of Georgia. The prime object of the meeting is said to have been to discuss a plan of activity that will assure Democratic defeat in 1884, and exalt the leadership and methods of Mahone.

The Pennsylvania Greenback Convention on Thursday nominated T. P. Rynder for Auditor-General and A. T. Marsh for State Treasurer. Among the planks of the platform is the following: "As the national Government can alone create money, the national Government should alone issue it and control its volume, which should be of sufficient amount, issued in payment of Government debt or other value received, to enable our people to transact the business of the country on a cash basis."

There is a report in political circles of that State that well-known politicians are endeavoring to effect a complete fusion of the opposition parties in Iowa, and the plan, as announced, is to secure the withdrawal of Kinne, the Democratic candidate for Governor, in favor of General Weaver, with the understanding that Kinne is to be supported by the combined opposition in the Legislature for United States Senator.

The New Jersey Republican State Convention is called to meet at Trenton on September 18. Ex-Gov. Joel Parker has written a letter to Mayor J. C. Yard, of Freehold, positively declining to be a candidate for the Gubernatorial nomination at the New Jersey Democratic Convention.

Governor Butler, of Massachusetts, has decided to be a candidate for renomination. Massachusetts men say that this decision is probably due to the belief on his part that Henry L. Pierce will not consent to be the Republican candidate for Governor.

The Republican State Committee of Massachusetts has issued an address to the people, which says: "No one can overlook the significance of the result in Massachusetts this autumn upon the next Presidential election. At the same time, it would be worse than idle to disguise the fact that the coming election is essentially a State campaign. To the people of Massachusetts, the issues are almost unprecedented in gravity, and justly outweigh all other considerations."

Representative Blackburn, of Kentucky, announces that he is not a candidate for the Speakership, but is a candidate for United States Senator.

The wheat crop in Kansas is threshing out much heavier than was expected, and the State Board of Agriculture now asserts that the crop will aggregate 35,000,000 bushels. The corn crop in Kansas, it is estimated, will reach fully 200,000,000 bushels, and will be the largest ever produced in the State.

The crops in Virginia have been seriously damaged by a drought extending over almost two months.

Reports from more than one hundred tobacco-growing towns in the Connecticut and Housatonic Valleys indicate that the crop for 1883 will be a full average in yield and excellent in quality.

The Massachusetts Central Railroad was sold on Saturday, at Hudson, Mass., under mortgagee sale, to S. N. Aldrich for $500,000. Mr. Aldrich represents a committee of bondholders, and his purchase is exclusive of the rolling-stock.

The tide was unusually high on the New Jersey coast on Wednesday, and the surf was very strong. At Atlantic City a vast amount of destruction was caused, the losses footing up about $100,000. Damage was done at Long Branch and other resorts.

During the month of August the public debt of the United States was reduced $6,671,851 71.

The Foreign Exhibition at Boston was opened on Monday, in the presence of about 1,000 spectators. Many prominent people were present.

The Convention of Deaf Mutes closed its sessions in this city on Thursday. The next Convention will be held in Washington in 1888, when the centennial birthday of the Rev. Thomas Gallaudet, the "Father of the Deaf Mutes," will be celebrated.

A convention of Freethinkers has been in session in Rochester during the week.

Much excitement has been caused in Missouri by the decision of a local judge in St. Louis that the Downing High License Liquor Law is inoperative on account of an old law of 1857.

The semi-centennial of the first white settlement of Dubuque, Ia., was celebrated on Monday.

On Sunday at high mass the Rev. Father Hennessy announced in the Catholic Church in Atlanta, Ga., that on the morrow male children of Catholic parents should attend a school taught by the Sisters, and that those who continued to send their children to the public schools should be deprived of the sacraments. In this school, he said, they would be saved from the demoralizing influences of the public schools.

FOREIGN.

The Comte de Paris has notified the courts of Europe of the death of the Comte de Chambord. The circular of notification is signed "Philippe, Comte de Paris." It is asserted that before his death the Comte de Chambord directed that his body should always remain at Göritz, even if the monarchy should be restored. He said: "They would not have me living, and will not want me dead." On Saturday 3,000 Frenchmen were already at Göritz to attend the funeral. The Comtesse de Chambord, having expressed the wish that the position of chief mourner at the funeral of her husband should be held by the latter's nearest relative, the Comte de Paris decided to return to Paris with the other Orleanist Princes on Saturday night. The Comtesse de Chambord wished the funeral of the Count to have a private character, whereas if the Comte de Paris took the first place it would have the character of a public monarchical demonstration. The Paris newspapers believe that this act has caused a rupture between the Orleanists and Legitimists. The body of the Comte de Chambord was conveyed to Göritz on Sunday. The city was draped in mourning. On Monday the funeral ceremonies took place at Göritz. Five thousand French Royalists took part in them. Several groups of the Royalists held meetings on that day, and declared for the Comte de Paris as the successor of the dead Bourbon.

The French Minister of Marine on Wednesday received a despatch announcing that a treaty of peace between France and Anam had been signed at Hué on August 25. The treaty provides for the complete recognition of a French protectorate over Anam and Tonquin, the definitive annexation of Dinthuan to Cochin China, the permanent military occupation by the French of the forts on the Thuan and Vingchua line, the immediate recall of the Anamite troops from Tonquin, the placing of the garrison there on a peace footing, and the return of the mandarins to their posts. France undertakes to expel the "Black Flags" from Tonquin, and thus insure safety to trade. The Anamite finances and customs are to be absolutely controlled by the French. The treaty allows France to station Residents in all the chief towns of Tonquin, who are to

be accompanied by the necessary number of troops. France may also construct forts on the banks of the Red River. The French Resident at Hué is to have the privilege, which has formerly been refused, of private audiences with the sovereign. The opinion of the Chinese Legation in Berlin is that the treaty between France and Anam is invalid, as China has not recognized the new King of Anam. The French have occupied the city of Hué.

The French General Bouet in Anam has demanded of the War Department an additional reinforcement of 5,000 men. The French Admiral has issued a notice declaring all the ports of Anam, including Saigon, in a state of blockade.

It was reported from Vienna on Monday that the Chinese Government intends to issue a formal protest to the great Powers, declaring that the treaty of peace between France and Anam signed at Hué is void, as the King of Anam was forced by the French to sign it.

On Monday afternoon and Tuesday morning alarming rumors reached Paris and London from Tonquin. It was reported that China had gone to war against the French. Open hostilities were begun suddenly. Fifteen thousand Chinese troops had been despatched from the army of 30,000 which was massed on the Tonquin frontier right after the French were repulsed at Hanoi. This detachment, after crossing the frontier, marched straight upon Haidzuong, one of the first places taken by the French after they succeeded in mastering Hanoi. At the approach of the Chinese troops toward Haidzuong the Anamite forces, under French supervision, marched out in force to oppose their progress. The Anamites were repulsed by the Chinese. The forward movement of the Chinese troops took the French by surprise. It is believed that the Chinese have already taken Haidzuong, and will next march against Hanoi. The advance army is being well supported by the army massed at the frontier, which is being constantly reinforced. A Hong Kong despatch on Tuesday reported that 4,000 Chinese troops, which were stationed at Pakoi, had been ordered to the frontier. The Anamites still threaten Namdinh. A French Cabinet meeting was held on Tuesday, at which Prime Minister Ferry presided. The Cabinet decided to send large reinforcements to Tonquin, consisting of troops from Algeria and the foreign legion.

Ivan Turgeneff, the Russian novelist, died at Bougival, France, on Monday, after a long illness. He was born on November 9, 1818, in the Government of Orel, in the interior of Russia, of noble parentage. Early in life he showed a leaning toward Liberalism. His literary career was begun with a volume of poems. He soon began to write sketches of peasant life, remarkable for their realism. Some of these were collected in a book called 'The Journal of a Sportsman.' The Czar Alexander II. admitted that it was the reading of these sketches which first opened his eyes to the demoralizing effects of serfdom, thereby hastening the act of emancipation when he succeeded to the throne of the Emperor Nicholas. Turgeneff was banished for his plain speaking. He spent most of his later years in Paris and other European cities outside of his native land. He wrote more than a score of novels, many of which have been translated into French and English. His philosophy of life was pessimistic, and his novels all end tragically.

The German Reichstag was opened on Wednesday. The message of Emperor William related solely to the treaty of commerce with Spain. It declared that the Reichstag was called solely to ratify the treaty, and to secure beyond doubt the payment of the indemnity granted to the Government by the Bundesrath for carrying the provisions of the treaty into immediate effect. The treaty passed its third reading on Saturday, and the indemnity was also granted. The session was then closed.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* (Prince Bismarck's organ), whose recent article against France created a sensation throughout Europe, says it believes that the thanks of all friends of peace, even in France, are due to the *Gazette* for its timely warning of the consequences which would result from systematic agitation in France with the object of exciting hate against Germany.

Emperor William of Germany reviewed the Guards in Berlin on Wednesday instead of on the anniversary of the battle of Sedan, as intended. It is believed that the change was made out of deference to French sentiment.

Prince Bismarck and Count Kálnoky, Austrian Foreign Minister, met at Salzburg, Austria, on Friday. It is understood that the prolongation of the triple alliance and the formation of a quadruple alliance were discussed. An arrangement was also made for a common demonstration on the frontiers of Russia, and the admission of Rumania and Servia into the triple alliance.

The outlook in Croatia is gloomy. A national rising is feared if the Hungarian Government persists in renewing the Magyar escutcheon and inscriptions at public offices.

A common Ministerial Council in Vienna on Monday approved the resolutions of the Hungarian Cabinet Ministers to place the civil and military power in Croatia under the control of Baron von Ramberg, the military commander at Agram, who is to remain in power until the question of the Hungarian escutcheons is settled.

The Archduchess Stephanie, wife of the Archduke Rudolph, Prince Imperial of Austria-Hungary, was delivered of a daughter on Sunday.

Christopher Bernard Levin Schücking, the German novelist, formerly connected with the *Augsburg Gazette* and *Cologne Gazette*, died on Sunday, aged sixty-nine years.

The Czar and Czarina of Russia arrived in Copenhagen on Thursday, and were received with great honors by the Kings of Greece and Denmark.

The Russian representative at Sophia has told a Bulgarian deputation that Russian officials now in Bulgaria would, by the Czar's wish, remain there two years longer, and that opposition to their staying would be regarded as rebellion against Russia.

After several interviews with the King Prime Minister Sagasta, of Spain, has decided not to insist upon the resignation of the Cabinet. He considered that a change of Ministry now would interfere with the royal tour in Asturia and Galicia on the occasion of the opening of the Northwest Railway on September 1. At a meeting of the Cabinet on Thursday the King's proposed visit to Germany was approved. The King started for Corunna on Friday. The constitutional guarantees were restored on Saturday.

Ruiz Zorilla, the Spanish revolutionist, has quitted France at the invitation of the Government of that country.

A meeting of the Irish National League was held in Dublin on Wednesday. Mr. Parnell, in a speech, referred to the success of the efforts of the Irish members of Parliament to promote the Laborers, Tramways, and Navigation Acts. He said he believed the day was near when the Irish would gain the full programme of measures for which the League had been formed. He said that the bulk of the English members of the House of Commons had conceded that home rule was necessary for Ireland. Mr. Parnell also said that he could report most encouragingly of the progress of the National League in America.

It was reported in London on Thursday that alarming telegrams had been received from America of the revival of the Irish conspiracy.

Six Irishmen suspected of having been connected with the dynamite attempts in Glasgow on January 20, when the largest gasometer in the city was blown up and other property destroyed, were arrested in Glasgow on Friday night. Three more Irishmen have been arrested on the same charge.

James McDermott, who was arrested on suspicion of having been connected with the Irish dynamite conspiracy, was brought before the court again in Liverpool on Tuesday, and was further remanded to jail at the request of counsel for the prosecution, who said that a pocket-book found among the prisoner's effects contained very important entries, but their nature was not indicated.

At a meeting of Irishmen held in London on Friday night, money was subscribed to pay an eminent solicitor to defend O'Donnell, the slayer of James Carey.

Mr. Alexander Mackenzie, in an address before the Chamber of Commerce of Greenock, Scotland, on Wednesday evening, combated the proposals of Sir Alexander T. Galt for a federated union, on the ground that Canada would never submit to being ruled at London. He spoke in condemnation of a protective policy, and predicted that Canada would soon return to free trade. He scouted the idea of a separation of Canada from England. On Thursday he sailed for Quebec.

The Vicar of Stratford-upon-Avon, England, has signified his willingness to allow the remains of Shakspere to be exhumed. The object in disturbing them is to compare the skull of the poet with the bust and portraits of him. The bishop and town-council are strenuously opposed to this proceeding.

The début of Mary Anderson in "Ingomar" at the Lyceum Theatre, London, on Saturday night, was a genuine success.

Marwood, the English hangman, died on Tuesday.

Mr. Shaw, the English missionary to Madagascar, who was imprisoned by the French, complains bitterly of his treatment on board the French flagship. He has arrived at Durban.

An official report shows that there have been 27,318 deaths from cholera in Egypt since the outbreak of the epidemic. There were only three deaths at Alexandria on Monday, and the epidemic is considered as nearly extinct.

Details of the disaster caused by volcanic eruptions in Java and the neighboring islands show that the loss of life and property was enormous. One estimate places the loss of life at 100,000.

Reports have been received from Newfoundland of a violent storm on the Great Banks on August 26, by which one hundred fishing dories and eighty lives were lost. Later despatches assert that the loss of life has been exaggerated.

A despatch from Vardöe, Norway, on Friday, announced that the steamer *Obi* has arrived there, having on board the members of the Dutch expedition to the Arctic which sailed on the steamer *Varna*. The *Varna* foundered on July 14, in latitude 71½° north, longitude 63° east. The members of the expedition were rescued near the island of Waigatz. The *Obi* reports that the Arctic steamer *Dymphna* was icebound near Waigatz throughout the winter. All on board of her were well, and the captain was confident of reaching open water. The *Varna* was a Norwegian steamer chartered to take the Dutch Meteorological Expedition to their destination at Dickson Haven, in the summer of 1882. The *Dymphna* sailed from Copenhagen on July 18, 1882, with the expedition of Lieutenant A. Hovgaard, of the Danish navy, on board.

The Government of Morocco has apologized to Italy for the recent trouble at Anjer, and the difficulty has terminated.

Zululand is in a state of anarchy, and Cetewayo has asked for protection.

MAHONE'S ASPIRATIONS.

It is evident that Senator Mahone is planning to play an important part in the Presidential campaign of next year. He is likely to be the chief representative of the decaying boss system, and to use in his manœuvres all the resources which belong to bossism. He is laying his plans now, and the conference in Washington is understood to have been in their interest. Two schemes are attributed to him by those who have studied his movements most closely. The first is to organize in Virginia and other Southern States a plan for securing control of the delegations to the National Republican Convention. This is to be accomplished by having all the Federal patronage in the South distributed among men who are in sympathy with Mahone and the Administration. If this plan succeeds, Mahone will present himself at the National Convention with his captured delegations, and demand admission for them as Republicans. If he is denied admission, he will take his delegates away, and organize independent electoral tickets in Virginia and a few other States, and try to have them elected without being pledged in favor of any Presidential candidates. If he can elect such a ticket, even in Virginia alone, he will take the field after election as a "striker," and will offer his electoral votes to whichever candidate will give the highest "terms."

These are said to be Mahone's plans. They are bold to recklessness, and the accomplishment of either is very improbable. Still there are elements in the political situation which make it possible for Mahone to give the regular party leaders some trouble. He has practically annihilated the Republican party in Virginia by first demoralizing it with his repudiation sentiments and then, with the connivance of the Administration, depriving it of all Federal patronage. He has built up for himself a party which is composed of former Republicans and Democrats, whose political creed is simply to follow wherever Mahone leads. He will take a delegation of these men to the Republican Convention, and with them as many others of the same kind as can be got together in other Southern States, but they will all have to appear there as contesting delegations. Mr. Blaine's friends are organizing a "straight-out" Republican movement from the remnants of the party in Virginia, and they will be likely to do the same thing in every other State which Mahone captures. These anti-Mahone delegations, if they are sent, will apply for admission as regular Republicans, and the Convention will have to decide between them and the Mahone delegations. This would raise an interesting question in the Convention, but unless Northern Republican sentiment changes radically during the next eight or nine months, the decision would be against Mahone. He has never been popular with the Republicans of the North and West, and the delegates from those sections could hardly be so short-sighted as to think of carrying the country with a ticket handicapped with repudiation.

Shut out of the Convention, Mahone would have nothing to do but resort to his second plan, unless the Democrats opened negotiations with him for his delegation—a not improbable contingency. His strongest position, however, would be as the holder of Virginia's twelve electoral votes unpledged to any candidate. The next Presidential election is likely to be very close, and if, as was the case in 1876, the vote of a single State were to decide it, Mahone, with the vote of Virginia in his pocket, would be a tremendously important personage. That would be the position which all his hopes are centred upon, for he would then be the boss of the whole United States. But the great difficulty for him would be the carrying of Virginia for such an electoral ticket. In 1880, when he was a Hancock man, Mahone's Readjuster party polled 31,000 votes, against 96,000 by the Democrats. The Republican vote for Garfield was 83,000. Since that time Mahone has become a Republican, and if he could hold all his Readjusters, and secure all the Republicans, he could obviously carry the State; but this is impossible. His alliance with the Administration has given him more patronage, but it has not added materially to his popular strength, and his party is known to be much less strong now than it was when he carried the State in 1881. Indeed, the struggle for control of the Legislature this year is so earnest that the Republicans and Bourbons are in some instances combining against Mahone, and there are even chances that his party will be defeated. An attempt, therefore, to induce the State to put its electoral vote up at auction for the benefit of Mahone, would not be likely to succeed.

We see no reason, consequently, for the anxiety which is displayed, in some Republican quarters, over Mahone's movements. There is little likelihood that he and the other political adventurers who are associated with him will be able to organize in any other State than Virginia an anti-Bourbon party which will be strong enough to take the electoral vote away from the Democratic candidates, and even in Virginia the prospect for doing it is doubtful. Mahone has a temporary importance as the distributor-in-chief of Southern offices. If the President were to deprive him of that position, he would pass instantly into obscurity.

STOCKS AND THE STOCK EXCHANGE.

The peculiarity and distinguishing feature of the recent heavy decline in Stock-Exchange securities is that it was neither ushered in nor followed by a commercial crisis. The shrinkage in listed securities since the beginning of July, 1881, is estimated by good judges at nearly if not quite $1,000,000,000. This tremendous decline has taken place for the most part gradually. Only within the past month has there been any sudden and great decline in prices on the Exchange, and this, as well as the former gradual decline, has taken place without any sensible disturbance in the commercial world, and with very few failures, and no great ones, on the Exchange itself. Manufacturing business has been seriously depressed, but the number of failures has been small. The regular mercantile trade of the country and the agricultural interest are fairly prosperous, although profits are not large. The situation betokens a relatively low scale of indebtedness, and therefore little room for panic and crisis. The condition of the principal crops of the year is now pretty well known—that of the corn crop alone being involved in some doubt, with the probabilities in favor of a large yield.

The most common and indeed the invariable sign which presages a commercial crisis, is a high rate of interest for money. The existing condition of the money market is that of extraordinary ease. The shrinkage of stock values has undoubtedly had much to do with this, as it takes less and less money to carry securities as the market recedes. But apart from this circumstance, which applies chiefly to New York, and only to the banks and financial companies which do a Stock-Exchange business, the fact is apparent on every side that money is abundant, and even superabundant, for every legitimate purpose. But for the return of large blocks of our securities held abroad we should now be importing specie to add to the great stock which we have on hand. It is a marked feature of the present time, as compared with 1873, that our money is now at par with gold instead of being a slippery commodity, varying in its rate of discount from day to day and from hour to hour.

The singularity of the present situation—a great depression in securities, a very low rate of interest, a good harvest in prospect, and none of the usual signs of a crisis in the commercial horizon, all going to make up a sort of "dry panic" on the Stock Exchange—is attributed by those persons most familiar with Wall Street to the absence of "the public" from the community of buyers and sellers, and to the fact that all the business is monopolized by room-traders who have the power to mark prices up to-day and down to-morrow, or up and down several times each day. This is an unsatisfactory condition of things, to be sure, but if it be the real condition of business it must have a cause, for although the outside investing public are rather short of money, they are not so destitute of means or so wanting in the spirit of adventure as their present temper would seem to indicate. The extremely low rate of interest is itself proof that money is not wanting, but is lying unused, and that the only thing lacking is confidence.

Now, confidence is proverbially a plant of slow growth. Confidence in the general run of Stock-Exchange securities has been tremendously impaired, as is shown by the shrinkage of the past two years. If it be desirable that "the public" should come back to the Stock Exchange—as they must sooner or later if unemployed capital continues to accumulate—means must be taken to restore confidence among them. One measure of the first importance is to insure the prompt and regular publication of the earnings of the properties whose securities are listed on the Exchange, under penalty of being stricken from the list for failure to publish such earnings, or for any false statement of the same. The members of the Exchange have this matter within their own control. The value of their seats in the body itself depends upon the amount of business done, not with each other, but for the public. They cannot fail to see that the darkness which shrouds the receipts

and disbursements of companies which make no regular and stated returns is now the most terrifying factor of the situation to the outside public. This is no new question. Nothing, perhaps, has more frequently agitated the Exchange than the problem how to compel publicity on the part of all the corporations whose securities are traded in, and upon which banks and other corporations lend money. In times of general prosperity, when business is active and all goes swimmingly, the corporations in question are able to take a high stand toward the Exchange and to say, virtually, "If you don't want our securities on your list a place will be found to buy and sell them elsewhere"; in other words, a rival Stock Exchange will be established. In times like the present, however, no such stand can be taken. There is not sufficient business of the legitimate type to support one Exchange, and this is the time when the public would be least likely to extend their patronage to an Exchange based upon the non-publication of earnings. Now, if ever, is the ripe occasion and opportunity for the Exchange to insist upon publicity, and solemnly to expel from their floor every security whose returns are not spread before the members in black and white at stated intervals—regard being had, of course, to the character of the business transacted by them respectively.

A NATIONAL FOREST PRESERVE.

THE importance of forest preservation as a national measure has been widely discussed in the public press. The subject has been heretofore treated, however, in a general way, and practical measures, by which a solution of the question might perhaps be reached, have thus far hardly been hinted at. It is believed that forest preservation in the United States is a necessity, but in what manner the desired results can best be accomplished has not yet been made clear. The proper relation of the Government to the forests of the country is, nevertheless, less complex than might be supposed. The Government of the United States has clearly no more concern in holding or managing forest property than it has in working its unoccupied wheat-fields, except so far as forests, from their peculiar location, are essential to the preservation of the important rivers of the country. If this is clearly understood and acknowledged, the whole question will be greatly simplified. The forests of Michigan or Louisiana may be exterminated, as have been those of New England, without seriously affecting the nation as a nation. Such forests will grow again if profit can be found in growing them; but if the forests which guard the flow of great rivers such as head among the Adirondacks or the Sierras of California, the Alleghanies, or the Rocky Mountains, are destroyed, there is something more than a local destruction of property. The steady flow of the rivers is endangered, and wide-spread disturbance, threatening the lives and property of persons living perhaps thousands of miles from the forests upon which their safety depends, is the result. It is clearly the duty of the Government, then, to preserve in every way possible the great rivers of the country; and forest preservation is thus, under certain conditions, a vital question. The prosperity of the nation even depends upon it. So far, then, as the forests affect the rivers, they should be made the subject of national investigation and preservation; but for no other consideration should the Government, either General or State, become a forester. Individuals can grow timber, and take care of it when grown, better than the Government, and the less the Government mixes itself up with business of this nature, the better.

These thoughts are suggested by an examination of the preliminary notes of a party of the Northern Transcontinental Survey, engaged during the present summer in exploring the main Rocky Mountain range, near the northern boundary of the United States, with special reference to studying the capacity of the streams for irrigating the rich valleys of Northern Montana. They followed the western shore of Flathead Lake, up the eastern fork of the river of that name, and then, after innumerable difficulties and the loss of many animals, crossed the mountains by the old Marias Pass, one of the highest and most difficult gateways in the whole continental divide—a journey only once previously accomplished, so far as is known, by white men, although formerly sometimes made by predatory or hunting bands of Flathead or Blackfeet Indians. The explorers were well repaid. They found four distinct ranges of mountains, separated by high lateral valleys—not one range, as is shown upon existing maps; they found glaciers, of recent origin and of no great extent, to be sure, but important witnesses of an increasing precipitation of moisture in this northern region; they found a noble forest, covering valleys and mountain sides, in which trees of the Pacific coast mingle with those of the dry interior region of the continent and with others of our Northern Atlantic woods; they found a flora remarkable in the great number of California forms which it contains, and scenery so appallingly grand that the continent cannot show its equal. The structure of these northern mountains, formed of limestone or of quartzites and calcareous slates, which break away at sharp angles, forming stupendous perpendicular precipices, and clear-cut pyramidal peaks, produces the peculiar features of the scenery of the region, and gives it a rugged boldness of outline unknown among the rounded granite domes of Colorado and California. The explorers, standing upon the high peak which surmounts the pass, looked to the westward down the great gorge of the Flathead, breaking through the highest interior range; within this gorge Yosemites might be lost. At their feet were spread three mighty amphitheatres, swept clean of débris by recent glacial action; in any of these the population of an empire might find room to watch the manœuvres of two contending armies. West and north a panorama of lofty peaks, covered with eternal snows and streaked with bright, glacier-fed cataracts, was spread before them. The melting snow upon which they stood trickled to the east into two little lakes, heads of one of the most important sources of the great Missouri, and to the west forming a little cascade, which later reaches the Pacific down the channel of the Columbia. A little to the north of their point of observation flowed from these same mountains the young Saskatchewan.

We have dwelt upon the natural features of this region because here, if anywhere, there seems to be an entirely proper opportunity for the Government to establish a great forest preserve. In this region is situated the true dome of the continent, and here the forests are more important in their fluvial influences than in any other part of the country. They protect the snows which feed the three greatest streams of the continent—the Missouri, the Columbia, and the Saskatchewan. The constant flow of these rivers is dependent upon the preservation of these mountain forests. The streams which flow from this region, both east and west, are precipitous and turbulent, and the rapid and sudden melting of the snow which must follow the destruction of the forests would soon convert these streams into dangerous torrents, capable of washing immense masses of débris into the rich valleys which stretch along the base of the mountains. Irrigation under these conditions will be made impossible upon any comprehensive scale, and the valleys and plains of northern Montana, destined, we believe, under wise management to become immense and permanent grain fields, must remain comparatively unproductive.

This whole mountain region can now be set aside as a forest preserve without injury to any one. No settlement exists within its limits; it is one vast, untrodden wilderness, unmarked except by scars, old and new, of great fires, too plainly showing the danger which most threatens the future of these woods. The geological formation does not promise the discovery of gold or silver, and the remoteness of the region still protects it from the invading lumberman. Such a reservation as is suggested can be held and preserved under proper regulations with an almost nominal annual expenditure. It should extend, to be really effective, from the boundary of the United States to the Sweating House River, or to the Salmon Trout Fork of the Big Blackfoot; it should be bounded on the east by the Eastern Slope of the Continental Divide, now within the Blackfoot Indian Reservation, and it should extend west to the North Fork of the Flathead River. Such a reservation would contain perhaps some 8,000 square miles of mountain territory, absolutely unfit for agriculture or grazing, and only valuable as a reservoir of moisture. Here, then, if the Government is to take any measures to protect the rivers of the country, and make agriculture possible west of the 100th meridian by means of irrigation, the experiment can best be tried; here the difficulties to be overcome are less serious, the results to be obtained greater, perhaps, than in any other part of the United States.

THE PARLIAMENTARY SESSION OF 1883.

THE British Parliamentary session just closed has been in itself neither interesting nor eventful. Something less than was hoped at first, yet more than had been hoped latterly, has been accomplished in the way of legislation, but

the bills passed have been of a commonplace kind. They are not the less valuable for that, for what England has needed of late years, and still needs, is the carrying of practically useful but unambitious, non-controversial measures; but they have not excited any feeling among the general public, nor been such as serve either to strengthen or to weaken a ministry. The largest and most important was the act for remodelling the law of bankruptcy, long one of the scandals of English jurisprudence. Next in consequence are the Patents Act, and that for the prevention of corrupt practices and diminution of expense at Parliamentary elections. The Tenants' Compensation Act, though a good deal of noise has been made about it, will probably make little difference to either landlords or tenants, while the Act for making tramways in Ireland and giving facilities for emigration and migration there, though the Government seem to hope for much benefit from it, belongs to a class which experience teaches should be viewed with distrust.

On the other hand, many important topics have been left untouched. The attempt to codify the law of procedure in criminal cases broke down. The long-expected measures for the creation of a new municipal government for London and for the reorganization of local government were not even presented, while the bill for the regulation of river channels and prevention of floods—a matter of the utmost importance to the agriculturists—was never brought as far as into Committee. If Ireland ought not to complain at getting little attention this session, after having absorbed the whole of the two preceding, yet the omission to supply the defects of the Land Act of 1881, or to deal with some other pressing Irish questions, has furnished Mr. Parnell with another argument in support of the doctrine that Parliament does not and cannot give enough time to his country. Scotland makes similar complaints; but as Scotland does not enforce them in the same angry way, and seems to get on pretty well without legislation, her murmurs pass unheeded. On the whole, then, it has been again made apparent that Parliament is at present unable to cope with the numerous and constantly increasing duties which devolve upon it, and that something must be done either to lessen these duties by handing them over to new tribunals or local bodies, or else to invigorate Parliament by reforms in its own procedure which may multiply its capacity and accelerate the progress of business.

The new rules of procedure framed last autumn have made less difference than either their advocates or their opponents predicted. That which was discussed with most passion, the power to close a debate by the vote of a majority, has never been applied. The Ministry who proposed it claim this as the best proof of its efficacy, alleging that the mere fear of it has prevented that obstruction which disgraced several preceding sessions, and culminated in the three days and two nights' sitting of 1881. However, it is quite as likely that the Parnellite party abstained from obstruction this session for different reasons altogether, while that less open obstruction which proceeded from other sections of the Opposition has not been removed, although it was perhaps less frequent and less obstinate this session than in some preceding ones. By another of the new rules, standing committees were established to deal with bills relating to some particular subjects. Such bills were to be referred to one of these committees instead of to a committee of the whole House, and thus the time of the House was to be saved. This experiment, on whose importance Mr. Gladstone often dilated, has ended in an odd way, which no one seems to have foreseen. It succeeded in the case of one committee—that to which the Bankruptcy and Patents Bills were referred—and it failed in the case of the other Committee, which took the Criminal Procedure Bill. One success, however, is worth several failures, and, as the causes of failure can be explained and may be removed, the experiment has, on the whole, been encouraging. The Government have announced their intention of proceeding next year to get standing committees reappointed, and will doubtless succeed in their plan; for the Bankruptcy Act is the most considerable result of the session, and the country knows that it owes the Bankruptcy Act to the Trade Committee.

All the measures mentioned above are Government measures; and in fact legislation by, or rather at the instance of, private members has almost stopped. It is extremely rare for a bill of any consequence, brought in by a private member, to be carried, because such a bill is certain to incur the hostility of some other member, and, under the existing rules of procedure, any one member has practically an absolute veto on all bills which the Government does not push forward. Formerly this veto was exercised with some moderation, and those who at first stopped a bill would usually withdraw their opposition to it when they found that it was approved by the large majority of the House, or by the leaders of the party to which they belonged. Now, however, men have appeared who do not care for the opinion of the majority, and who "block" (as it is called) all bills indiscriminately. Thus it happens that scarcely any measures are carried except those which the Ministry bring in, for they, having a large command over the time of Parliament, are able to override the blocks which these obstructive members place against all bills, while the private member is powerless.

The discussions in Parliament have been scarcely less commonplace than the legislation. There have been few pitched party battles, few debates in which the policy of the Government was arraigned by the Opposition. In only one of these was the issue sufficiently doubtful to raise much excitement. That instance was the debate on the Parliamentary Oaths Bill, introduced to meet the case of Mr. Bradlaugh, by enabling him to affirm instead of taking the Parliamentary oath; and even on that occasion, although the Ministry were defeated, the interest of the event was greatly diminished by the knowledge that it was not to affect the fate of the Government. This want of great occasions has been felt in a want of great speeches, or even of lively party skirmishes. Mr. Bright has not delivered a single oration in Parliament during the last seven months, and though Mr. Gladstone has spoken almost daily and maintained his amazing superiority to every one else except Mr. Bright, he has made only one remarkable effort —viz.: the speech on the Parliamentary Oaths Bill. Nothing considerable has proceeded from any other quarter; no reputations have been made or lost by oratory, for although Mr. Chamberlain's position and influence have steadily risen, this has been the result rather of his skill in the management of the Bankruptcy Bill, and of the constant attacks of his opponents, than of any display by him of rhetorical skill. In the House of Lords it has been much the same.

CROATIA *VERSUS* HUNGARY.

All Croatia, the whole of the Croato-Slavonian Kingdom, has suddenly become convulsed by a violent outbreak of national feeling, directed against the Hungarians—a convulsion threatening to become more important in its consequences than was the succession of earthquakes which, a year or two ago, desolated Agram, the capital of that Slavic kingdom on the Adriatic, and shook the neighboring districts. The causes of the present commotion are not new, and they are deep-seated; but the immediate occasion of the outbreak must appear to the disinterested looker-on exceedingly trivial. Croatia—using this word in the wider sense, which includes Slavonia and most of the former Military Frontier—is, according to the terms of its definitive reunion with Hungary in 1868, autonomous in matters of internal administration, justice, and education, in all of which the Croatian language is the exclusive medium of the authorities; but in affairs of finance, commerce, and communication the supreme management belongs to the respective Hungarian ministries in Buda-Pesth. Now, the present Hungarian chief of the tax department in Croatia has either been instructed, or has thought it his patriotic duty, to place in front of his offices, side by side with the escutcheon of the Croato-Slavonian Kingdom, that of Hungary also, and to affix to his official sign-boards notices both in the Slavic idiom and in Magyar. This so incensed the populace of Agram and other towns that a rush was made for the tax-offices, escutcheons and boards were torn down, the house of the chief tax-director was wrecked, resistance was offered to the police and the troops, and other demonstrations against the Hungarian authorities and nation were indulged in.

The sympathy with the rioters has been general among all classes of the people. The royal Ban of Croatia, the highest representative of the Hungarian crown and of the Hapsburg dynasty in the country, dared not provoke a grave collision by the use of extreme measures, and, when urged by the Government of Buda-Pesth to replace the escutcheons, resigned, and persisted in his resignation, even against the distinctly expressed wish of his royal master, Francis Joseph. The Hungarian Premier, Tisza, demands of the common Austro-Hungarian Government prompt and decisive measures, and threatens to resign in case of non-compliance. The national ardor is

fully aroused on both sides of the Drave, both Magyars and Croats reawakening to the sentiments which animated them in 1848, when Ban Jellachich, working against the former in the interest of the Austrian dynasty, marched his Slavic hosts across that border river and advanced into the very neighborhood of Buda. He was beaten by the Magyars, but they, in turn, succumbed to the army of the Czar in the following year; and there is a lively presentiment, in both Buda-Pesth and Agram, that the present complication may lead to a new powerful clash between Magyar and Slav, in which the Czar may interfere again. The vital difference between the situations of 1848–49 and of to-day is that the Austrian dynasty is now on the side of Hungary, and that Austria-Hungary is backed by Germany. The present troubles are complicated by Socialistic agitations among the peasantry and anti-Jewish riotings on both sides of the frontier.

For a little realm that is neither independent nor populous, nor highly civilized, nor flourishing, Croatia can boast of an uncommonly active political life. It teems with ambitious desires and hopes of annexation, absorption, and national power, the sphere of which is to extend north into Hungary and west into Cisleithan Austria, and on the south to envelop all Dalmatia, Bosnia, and Herzegovina. Such aspirations—based in part on recollections of a remote past, when Croatia, before the Hungarian conquest at the close of the eleventh century, was a more or less independent and extensive kingdom—were already loudly proclaimed at the time when Jellachich placed himself at the head of the armed opposition to the Batthyányi-Kossuth cabinet, fighting for the crown and under the banner of the Hapsburg Emperor. Since then the horizon of the Croat nationalists and the complexion of parties in Agram have often, and sometimes surprisingly, changed. The last phase of the more enlightened patriotic opinion, prior to the present agitation, is clearly reflected in an anonymous pamphlet, 'Austria and the Croatian Question,' quite recently issued in Trieste. The author is a Croat nationalist of the purest dye, but moderate in his partisanship and immediate expectations, and calm in his tone. The pamphlet may be considered the programme of the National Conservative "party of rights," which bases its demands for Croatia on both natural and historical claims, and, faithful to the dynasty, rejects all attempts at forming a union (in the revolutionary sense of the former pan-Illyrian or general South Slavic tendencies) with Servia and Montenegro, which gravitate toward Russia instead of toward Austria. It pleads for the autonomy and unity of the Croats under the Hapsburg sceptre. By this national term, however, it designates not only the 2,000,000 inhabitants of the semi-autonomous kingdom united with Hungary, but also the Dalmatians, the Slovenes of Carniola and of all adjoining parts of Cisleithan Austria down to the Adriatic, and the Bosniaks and Herzegovinians, lately brought under the control of Austria-Hungary. The conviction is expressed that the slight dialectic differences which exist between the different Slavic idioms of Southern Cisleithania and of the Croato-Slavonian kingdom are too trifling to form dividing lines, and that Dalmatians, Slovenes, Bosniaks, etc., are all as willing to be designated "Croats" as by any other collective name which might serve the purposes of national union between so closely related populations of the same empire.

The appellation "Croat," instead of the wider "Illyrian" which gained currency about half a century ago in the terminology of Slavists and Slavophils, is wisely chosen in order to exclude from the programme Montenegro and Servia, independent states, themselves ambitious of leadership among the southern Slavs, and peopled by orthodox Greeks, who are far from inclined to make entirely common cause with the Catholic Croats and their Catholic allies in Austria, though ready to coöperate with them against Magyars or Germans. The plan of the Croat leaders is the formation, within the limits of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, of a great Slavic kingdom which shall embrace all the Croats (in the widest sense of the word) of both Cisleithania and Transleithania, and form a separate state in the dominions of the House of Hapsburg. This means the substitution of federalism for the present dualism in Austria-Hungary, and the severing of the bonds which have for so many centuries tied Croatia and Slavonia to the Hungarian crown. The Croat programme recognizes the likelihood of this revolution being carried out by constitutional means, and with the common consent of all the parties concerned; but one can read between the lines that what cannot be achieved constitutionally will have to be done otherwise. That the preference of the masses of the people is for force is amply proved by the present acts of violence. The tone of the debates in the late Diets of Croatia and Dalmatia also shows that there is concert between the leaders of the national movement in both divisions of the empire, and that the popular agitation is as harmonious as it is widespread. The Czechs applaud their southern brethren; the Russians, not indifferent spectators, will not hesitate to foment the Slavic movement; but the Magyar statesmen will do their best to stifle it before it assumes dangerous proportions, and, with the help of the Court of Vienna, which is now in sympathy with them, they may succeed. As a beginning, the Ban of Croatia will be superseded by the Baron von Ramberg, the military commander at Agram.

CURRENT LEGISLATION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, August 16.

THE legislative measures with which Parliament has had to deal this session have had no great interest even for the English public, and are still less likely to engage the attention of American readers. However, before the houses rise, it may be well to say a few words to your readers about the kind of work which has been under consideration, and which is now keeping Parliament sitting until an unusually late period. These measures are, on the whole, of a non-controversial character; that is to say, they do not raise sharp issues between the two great political parties. It was thought better to avoid during this year such party issues, and to deal with topics in whose settlement Tories and Liberals are both, and perhaps to an almost equal degree, interested. The hope was that, by so doing, much important business would be quickly despatched, and a better result obtained from the labors of Parliament than the two preceding sessions had shown. This hope, however, has been but partially realized. The topics were in some cases difficult, and the habit of minute criticism has increased so much of late years that even those of a more simple nature were debated with an extreme prolixity, for which the price is now being paid in the undue prolongation of the session.

Among the many bills which the Government brought in there were six of conspicuous importance. Two of these—that for the prevention of corrupt and illegal practices at Parliamentary elections, and that for giving fuller and more certain compensation to agricultural tenants for improvements made on their farms—were reserved to be dealt with in the House of Commons itself, in Committee of the whole House. Two others—that for the creation of a Court of Criminal Appeal and that codifying criminal procedure—were referred to the large standing Committee on Law and Courts of Justice, commonly called the Law Grand Committee; while two more—the Bankruptcy Bill and the Patent Law Amendment Bill—were similarly referred to the other Grand Committee—that of Trade and Manufactures. The fates of these six have been very dissimilar. The two last mentioned were very fully examined by the Grand Committee on Trade, amended in many respects, and accepted by the House with general approval, so that hardly any changes were made in them when they passed through what is called the stage of report. Both are good measures, and though, after so many previous failures, it would be rash to predict success for any bankruptcy bill, this one seems to start under better auspices than its predecessors. Mr. Chamberlain, who, as President of the Board of Trade, was responsible for the framing of it and for working it through Committee, has won golden opinions by the quickness and tact which he displayed in that troublesome and fatiguing duty.

The course of the two law bills has been less prosperous. The Court of Criminal Appeal Bill passed its second reading with little objection, apparently because everybody thought that, after the often repeated demands for something of the kind, it was a matter of course to try the experiment. When its provisions came to be considered in detail the difficulties with which the subject bristles began to be felt. The Committee cut the bill about a good deal, but in the opinion of many of our most sensible lawyers the more they changed it the worse it became. The Government declare that they intend to pass it, restoring it in some respects to its original form. But the session has now only eight or nine working days to return; there is a good deal of opposition to the measure and very little zeal for it. Most of the judges are known to disapprove it, and it is quite possible that even if it is forced through the House of Commons, it will perish in the House of Lords. Still more inglorious were the fortunes of the far more ambitious measure which was intended to codify the whole law of criminal procedure. It was originally drafted some six years ago by Sir J. F Stephen, now one of the justices of the Queen's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice. It was then submitted to two of our most skilful lawyers, Mr. Justice (now Lord) Blackburn and the late Mr. Justice Lush, afterward a Lord Justice of the Appeal Court. They altered it in many points, and handed it over to Sir John Holker, then Attorney-General, who gave it a further polish, and intended to get it passed in the session of 1879. However, he had to drop it, nor was the present Attorney-General any more successful

in 1881 and 1882. This year it at last advanced to a second reading, and was sent, with good expectations of success, to the Grand Committee. When it came on there Mr. Parnell and several of his Irish allies objected to some of its provisions as unduly severe and despotic, and found some support among a section of the Liberals who sat on the Committee. After a while obstruction began, and then it was clear that the bill, which the law officers of the Government did not themselves wholly like, as it was really not their work but that of judges from whose views they differed in important points, could not be carried. It was accordingly abandoned, and is not likely to be taken up until the attitude of the Irish Nationalists alters; for at present they can, as indeed any other small but resolute section can, arrest the progress of any measure which has not the full force of the Government to push it through.

There remain the two bills which were handled in Committee by the House itself—Corrupt Practices, and Compensation to Agricultural Tenants. The former dealt with two old scandals of our politics. One is the existence of bribery, treating, and undue influence at our Parliamentary elections, for which evils the bill provided heavier penalties and new prohibitions. The other is the inordinate expense of elections, amounting in most large constituencies to sums varying from two to seven thousand pounds for each candidate. In one case, at the election of 1880, two candidates running together in the same interest spent between them £13,000 sterling. This lavish expenditure is not necessarily illegitimate—that is to say, bribery need not form a part of it—but it has a demoralizing effect on the constituencies, and it goes far to exclude men of moderate means from a seat in Parliament. And though it is a less serious plague than corruption, it spreads more widely, for whereas there is very little bribery in constituencies where the number of voters falls below five thousand (most, if not all of which will probably cease to exist when a measure for the redistribution of seats has been carried), the cost of elections is usually largest in the large constituencies, and especially in the populous counties. The reduction of expense is indeed the main object of this bill, which took several weeks in passing through Committee, so anxious were members who felt it might affect themselves to scrutinize all its provisions. It is a piece of work which had to be done, but the country was not profoundly interested in it, and will hardly give the Ministry very much credit for it. The last of their larger measures is that intended to benefit the farmers by securing to them more adequate compensation for agricultural improvements. Many people have asked why such a provision need be made by law at all. "Why cannot" (people say) "a farmer be left to make his own bargain with the landlord when he wants to build a wall or drain a meadow, or put some valuable manure into the land? He need not make the improvement unless the landlord promises compensation, and now that agriculture is depressed, and many farms lie unlet in the hands of the land-owners, it is the landlord's interest to do all he can to encourage and retain an improving tenant." However, it seems to be a maxim accepted by everybody concerned with British agriculture that landlords won't promise sufficient compensation, or that tenants won't improve on anything less than a certainty given by law that they shall have back, when they leave the farm, the value of whatever they have done for the land; and thus the present bill has met with little opposition from any section except two—a very few doctrinaires (as their opponents call them) who insist that perfect freedom of contract is the only safe principle to follow, and a somewhat larger party among the radical "farmers' friends," who complain that much more ought to be done for the agriculturist than the bill does. Of course, the landlords as a class dislike it, but they hardly venture to show their hostility, for fear of losing the farmers' vote at the next general election. But for this feeling the Conservative majority in the land-owning House of Lords would no doubt have thrown out the bill. As it is, they have confined themselves to cutting it down by amendments, with which the Lower House is expected to disagree, and which the Lords will probably end by abandoning.

Y.

THE DEBATE ON THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, August 18.

IRELAND is not governed in accordance with the public opinion of its people. There is, therefore, something particularly unfair and ungenerous in the outcry the British press are raising against our representatives for having in Parliament last Monday insisted upon a full discussion relative to the administration of justice in this country. It was about the only real protest upon this portion of the case they could make during the session. The liberty of effective question and debate has, as you know, been very much curtailed, but the right of fully discussing the estimates remains, and this was availed of in a sitting which commenced at 4 in the afternoon and was not concluded until near daylight next morning. At the worst, the acerbity of such occasions has been considerably softened since the dark days of Mr. Forster's unhappy régime. Mr. Trevelyan makes a wiser and more conciliatory Chief Secretary. In the *Freeman's Journal* of late have appeared a series of articles on "Parliamentary Progress," believed to be from the pen of Mr. Sexton, one of the ablest and most uncompromising members of the Irish Parliamentary party. In one of these articles occurs the following passage concerning Mr. Trevelyan's attitude during this and other debates of the week: "It is only fair to acknowledge that his speeches show admirable self-control and a splendid temper. In spite of the many fierce rencontres of the session and a half since he took office, he can never be said to have created a scene, or to have said any of the rancorous or boorish things that made his predecessors so hateful and so hated." (Would that the like could be said of our members!) Then follows a remark ominous of what might result to the spirit of Home Rule if all British statesmen and legislators were like him: "For these reasons, perhaps, Mr. Trevelyan may be pronounced a worse and a more dangerous Chief Secretary than Mr. Forster."

But to return to the debate. In the government by however enlightened an autocracy of a people of Anglo-Saxon blood, there will inevitably result more injustice than under a free Constitution, and a proportion of innocent individuals is certain to be swept in with real offenders. The speeches of the Irish members were for the most part an enumeration of such cases of wrong to the innocent or of undue punishment of offences. There was much exaggeration, but there is nothing in the speeches on the Government side to clear away the impression that there is a substantial basis of truth for these allegations. Mr. Parnell was in his best style, widely different from the irresponsible attitude and utterances of his earlier days. No other member of the party has so matured; and upon no other member of the party would it be wiser for the Government to force, if I may use the term, responsibilities. He dwelt upon some cases of injustice like that of Mr. McHugh, "who has spent the last four years of his life in Irish prisons awaiting trial, and has been acquitted by a jury of the only charge that the Government could bring against him." "I say we don't attack the Government for bringing criminals to justice, and criminals have been brought to justice and very properly punished; but we attack the Irish administration because we know that innocent persons have been condemned and have been actually executed, and because at the present moment there are many innocent persons suffering penalties for offences which they no more committed than the right honorable gentleman himself. I would ask the Government one question: Do they think that by the enactment of the Crimes Act or its administration they have advanced one single inch nearer to that which ought to be the endeavor of all governments in any country? Do they think they have advanced one single step nearer to gaining the respect and assistance of the Irish people?" Mr. Parnell's accusations are true in the main. We must, however, acknowledge that the powers conferred by the Crimes Act have enabled the Government to expose outrage and crime to such an extent as to compel many thoughtful Irishmen to revise their theoretic opinions regarding withholding assistance from the Government under all circumstances. Considerations higher than politics or country will compel many for the future more practically to discountenance outrage and ruffianism than has been done in the past.

With the bitterness that exists between the countries, it is inevitable that strong and coarse language and exaggeration should be used by some of the men chosen by Ireland to represent her in Parliament. There is little use in lamenting this fact. There it is—an undoubted weakness in the Irish Parliamentary party and an impediment to the reforms which it advocates. We must, however, acknowledge that a nation can better endure being hated and disliked than neglected and despised; and until within the past twelve years Ireland, represented by none but quiet, college-educated, club gentlemen, if not despised, was at least neglected, unless in a patronizing way. It is so easy for gentlemen with all the money and troops at their backs to be dignified, and so difficult for men who have little but their tongues to depend on.

There is, nevertheless, something sickening to an Irishman in the exaggeration, if not deliberate misrepresentation, at times indulged in by Irish members and patriots. We blush for our friends as we should not blush for our opponents. I wish that Mr. Healy and others could realize the deep humiliation and shame they often cause to men who have learned to respect and love them in many relations. The heads of a few emigrated families lately fell victims to sunstroke in the United States, and the destitute members had to be sent back to Ireland. Whereupon Mr. O'Brien (M. P. for Mallow) asks the Chief Secretary: "I would like to know whether an indictment for manslaughter would not lie against the Emigration Committee for having lured them away from their homes?" It was highly proper that Mr. Healy should bring forward the case of Mr. George Bolton. It is not right that the Irish people should be taxed, without their consent, to support such an official; but Mr. Healy scarcely showed good taste in asking whether he "was not the most blackguard and profligate ruffian in the service of the Crown." (It would, to be sure, have been awkward for the character of the Irish service if Mr. Trevelyan had denied Mr. Healy's accusation.) This case of Mr. Bolton is, however, a shameful and typical case. If Ireland is to be ruled autocratically, at least it behooves the Government to look rigidly into the character of its instruments. If im-

poverished and swindled people infringe the law while trying to keep their families together and hunger from the door, at least a high moral standard ought to be required in those appointed to prosecute and judge them. It is one of the inevitable cankers in a system of arbitrary government, however well intentioned, that it must as a rule implicitly trust its instruments as against the people, no matter what the circumstances may be. And so it has come to pass here that a man of the most unblemished character, like Mr. George Fottrell, has been impelled to resign a responsible office in the Land Court, for which he was specially fitted, simply because he made the slip of acknowledging in a Government pamphlet that the Land Act was partly the outcome of the Land League agitation; and a man like Mr. George Bolton is retained in office after the shameful disclosures regarding his honesty and morals before the Probate and Divorce Court in London last February. I have turned up the *Times*, and confirmed my impression that while Mr. Healy used exaggerated language, the Government makes a fatal mistake in retaining Mr. Bolton in his Crown-Prosecutorship. I hope American citizens will never have to endure the humiliation of submitting to an official whom they have reason to condemn and despise, and who is retained in his post against their wishes.

Commenting upon the attitude of both parties in the debate, the *Pall Mall Gazette*, Mr. Morley's paper, says: "What would it not be better for an Englishman to bear than to meddle with the government of Irishmen, whether landlords or Nationalists? Of all tasks our vast Empire imposes, none can be so thankless as that. The round of wrong is interminable. If there is not a terrific agitation, the Legislature will not attend to Irish grievances." The treatment of Irish debates by the general British public is illustrative of the situation. We are governed not by the majority of Irish, but by the majority of British members, who are influenced not by Irish, but by British public opinion. During a debate such as the important one I have named, all but a handful of British members leave the House. The majority do not want to be bothered by Irish any more than by Indian details. They are safe to be called in to vote by direction of their whips, or to make a House any moment by electric bells and special messengers; and the British newspapers give only meagre reports of the proceedings. The debate filled nine columns of the *Freeman's Journal* (reducing the actual amount to compare with the closer-printed British papers). It is true the *Times* (a three-penny paper) gave it five and a quarter columns; but the *Standard*, *Daily News*, and *Telegraph*, the great penny organs of British Conservatism, Liberalism, and the middle classes, devoted to it only two and a quarter, one and three quarters, and one and a quarter columns respectively. Some may attribute this brevity to the supposed loquacity and unreliability of our members; but similar cases occurred in the old "respectable" times.

Let me conclude by enumerating a few topics in which the relations between Ireland and the Government have been of a more pleasing character. Some of them I may revert to upon future occasions. (1.) Please the House of Lords, there is every likelihood the Irish Registration Bill will pass this session. It will remedy injustices and anomalies under which Irish voters have been laboring, and it will considerably strengthen the popular vote. (2.) The Government is showing itself reasonable in the matter of migration, of which I wrote last week. £50,000 are likely to be devoted to an experiment in that direction. The sum granted to individual emigrants is to be increased. It will be interesting to watch this migration experiment, and we must earnestly desire that it may be worked in such a manner as to prove that failure—if failure should unhappily ensue—will be due not to Governmental red tape or prejudice, but to the inherent difficulties of the problem. Mr. Gladstone's wisest course would be to throw the whole responsibility of the experiment upon those who have advocated migration. (3.) Every desire is being shown to make the introduction of tramways in the West a success and a real benefit to the people. (4.) The Agricultural Laborers' Bill is likely to pass. (5.) The Government have consented to place a portion of the Ashburnham Irish Manuscripts, lately purchased by Imperial funds, in the Library of the Royal Irish Academy. (6.) The Irish clauses of the Bankruptcy Bill have, in deference to the opposition of Irish members, been abandoned. (7.) The contract about to be concluded some months ago with the London Northwestern Company for the conveyance of the mails between Dublin and London was cancelled in the face of the arguments advanced against it by the Irish public. New tenders were called for. The City of Dublin Company has secured the sea contract, and their fine vessels, so well known to voyagers between England and Ireland for the past twenty years, are to be rendered still more powerful and complete. (8.) The Government have had to withdraw an opposed Irish Constabulary Bill.

Dublin National opinion is considerably exercised against the Wicklow Railway for refusing to carry out an agreement relative to a "Monster excursion to Avondale, the seat of Ireland's patriot, Charles Stewart Parnell, M. P." Castle influence and all sorts of class and political motives are alleged. I have taken some trouble to inquire into the matter, and am convinced of the absurdity of these allegations. The company, while it might have been more explanatory and polite in its cancelling of an agreement, was, I believe, solely influenced by a desire to avoid accident—the excursion having swollen to dimensions beyond the capacity of the rolling-stock for extra Sunday traffic at this time of the year. It gave a week's notice of its decision, and offered to pay the expenses the managers of the excursion had incurred. The imbroglio is not without its ludicrous side: last Sunday, the day appointed, was miserably wet and unpleasant, and a vote of thanks, rather than abuse, is due to the company for having saved the intending pleasure-seekers a disagreeable excursion. D. B.

THE FRENCH IN INDIA.

PARIS, August 17, 1883.

IT is very difficult to find out how the desire for a colonial empire has suddenly taken hold of the Republican rulers of France. The origin of the expedition to Tunis can be traced to conversations between the German Chancellor and certain French ambassadors. It is obviously the interest of Germany that France should spend her activity in many ways and undertake many difficult tasks; what is more surprising is the readiness with which the projects in Africa, in Madagascar, in Senegambia, in Tonquin have been adopted by the party now in power. These great schemes have given an additional interest to the history of French colonization. The history of our Canadian colonies has been admirably told by an American writer. I have now before me a curious work on Dupleix, from his inedited correspondence. It is entitled 'An Essay of a French Empire in India in the Eighteenth Century.'* The author, M. Tibulle Hamont, justly remarks that we have only vague notions on the conquest of India by the French in the last century, and that France has almost forgotten the extraordinary figures of Bussy and Dupleix. "Little do people know," says he, "that, in order to arrive at the domination of India, Dupleix invented and put in application a vast and safe political system which the English have servilely copied, and by means of which they have subjugated the agglomeration of Buddhist and Mussulman peoples which live between the Himalayas and Cape Comorin." The documents on Dupleix are the various "memoirs" published for and against him; the collection of letters and papers left to our National Library by M. Ariel, archivist in Pondicherry, relating to the quarrel between La Bourdonnais and Dupleix; a manuscript history of the conquest of the Deccan, written by a nephew of Dupleix, and preserved in the library of the Arsenal; and the complete correspondence of Dupleix, preserved in the archives of the prefecture of Versailles—a correspondence which had been forgotten and ignored up to the present time.

Dupleix was born the 1st of January, 1697, in the French Hainaut, at Landrecies, a small fortress of the valley of the Sambre. His father was a *fermier-général*, a hard, avaricious man, who sent him in 1715 to India, on a ship of the East India Company. The young man was well received by the Governor of Pondicherry, Lenoir, who soon made him his secretary. Dupleix received in 1720 the title of "Commissaire des guer[illegible]. He saw that the financial system of the French Company was wrong. The Company imported no goods into India; it merely exported Indian goods, for which it had to pay in silver. Dupleix understood that this system could not lead to any great development of trade. In 1730 he was appointed Governor of Chandernagar, and introduced in this colony the system of a double commercial circulation, making advances himself to the merchants. His house became a sort of a bank; Chandernagar became rapidly a centre of trade. The results of Dupleix's policy struck the Company so much that in 1741 the directors appointed him Governor of Pondicherry, which was the highest post in the colonial hierarchy. The Governor was a sort of viceroy: he commanded the military forces, and had an immense patronage.

Dupleix knew that everything in India depended upon the succession of the Great Mogul. Would India be split in pieces, and fall into the hands of the nabobs? or would it fall under the rule of the warlike Mahrattas? He felt that a European competitor would succeed, and he hoped that France would make the attempt. He clearly understood that a superior race would easily become dominant: India would belong to those who had most prestige in the eyes of the feeble races of the peninsula. All depended, therefore, on the result of a war between England and France, which he judged inevitable, and at the same time on the position which the French Governors would assume toward the Indian populations. He did not wish to appear as a merchant, speaking in the name of merchants; he presented himself as an officer of the Great Mogul, taking advantage of the title of nabob which had been given to the Governors of Pondicherry. He surrounded himself with Eastern pomp; he tried in every way to strike the imagination of the East Indians. The Indian armies gave him no alarm; he was sure that these multitudes would not stand before a small French army, well drilled and led by good officers. The duel with England was his great preoccupation. England once defeated, the foundation of an immense French empire became only a question of time. Unfortunately

* *Un Essai d'empire français dans l'Inde au dixhuitième siècle*: Dupleix, d'après sa correspondance inédite. Paris: Plon; New York: F. W. Christern.

for Dupleix, the Company had no sympatby with his vast plans: it cared for nothing but money, and did not understand that the success of Dupleix's policy would procure for its shareholders unlimited sources of wealth. La Bourdonnais, a Breton and an excellent sailor, was Governor of the Île de France when the war broke out between France and England; he had to send a squadron to India, in order to relieve Pondicherry. His difficulties were numberless, but he succeeded; and notwithstanding Peyton's fleet, he succeeded in bringing his reinforcements to Pondicherry, where Dupleix received him with open arms. Unfortunately, Dupleix and La Bourdonnais could not live long in harmony. La Bourdonnais was jealous, uncontrollable, violent. Dupleix wanted to concentrate all the French efforts on Madras and the neighboring fort of St.-David. La Bourdonnais took Madras, but consented to accept a ransom for the place. He resisted the orders of Dupleix, and by the terms of a treaty engaged himself to replace Madras in the hands of the English for a sum of 1,100,000 pagodas. Dupleix considered this conduct an act of high treason. La Bourdonnais left with his fleet, and Dupleix remained alone, almost defenceless, and with the most terrible responsibilities. He had no longer any fleet; the English squadron was intact; Madras and Pondicherry were in danger; all the agents of the Company longed for peace. Dupleix remained calm. He saved Pondicherry; he inflicted a defeat on the army of the nabob. The Hindoos began to look on him as a demigod. He learned that peace had been concluded, and that the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle had definitively given Madras back to England. He had, nevertheless, firmly established his hold on the Indian soil and on the Indian mind.

Delivered from the fear of a continual struggle with England, Dupleix began to prepare to intervene in the affairs of India. His plans were very simple: he meant to rule India by means of a native Prince. He kept a little army of 2,000 Europeans and 4,000 sepoys, and had good artillery. He seized the first opportunity which was presented to him, and took the part of Mirzapha Jung against a rival. Nazir Jung invaded the Carnatic with an immense army. He had eight hundred European soldiers, commanded by a Major Lawrence; and though France and England were at peace, English and French were on the point of fighting, since Dupleix declared himself against Nazir Jung. "It is singular," wrote Dupleix, "that these people (the English) should prefer to the alliance of a great monarch the alliance of a wicked negre. But how can they resist the offer of 100,000 rupees? Lawrence has shut his eyes to the interest of his country as well as to the breaking by unauthorized subjects of the most solemn alliances. . . . And so two subjects who in Europe would hardly be lieutenants have the audacity to declare war on the King of France. The thing is laughable."

Dupleix, understanding that the English would bring Nazir Jung before Pondicherry, threw all his available force before this place. He knew his own allies, and feared that they would easily make a separate peace. He himself began to negotiate with Nazir Jung. In the midst of the negotiation some French officers rebelled against their chief, d'Auteuil; his allies were surprised, and one of them, Mirzapha Jung, surrendered himself into the hands of Nazir Jung. D'Auteuil had to fall back on the walls of Pondicherry. Dupleix gained time by writing letters to Nazir Jung, made him presents of brandy, and one night sent a little column into the Hindoo camp, which struck terror into the whole army. The forces of Nazir Jung fled in all directions; he himself ran away on horseback, and his English soldiers retreated to Fort St.-David. One night had changed the whole situation. The campaign of Nazir Jung, begun with so much noise, and ending in a disastrous flight, is typical of the operations conducted by the Indian princes. Dupleix knew how to use victory: he completed the conquest of the Carnatic; Nazir Jung was killed in battle on his elephant, Mirzapha Jung was delivered. On the battle-field he came down from his elephant and offered his thanks to Bussy, the lieutenant of Dupleix. Mirzapha was proclaimed ruler of the Deccan, and crowned in Pondicherry with great pomp. Dupleix had now found his instrument: he had placed his vassal on the throne of Golconda; France was giving the investiture to the heir of Nizam al Mulk. Mirzapha asked Dupleix to lend him an army for the conquest of the whole Deccan, and was killed in one of the battles which he had to fight against some rebel nabobs. Bussy proclaimed a new subadar, and his choice was confirmed by Dupleix. Bussy was a good soldier; he was also a good diplomat. He made himself a sort of incarnation of Dupleix, and helped to maintain him in the high position where he now stood. Dupleix was nabob of the Carnatic; the immense Deccan obeyed him.

The English had lost their prestige in the eyes of the native rulers. Mehemet Ali was not vanquished; he still held Trichinopoly. Dupleix despised him, but his fortunes were lost on this little place. The history of the siege of Trichinopoly is well known; the fate of millions of men was decided in this contest of a handful of men. The names of Clive, of Lawrence, of Law are the familiar names of this drama. The French arms suffered a total disaster. The capitulation of Law left Dupleix without a single soldier; his ally Chunda-Sahib had been assassinated; the French victories had been an idle dream, and all was lost in a day. Dupleix did not despair; he counted on dissensions between the native princes and the English; he counted upon the help of the Company; he refused to treat after a defeat. He sent d'Auteuil to France to open the eyes of the French Government to the situation of Indian affairs. "It is necessary that the Ministry should act, that the King should give orders, that he should take care of his glory, of which the Directors do not seem to think. . . . You are not ignorant that the English are sending forces to India." He asks for men, for ships. Mme. Dupleix, his wife, gives to d'Auteuil magnificent presents for Mme. de Pompadour; she says, in a letter to her nephew, who was to give the presents, that he must keep them if the Marchioness is no longer in favor. Who thought in France of Trichinopoly? Who had ever heard such a barbarous name? Who cared for nabobs and subadars? The Directors of the Company never spoke of anything but peace, neutrality, non-intervention; they were merchants. The two Companies, the French and the English, had a negotiation over the head of Dupleix. The English asked for the recall of this troublesome Governor of Pondicherry, who undertook to ruin all their schemes and to place India under a French protectorate. Dupleix was sacrificed; a successor was named for him, Godheu, who came to India and sent Dupleix home. Godheu represented peace at any price. Dupleix, who could have made millions in India, who had all the treasures of Golconda at his feet, spent the last years of his life in vain struggles against the Company. He left India with a small sum which he had to borrow from his successor. He died poor, and, what is worse, he died misunderstood, with the feeling that his country had never even known what he had wished to do for her. His sacrifice had been vain. Even now his name is not one of the popular names of France; the great triumph of England in India has acted like the sun, which makes all other lights look pale.

Correspondence.

BUSINESS AND WAGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read your comments upon the varying features of the telegraphers' strike, and have remarked the accuracy of your statements of the common sense of the situation as customarily viewed by the mind of the established class, given to what is practical rather than reformatory. This voicing of the futility of effort against what seems inevitable awakes a feeling of gratification. It is agreeable to see men who live by wages adapt themselves to the facts of business, instead of risking their livelihood by rising against the stubborn realities. If wages are inadequate, and yet are adjusted by the law of supply and demand, it looks indeed properly assertive of a freeman's right to happiness for the employee to "ask for more"; but, upon refusal and the evident absence of a prospect of success in an attempt to strike for a rise, it looks self-contained quietly to submit. As we pass and see the operator at the battery, we may think: "Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth."

And who has not experienced the feeling of admiration for the capitalist in his power dictating terms to the unestablished class with the ready common sense that takes advantage of abundant supply to a small demand? It is one of the successful elements in fiction that such power is portrayed in a way to ensnare our disposition to put ourselves in the place of him who exercises the power. We are inclined also to remember—with a sense of the enslaved condition of the drifting masses, and yet with a half-conscious recognition of their impecunious state that makes us jeer at the Pickwickian advice—the famous admonition of Horace Greeley to the "young man." The capitalist is powerful, and yet he cannot enslave; but with his power he excites an Americanized form of the old Roman admiration that once moved in the spectators when looking on a triumph. The power is due to an achievement in the world of business. The man is a conqueror home with his trophies from subjugated domains. We do more than consent to the laws that hedge him from the pretension of communism.

And it is right we should do more. The man who achieves fortune and invests capital in railroads and in telegraph lines helps others while helping himself. There is something admirable in the uncomplaining silence of these men before the people's lack of appreciation for the public accommodations furnished, usually at an endurable rate and with consideration for safety and despatch. The rule of doing to others as you would that they should do to you, which mingles with the rule of business that requires pay for services rendered, is wondered at, like "Pan in Wall Street"—not often admired, if at all noted, by the public that steps into a movable drawing-room at one town and presently gets out at another. Generally the thought is: "These men are making money out of us." And he who would in Boston communicate with his wife in Denver runs into the telegraph office, throws off his message with due care to keep the words down, pays the bill, and goes out again as hard toward the monopolist as the monopolist is to him. Everybody save the wage-receiver appears to be led by circumstances out of all sympathetic dispositions into that common sense of custom which you have been voicing in your comments upon this telegraphers' strike.

And yet nature, like Pan, creeps in amidst the story places and the preoccupied bustling throng —creeps in from among the strikers and stands wondering, and wondered at, amidst the magnates of business—to say that the law of supply and demand is not the law of justice; that an agreement, forced by stress on one side and power on the other, is not a covenant of humanity; that money need not be mammon; that the employer is bound by a higher law than that of business to be concerned for his employee as for himself; that, though money will always be rightly distributed in disproportionate measure, yet the hired helper should be enabled to lay up money without discomfort, and to find ease and enjoyment in a world as bright as this one is; that the common sense which is of business has lost in soul because it comes from a heart that says: "I have made my way: let others make theirs."

This last is an argument to which a capitalist might be led to resort through thinking that it involved a feeling of real benevolence, in that it implies that stimulus must be given to self-reliance. How must appear the wage-earners to these stirring men? The man who has done great things is like that character of whom Charles Reade tells in one of his short stories: "These qualities [fortitude and sagacity] he possessed, so he thought nothing of them." This being so, they naturally think everybody else could do what they do, provided everybody else was not so lazy. But the difference between them and the rest is that they have a faculty which the rest have not. And I think that the way to a reform in wages, such as will remove all probability of strikes, is to convince the capitalists of this fact; for at present they are not unnatural, and are only mistakenly disposed to be disdainful of men who do not bestir themselves to go and do likewise. W. W. T.

TYNGSBORO', MASS., August 28, 1883.

GREEK AT HARVARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The controversy over the oration of Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., before the Phi Beta Kappa Society seems to have been the outcome to a great extent of a mistaken idea as to the speaker's real meaning. That Mr. Adams intended to advocate the entire rejection of classical studies, and the substitution in their place of so-called "practical" studies, seems to me to be far from the truth; and yet this is taken as the basis of most of the arguments against his oration. It is a still greater mistake to assert, as the *Nation* does in its issue of August 16, that Mr. Adams's grievance lies in the fact that he himself was unable successfully to acquire a knowledge of Greek. The solution of the question lies in a consideration of the quality of instruction given at Harvard, and a comparison between the methods of Mr. Adams's time and those of the present day.

The studies of the last three years at Harvard are elective, and the student is then supposed to select such courses as will be for his advantage in after-life; and I believe that in a majority of cases this consideration is not overlooked. Greek stands near the head of the list in the percentage of students who elect it, and this is due, to a large extent, to the fact that the admirable organization and ability of the Greek department enable the student to acquire, not a smattering of the language, but a firm foothold, which will be to him a source of pleasure and profit. But before the elective system came into use, the study of Greek was compulsory upon all students, and the professors, being assured of full classes, took no pains to make their instruction thorough or even interesting. The effects of this method may be seen even now in the required work of the English department. Rhetoric, theme and forensic writing are the bugbears of all students, and the main object in the writing of a theme or forensic is to fill out the required amount in the shortest space of time. In direct contrast with this required work are the theses which candidates for honors are allowed to substitute for forensics. All of these show, by the interested and thorough research of the writer, that they are not perfunctory tasks, but entertaining and valuable work. It is true not only of Greek, but of every branch of study, that the methods of instruction have more to do with the student's success than any other thing. I do not claim for the business man any practical benefit from the study of classics, but I do claim that such methods of instruction as are in use in the Greek department at Harvard will give him as much, if not more, mental discipline than can be obtained from any other branch, while for the professional man a direct practical advantage is gained.

It is an open question as to whether a man ought to pursue at college a course which will have a direct bearing upon his pursuit in life. Be this as it may, I believe the study of Greek and Latin has a value which the man who chooses a profession cannot afford to lose. Doctor Humphreys, of Boston, a teacher of long experience, has hit upon a true estimate of this value. Latin and Greek form the basis of our scientific nomenclature, and it must be admitted that a knowledge of them is a very great assistance to professional study. Without this knowledge the acquisition of terms becomes an effort of memory, and is at best a dull task. Further, the names convey no meaning to the student, whereas if he were acquainted with their origin and derivation, it would require no effort to acquire and retain them. This is a consideration which should not be overlooked, and it cannot be denied that it is of practical value, and of no small value, too.

This advantage is one to be gained by the advanced methods which the Greek department, and to a less degree the Latin department, at Harvard now give—not a forced smattering, as was formerly the case, but a thorough and solid foundation. This much, as I have said, nobody who aims at a profession can afford to neglect; but I believe there are only two classes to whom a careful and critical study of the details of the classical languages is a benefit. These are, first, those who intend to become teachers, and, second, those who have the time and inclination to devote themselves to literary work. Mr. Adams denies that the classical literatures have the beauties attributed to them; but I must believe it is his imperfect knowledge of the subject which leads him to this assertion. The literature of the present day is largely imitative, and, if we trace it back to its originals, we find the mainspring in the Greek.

A RECENT GRADUATE.

SOUTH HANSON, August 28, 1883.

THE DOMAIN OF LEGITIMATE CRITICISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Four journals have done the *Book Notes* the honor of noticing the criticisms of McMaster's 'History' published therein. Among these may be mentioned the communication signed "J." in the *Nation*. Concerning the disfranchisement of the Cincinnati, this writer says: "While McMaster gives in the text his own opinion, that the Cincinnati were disfranchised, he gives in the note his authority in full, from which any reader may see that the disfranchisement was only proposed when the writing took place. Here, also, there is no danger of any mistake on the reader's part, and that is the essential point." From all this I beg leave to differ. McMaster says (p. 173): "Rhode Island disfranchised such of her citizens as were members of the Order." In a foot-note he gives as his authority a quotation from a newspaper published in Philadelphia, as follows: "We hear that the State of Rhode Island is determined to disfranchise any and every person who is a member of the Order of the Cincinnati, and render them incapable of holding any post of honor and trust in the Government." Here are two distinct and different statements. First, McMaster says that a certain thing was done; and second, his authority says it *hears* that a certain thing is *to be* done. It is absurd to make a positive historic statement, as McMaster has done, on such evidence as that is. How is any one but an expert to know which, if either, is correct? The truth is, *neither* statement is correct. Rhode Island never even proposed to do any such thing, much less did it. Both the statement in the narrative, and the authority as well, are false. It is because this writer has relied upon just such stuff as this that I distrust his book.

The second of the *Book Notes*' criticisms is, if maintained, far more serious than this. The charge is that a certain *proposed* act is so stated and discoursed upon as to leave upon the mind the belief that it is an accomplished fact, and very derogatory to Rhode Island, whereas no such facts existed. "J.," in the *Nation*, says he cannot see how this charge can stand. Let us show him. Page 339, McMaster, says: "The members [of the General Assembly] then went on *to do the worst act* of their lives. It was felt that a new forcing act must be passed, and that the new one must be stringent. An iron-clad oath, to which the name of the test-oath was given, was accordingly framed and brought in. Every man *who took* this oath swore in a most solemn manner to do his utmost to support the paper bank. . . . A long list of penalties *was provided* for those who did not take the oath." "Ship captains were *forbidden* to come in *or go out* of the ports of the State till they had taken the oath. Lawyers were *not to practice*, men were *not to vote*, politicians were not to run for office, members of the next Legislature were not to take their seats till they had, upon their solemn oaths, declared that paper was as good as gold. In this form the *law* went before the people." Mr. McMaster gives as his authority for all this two newspapers, the New York *Packet* and the *United States Chronicle*. Now, I maintain that to this point McMaster has impressed upon the mind of his reader the idea that all these things were accomplished facts; whereas they were no such things: they were all only propositions submitted to the people. No such law was ever made; no shipmasters, nor lawyers, nor members, nor anybody else, ever took the oath, or were ever asked to. It was simply a monstrous proposition. McMaster then proceeds to inform us that "it seemed likely that a number of rich merchants and prosperous tradesmen would pack up their goods, desert their homes, and remove to a neighboring State." Just as if such men, at the mere proposal of a bad law, would take such serious steps. Nothing whatever of the kind took place: it was simply heated newspaper talk. We are then informed that town meetings were held, and that three towns instructed their delegates to support it (the law—which, however, had never been enacted into a law). He does not inform us that twenty-seven towns instructed their delegates to vote against it; he gives the names of the towns which supported the proposition, but not those which were opposed to it. He further says: "In November the Forcing Act was

thrown out by an overwhelming majority." Now, I maintain that the impression upon the reader's mind is, all through, that this proposed law was a real law; that for a time the people labored under it; and that, at a subsequent meeting of the Legislature, it was repealed: all of which is untrue, and no part of the history of Rhode Island.

Nor is it a part of the history of the *people* of Rhode Island which McMaster assumes to have written, because these people lived in thirty towns. When asked if they wanted these monstrous propositions enacted into a law, only three towns out of the thirty said yes. The people were against it almost unanimously. McMaster does not so inform us.

That I have confined these inquiries to two distinct points, is not because I have exhausted the field. If the defence of my State or myself requires it, the whole book will be examined, but these two specimens are characteristic of the work.

I maintain, what I before said, that, so far as this State is concerned, this 'History' is indeed valueless, for only an expert would be able to detect the true from the false. But, if such things are true with regard to Rhode Island, why may they not be just as true with regard to other States?

A word more, and I have done. "J." contemptuously calls these things microscopical and of no consequence, and says that in spite of them this history is the best, covering the period, ever written. To say that this work is the best ever written, may be a very polite way of saying a very severe thing concerning those histories of its class which have preceded it. To understand the force of such a phrase, one must possess an accurate knowledge of those which preceded it. *What has* preceded it?

In a certain sense, everything is microscopical—any single thing is of minor consequence; but, in my humble judgment, these things come within the domain of legitimate criticism. They misrepresent the history of a people, and are therefore unhistoric. They betray a straining for effect, an ineffectual investigation of the true sources of history, and a disregard of their proper use, such as, if as true with regard to other States as of Rhode Island, will seriously impair, if it does not destroy, its value as history.

EDITOR OF BOOK NOTES.

PROVIDENCE, August 31.

Notes.

JAMES R. OSGOOD & Co.'s fall list of announcements includes the 'Life of Nathaniel Hawthorne,' by his son, Julian Hawthorne, in two volumes; 'John Greenleaf Whittier,' a biography, by Francis H Underwood; 'Eugène Fromentin, Painter and Writer,' translated from the French of Louis Gobse by Mrs. Mary G. Robbins; 'George Eliot; a Critical Study of her Life, Writings, and Philosophy,' by George Willis Cooke; 'Spiritual Creation, and the Necessary Implication of Nature in it,' by the late Henry James; Schopenhauer's 'The World as Will and Idea,' translated by R. B. Haldane and John Kemp; 'The Ideas of the Apostle Paul,' by the Rev. James Freeman Clarke; 'Myths of the Indians; or, Legends, Traditions, and Symbols of the Aborigines of America,' by Ellen Russell Emerson; 'Schools and Studies,' essays on educational topics, by President Hinsdale of Hiram College; 'The Course of Empire; being Outlines of the Chief Political Changes in the History of the World,' by Charles Gardner Wheeler; 'The People and Politics; or, The Structure of States and the Significance and Relation of Political Forms,' by G. W. Hosmer, M.D.; Palfrey's 'Compendious History of New England,' in four volumes, with a new and complete index; 'Woods and Lakes of Maine; or, A Trip from Moosehead Lake to New Brunswick in a Birch-bark Canoe,' by Lucius L. Hubbard; 'A Year of Sunshine,' cheerful extracts for every day, selected by Kate P. Sanborn; 'Nights with Uncle Remus,' by Joel Chandler Harris; 'A Little Girl among the Old Masters,' with introduction and comment by W. D. Howells; 'Red-letter Days Abroad,' by John L. Stoddard; 'Abelard and Heloïse,' by Mrs. Abby Sage Richardson; and 'The Recollections of a Drummer Boy,' by the Rev. Harry M. Keifer. Also, the following novels: 'Dolly,' by Frances Hodgson Burnett; 'Guenn: a Wave on the Breton Shore,' by Miss Blanche W. Howard; 'Fortune's Fool,' by Julian Hawthorne; 'A Woman's Reason,' by W. D. Howells; 'A Woman of Honor,' by H. C. Bunner; and 'The Storied Sea,' tales and essays by Mrs. Susan E. Wallace, wife of our Minister to Turkey. Finally, 'Songs of Fair Weather,' by Maurice Thompson; and a new illustrated edition of Tennyson's 'Princess,' uniform with the 'Lady of the Lake,' published last year.

The first two volumes in Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s new edition of Emerson's works will be the old 'Miscellanies,' under the title of 'Nature, Addresses, and Lectures,' and the first series of 'Essays.' The former will contain a steel portrait by Schoff. The American Commonwealth series, edited by Mr. Horace E. Scudder, will begin with John Esten Cooke's 'Virginia,' and be followed by 'Maryland,' by William Hand Browne; 'Pennsylvania,' by Wayne McVeagh; 'Kentucky,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler; 'South Carolina,' by Wm. H. Trescot; and 'Oregon,' by the Rev. Wm. Barrows. Other announcements by this house are 'The Diplomatic History of the War for the Union,' by the late William H. Seward, edited by George E. Baker, and the 'Complete Works of William H. Seward,' with portraits and memoir, by the same editor; 'The Voyage of the *Jeannette*,' edited by Mrs. Emma De Long; 'The History of Prussia to the Accession of Frederic the Great,' by Prof. Herbert Tuttle, of Cornell University; 'The Works of Virgil,' translated into English verse, with notes and comparative readings, by John Augustine Wilstock; Carl Ploetz's 'Epitome of Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern History,' translated by Wm. H. Tillinghast, of the Harvard University Library; 'A Handbook of English Authors,' by Oscar Fay Adams; 'A Roundabout Journey,' by Chas. Dudley Warner; a Riverside edition of Shakspere, edited by Richard Grant White; 'The Works of Jonathan Swift,' in nineteen volumes, with notes and a life by Sir Walter Scott; 'The Bay of Seven Islands, and Other Poems,' by John G. Whittier; 'He and She: a Poet's Portfolio,' by W. W. Story; 'Poems for Children,' by Mrs. Celia Thaxter; 'Mercedes,' and Later Lyrics,' by Thomas Bailey Aldrich; 'Twenty Poems from Henry W. Longfellow, illustrated from paintings by his son, Ernest W. Longfellow; Longfellow's 'Michael Angelo,' illustrated by numerous American artists; 'Art Anatomy,' by Dr. Wm. Rimmer, a facsimile of the fifty plates, folio, which were destroyed in the Boston fire; 'An Ambitious Woman,' by Edgar Fawcett; 'Man a Creative First Cause,' by Rowland G. Hazard; 'Beyond the Gates,' by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps; and 'Characteristics,' by A. P. Russell.

Harper & Bros. publish immediately 'A Companion to the Greek Testament and the English Version,' by Dr. Philip Schaff, of which two of the appendixes possess a high value: "Appendix I. is the most comprehensive list of printed editions of the Greek New Testament ever printed. It was prepared by Prof. Isaac H. Hall, of Philadelphia, and comprises 923 editions, 251 of which have not been mentioned in any similar list that has hitherto appeared. Appendix II. is altogether unique, being a collection of carefully-made facsimiles (reduced in many cases) of titles and specimen pages from twenty epoch-making editions of the Greek Testament."

Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston, will bring out during the autumn 'The Pilgrim Republic: an Historical Review of the Colony of New Plymouth,' by John A. Goodwin; 'About Spain,' by W. H. Downes, illustrated; a 'Memoir of Charles Lowe,' by Martha P. Lowe; 'Stray Chords,' poems by Julia Anaguos, a daughter of Mrs. Julia Ward Howe; and 'Patrice: her Love and Labor,' by Edward F. Hayward. The same firm are the publishers of the elaborate and costly art catalogue of the New England Exposition, illustrated by 19 etchings, 12 albertypes, 32 drawings, etc.

David Bogue, 3 St. Martin's Place, Trafalgar Square, London, has in press 'Henry Irving, a Biographical Sketch,' by Austin Brereton, with fifteen full-page portraits by Whistler, Barnard, Mrs. Allingham, etc., in the actor's Shaksperian and melodramatic characters, and a drawing by Fred. Barnard of Miss Ellen Terry as "Portia."

J. B. Lippincott & Co. place upon the American market the 'Life of Sir Wm. Rowan Hamilton,' of which the first volume alone has appeared and has been noticed at length in these columns (*Nation*, No. 935).

W. R. Jenkins, 850 Sixth Avenue, has begun with Henry Gréville's 'Dosia' a series of 'Romans Choisis,' in the original French. We must again repeat our caution about the proof-reading. "Greville" on the cover, with "Gréville" on the title-page; "so" for "sa" on p. 206, are careless typographical errors, against which the price of these volumes, moderate as it is, should insure the purchaser.

Dr. Sternberg's book on 'Photo-micrographs and how to make them' (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.) is a handsome volume, profusely illustrated by the heliotype process, which will be found interesting by those who have some familiarity with the use of the microscope and would be glad to make pictorial memoranda of the interesting objects which occasionally appear on their slides. The importance of this means of recording transient appearances, such as a particular stage of development of a minute organism, is very great, especially in certain branches of biological investigation, and is not yet fully appreciated. No camera-lucida or diagrammatic drawing can be so convincing as a photo-micrograph in cases where the latter can be made with a reasonable amount of distinctness. No assertions by an enthusiastic microscopist that he has found "germs" in a certain fluid can be so convincing as a sun picture of those germs. The technique described by Dr. Sternberg is good so far as the photographic part of the process is concerned, but amateurs will find but scanty information as to histological methods of preparation, which are so important in tissue studies. The plates given, with their descriptions, come under the head of popular science, and the author's suggested title for this section (which makes about half the book), viz., "Elementary Lessons in Biology," is a very good one.

A second edition of Prof. Lewis Campbell's 'Theætetus of Plato' is one of the recent issues of the Clarendon Press. It is a large 8vo of 356 pages, with a very tempting make-up. The first edition of the book appeared in 1861, so that nearly a quarter of a century separates the two editions. In no quarter of a century since the revival of learning has the study of Plato been so widely extended or so ardently pursued. The same re-

mark would perhaps apply to several other Greek authors, and those who would eliminate Greek from among our educational studies may derive what comfort from it they can. Professor Campbell has availed himself of all the important results of these studies, and has made not a few contributions of his own. He has studied the elaborate introductions and analyses of Professor Jowett's translation of Plato's entire works, and Mr. Grote's stupendous work 'Socrates and his Friends,' with a care only exceeded by that with which he has studied Plato himself. Particularly interesting, even to those who, like ourselves, must dissent from a large portion of what they contain, are the two dissertations in which Professor Campbell discusses the famous principle of Protagoras—"Man is the measure of all things; things *are* to me as they *appear* to me, and are to you as they appear to you." They are fine examples of that metaphysical subtility for which Scottish professors are famous. It is greatly to be regretted and little to be excused that a book otherwise so excellent should not only lack an index of any sort, but should be devoid even of a table of contents.

Volume v. of Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon (L. W. Schmidt) ends with part 75, and the next part opens with the subject of Electricity, to which forty-two pages are devoted. Edison had already been treated biographically at respectful length, and with discrimination, for we read (p. 761): "Edison's success is to be ascribed rather to his tremendous capacity for work, acute natural perception, and extraordinary power of combination, which knows how to make the most of results obtained empirically, than to exceptional genius or to knowledge that rests on a firm scientific foundation." The other great articles are Precious Stones (*Edelstein*), Iron (*Eisen*), and Railroads (*Eisenbahn*). This last fills nearly forty pages, and abounds in valuable statistics. In a list, with dates and figures of killed and wounded, of twenty-seven memorable accidents, the United States occurs fourteen times. The *Railroad Gazette's* annual record of train accidents is availed of; and in the plate accompanying the article the American palace-car has its proper place. The maps relate to Germany and neighboring states — industries, and mountain and river systems.

The third part of Mr. Néstor Ponce de Leon's praiseworthy 'Diccinario Tecnológico' (English-Spanish) has now appeared, carrying the work on from Bond to Carriage. Part 4 is promised in November. The need of such a work is emphasized by the very incompleteness of it, now that it has been begun; but apparently another year must elapse before the first volume is completed.

'Vix,' a story reprinted from Col. George E. Waring's 'Whip and Spur,' introduces a series of 'Waring's Horse Stories,' published by J. R. Osgood & Co. The title promises an exciting, but this is really a pathetic tale.

A 'History of the New York State Teachers' Association' has been usefully compiled by Hyland C. Kirk (New York: E. L. Kellogg & Co.). It summarizes the annual conventions of this body, which was founded in 1845, and sketches at greater or less length the more prominent members. Portraits of not a few of these are interspersed with the text, and afford a curious study of professional physiognomy.

One might hesitate how to speak of the 'Tenting School' (Ringoes, N. J.: C. W. Larison), whether for its main purpose—"a description of the tours taken and the field-work done, by the class in geography in the Academy of Science and Art" at the above-named place—or for its subordinate aim "to improve the spelling of the English language as it is used in America." Many practical hints for a novel sort of educational picknicking (a summer school on wheels and under tents), with considerable information about central New Jersey and the adjoining coast, can be here obtained in a peculiar phonetic garb. There is also a rather clever school-girl sketch of a sail on Barnegat Bay. Add several rude maps and woodcuts. The work, if eccentric, and not what might be expected to emanate from an "academy of science and art," is earnest and wholesome.

The *Natural History Journal and School Reporter*, published in York, England, is primarily, though not exclusively, a medium of information for the Friends' Schools. In many ways it illustrates the difference between the English and the American branches of the denomination—not least in the department of athletics, where "records" have begun to be published, and we read in the June number: "The Kick at the Football would, no doubt, soon be beaten if all schools adopted it, and we hope they will next year." The *Journal* is a modest and useful worker in the vast field of science, and lends its aid to systematic observation such as that in regard to the phænology of plants, on which Drs. Hoffmann and Ihne are engaged. It is illustrated, and has even a chess department.

Science contains in its five issues, August 17 to September 14, a full report of the proceedings of the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at Minneapolis. The timeliness of Professor Rowland's address before the physics section, in which he enforces the responsibility that rests upon scientific men of distinguishing between great things and little things in science, is made strikingly apparent by the report of Section A. From this it appears that some elementary properties of squares, deduced from the "usual" binomial theorem with "almost obvious" simplicity, were received by the section with hearty applause.

A catalogue of works on Madagascar or in the Malagassy tongue is attempted in the August number of *Polybiblion*.

The significant papers published with the current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society are "Gleanings from the Sources of the History of the Second Parish, Worcester, Mass.," by Samuel S. Green (the historian Bancroft's father was pastor of this parish, dying in 1839 at the age of eighty-four); "The Journey of Moncacht-Apé," a Yazoo chief who preceded Lewis and Clark in the overland journey, by A. McF. Davis; and "Iron from the Ohio Mounds," by F. W. Putnam.

Perhaps nothing was more effectually shut out from the South by slavery than art, and the comparatively recent exhibition of pictures at Atlanta, and that of works of art in general now forming part of the Southern Exposition at Louisville, are important events in the growth of that section in cultivation. The catalogue of the Louisville collection fills eighty pages, and has been conscientiously compiled.

The failure of the Messrs. Harpers' prize competition for illustrations of Alfred Domett's 'Christmas Hymn' might have been expected on account of the inappropriateness of the subject. Prize poetry about the nightingale or the primrose would be nearly as promising. The offer has just been renewed to artists under twenty-eight, the subject being "Christmas" simply.

—The increased interest felt in everything relating to our forests and forest trees is shown by the numerous publications which have lately appeared upon these subjects. The latest of these to reach us is a catalogue of the forest trees of Arkansas, reprinted, with copious notes, from the *American Journal of Forestry*. It is from the pen of Prof. F. L. Harvey, whose investigations in connection with the census of 1880 have done so much to reveal the remarkable wealth and composition of the Arkansas forests. The field is an inviting one; there is hardly a spot outside the tropics where the forest exceeds that of southern Arkansas in beauty and variety. Professor Harvey includes 129 arborescent species in his catalogue, but the number should be slightly reduced by the omission of some half-dozen species admitted doubtfully or upon the insufficient authority of early travellers. The chestnut, for example, is now known to belong exclusively to the cis-Mississippi region; and at least the pines here admitted are not known west of Tennessee. The Arkansas sylva is characterized by its many species which, under less favorable conditions of soil and climate, hardly rise above the proportions of insignificant shrubs, but here and nowhere else become considerable trees; by the number and variety of the species of oak it contains; by the development and beauty of its hawthorns; and by the fact that seven species of hickory grow in one of its southern counties side by side, although not thus elsewhere associated. The number of coniferæ detected within the limits of the State is small, considering its extent and the variety of its soil and elevation. These local sylvas are valuable helps to a better knowledge of our trees, and there cannot be too many of them.

—An English medical journal calls attention to the danger of the communication of disease through books, especially of the entertaining class, which are likely to be read by persons suffering from catching diseases. It tells us that the organic particles that carry the infection may be as dangerous weeks or months after they found lodging in the unsuspected pages of the book as when they left the sick room. It is only necessary for a susceptible person to open the volume for the evil to be done. Measles, scarlet fever, diphtheria, sore throat, whooping-coughs, bronchitis, consumption, perhaps—any disease in which the lungs or the skin is giving out poisonous exhalations—may be transmitted more certainly and more widely by books than in any other way. It is a discouraging picture—a pendant to those which the *Lancet* paints from time to time, in which we see the thorough adulteration of everything which we eat. When combined with the chances of catching typhoid fever in the country during our vacations, and being poisoned by sewer-gas in the city during the winter, with the rapidly diminishing number of unpolluted water-supplies, with the gradual but certain filling up of the atmosphere by dust and smoke, it affords a ready answer to Mallock's question whether life is worth living, by showing that, to any well-informed person, life is becoming impossible. As to this newly-discovered danger, it will be advisable for cautious persons to read no book which is not accompanied by a medical certificate that it has never been read by any person having, or having had, an infectious or contagious disease. A surer way still will be to imitate the practice of the clubs in regard to fresh packs of cards, and never read a book after it has been read by any one else. In the meantime, it may be a comfort to timorous persons to know that in great public libraries whose books circulate without restriction everywhere, when the smallpox has been raging, it has never been communicated to the attendants by books, nor, so far as is known, to any of the other borrowers.

—The Parliamentary document (Hansard, 282) relating to the purchase of the Stowe collection from the Ashburnham MSS. possesses a high degree of interest. This collection forms but a fourth part of the whole, and was sold for £45,000, or a little more than one-fourth of the

price asked for it, the Barrois and Libri collections, and the so-called Appendix, together (£160,000). It numbers 996 volumes, and was manifestly the portion above all others which the Government, if compelled to make a choice, should have selected, for it is of high importance and rare curiosity for the history of the three kingdoms. The main body of the Irish MSS. (partly in the Irish language) are to be deposited as an indefinite loan with the Royal Irish Academy. They embrace sixteen volumes containing the redistribution of lands forfeited by the rebellion of 1641, and twenty-two volumes of the state papers and correspondence of the Earl of Essex during his viceroyalty. There are also ten volumes of Hanoverian state papers and abundance of pieces for the civil wars. The autograph letters of kings and statesmen are very numerous, from the time of Henry IV. down. No. 30 of the catalogue is "the original return concerning the levy of ship money, made to Sir Peter Temple, High Sheriff of Bucks, in 1635, from the parish of Great Kimble, a village at the foot of the Chiltern Hills, around which the principal property of John Hampden lay"; and Hampden's name heads the list. No. 29 includes three original letters of his. No. 33 is a pay-warrant signed by Cromwell, and by Thurloe and Milton among the receivers. The foreign royal autographs are also notable, but chiefly French. A letter of Franklin's, dated Passy, November 11, 1784, is mentioned. An early specimen of an indispensable modern convenience is a small quarto MS., entitled 'Alphabetical Book of Index, whereby several remarkable passages in Rapin's History of England to the Revolution may be easily turned to, continued to the end of King William's reign to another History,' by Charles Gibbon. Among other miscellaneous MSS. is a quarto vellum copy of Petrarch's 'Sonetti e Trionfi,' which might have been the poet's own last copy, being judged by its handwriting to be of the time of his death. Passing over the ample ecclesiastical sections, the collection is very strong in charters and cartularies, Anglo-Saxon, English, and Scotch. A lot of Oriental manuscripts close the catalogue.

—The Rev. F. E. Warren, already favorably known through his 'Liturgy and Ritual of the Celtic Church' (in connection with the edition of the Stowe Missal), has just published the 'Leofric Missal' (Oxford: Clarendon Press, pp. lxvi.-344). This missal, bequeathed by Leofric, first Bishop of Exeter, 1050–1072, remained for centuries in the Chapter library until, in 1602, it passed into the Bodleian. The editor has discussed very fully in his introduction the composition and general relations of the manuscript, showing that it consists of at least three independent elements, which he designates as A, B, and C. Part A (two-thirds of the whole) is a Gregorian Sacramentary, written in Lotharingia early in the tenth century, and probably brought with him by Leofric from the Continent to England. Part B is a calendar, prepared in England and for English use, in the latter part of the tenth century. Various indications (notably the names of saints and ecclesiastics commemorated) point to the monastery of Glastonbury as its place of composition. The contents of C are very miscellaneous, and can scarcely be assigned to any one place or time. "They comprise masses, manumissions of serfs, historical statements, etc., written in England partly in the tenth, partly in the eleventh centuries," and inserted rather irregularly into the text of A and B. The manumissions occur at three places, and are in Anglo-Saxon. They are interesting not only for their phraseology, but because they prove the custom of manumitting at the crossing of four roads. The significance of the 'Leofric Missal' in its entirety "lies in the fact that it is one of the only three surviving missals known to have been used in the English Church during the Anglo-Saxon period." The other two are the so-called 'Rede Boke of Darbye' (now in C.C.C.C. Library) and the missal of Robert of Jumièges, now at Rouen. Mr. Warren has not published the texts of these two, but has quoted enough of them to show wherein they differ from the Leofric. He has also collated in this manner a few other MSS. or fragments. The 'Leofric Missal' will be of value chiefly to the student of English liturgy, but Mr. Warren's remarks throw light on many points of English history. The indices at the end are models of fulness. That of the proper names appears to be perfect, giving even the variants of spelling. In view of the large number of English and Celtic saints and ecclesiastics commemorated, it will be of great help in the study of onomatology in England. But we must call the editor's attention to the recently adopted practice of treating *a* and *ae* as equivalents in Anglo-Saxon words; and we regret that he has not marked in his text the manuscript pagination, inasmuch as he refers continually to it in the introduction. Yet these are only slight blemishes; the book as it stands cannot be too warmly commended.

MADAME JUNOT'S MEMOIRS.

Napoleon: His Court and Family: Memoirs of Madame Junot, Duchesse d'Abrantès. London: Bentley & Son. 3 vols. 1883.

THE general interest awakened by the publication of the 'Memoirs' of Mme. de Rémusat has induced the publishers of the English translation of that fascinating book to issue a "new" and "carefully revised" edition of the 'Memoirs' of Mme. Junot, which deal with the same period of history. The "revision" has not been so "carefully" executed as could be desired. The translator's English is frequently clumsy enough, and, at all times, a sorry substitute for the vivacity of the original French; still, all deductions made, the reading public must be thankful to have again placed within their reach one of the most interesting books in existence.

Mme. Junot, whose maiden name was Permon, belonged to a family which had long resided in Corsica, and had there become intimate with the family of the Bonapartes. Her mother had known Napoleon, his brothers and sisters, from the days of their infancy till they grew into men and women; and Charles Bonaparte, the father, was carefully nursed by her through his last illness, and expired at her house in Montpellier—the Permons being at that time resident in France. An incident such as this could not but strengthen the intimacy between the two families; and Napoleon, a short time before setting out to take command of the French army in Italy, proposed that this intimacy should be cemented by no less than three marriages. The son, Albert Permon, was to be married to his sister Pauline—afterward the Princess Borghese; Mme. Junot, then a little girl, was to be married to his brother Jerome, also at that time little more than an infant; while Bonaparte himself proposed to marry Mme. Permon, the mother. It was in vain that Mme. Permon pointed out that she was more than old enough to be his mother—the future emperor professed his indifference to such a trifling matter as that of age. Mme. Permon did not look more than thirty, and that was sufficient for him. The lady, however, was too sensible to entertain this singular proposal. "She gave him her hand, and repeated, still laughing, that though she had some pretensions, they did not aspire so high as to conquer the heart of a man of twenty-six, and that she hoped their friendship would not be interrupted by this little affair. 'At any rate, think of it,' said Bonaparte. 'Well, well, I will think of it,' replied my mother, laughing as heartily as before." This was Napoleon's first attempt at match-making, in which occupation he became subsequently an unwearied laborer, and it was entirely unsuccessful, for none of these projected unions became accomplished facts.

Junot was one of the first of Napoleon's military comrades, and none among his marshals was more devoutly attached to their leader. Their intercourse dated from the siege of Toulon. Junot was at that time a simple sergeant of grenadiers. He had been educated for the bar; but when the allied Powers of Europe invaded France, he abandoned his peaceful profession and enlisted as a soldier. He soon established a reputation for headlong gallantry, and was known in his regiment as *la Tempête*.

"Being one day on duty at the battery of the Sans-Culottes, . . . Bonaparte asked for some one who could write a good hand. Junot stepped out of the ranks and offered his service. Bonaparte told him to place himself somewhere to write a letter which he would dictate. Junot chose the corner of the battery. Scarcely had he finished the letter when a bomb, fired by the English, burst at the distance of ten paces and covered him, as well as the letter, with mould. 'Capital!' said Junot laughing, 'we wanted some sand to dry the ink.' Bonaparte fixed his eyes on the young sergeant; he was quite calm, and had not even started. This circumstance decided his fortune."

He became aide-de-camp to General Bonaparte, was with him all through his Italian campaigns and the war in Egypt, and, upon Bonaparte becoming First Consul, was appointed military commandant of Paris. It was at this time that Junot became the husband of Mlle. Permon, then a girl of seventeen. Thus Mme. Junot, from her earliest years, was in a position specially favorable for the acquiring of a true insight into the character of Napoleon; and these memoirs are a proof that she did not fail to turn the opportunity to the best account. But they are not less entertaining as a picture of the manners of the time, and indeed it is from this picture that we learn how it was that Napoleon acquired so extraordinary an ascendancy over the minds and wills of his fellow-countrymen.

The dresses of the ladies at this period were truly amazing in their eccentricity and their extreme costliness. The following is Mme. Junot's description of Pauline, Napoleon's beautiful sister—who, subsequently, sat as a model to the sculptor Canova, clothed (as a Hindoo philosopher would delicately put it) "with the regions of space"—as she appeared at one of Mme. Permon's balls:

"Mme. Leclerc informed us that she had prepared for the occasion a dress which, to use her own expression, she expected would *immortalize her*. This dress was a subject of the most serious consideration with her at least a week before she was destined to wear it, and she enjoined the strictest secrecy on Mme. Germon (the dressmaker) and Charbonnier (the hairdresser). She requested permission to dress at our house, which she frequently did in order that she might enter the ball-room with her dress completely fresh and in all its beauty Only those who knew Mme. Leclerc at that time can form any idea of the impression she produced on entering my mother's drawing room. The head-dress consisted of *bandelettes* of a very soft fine kind of fur, of a tiger pattern. These *bandelettes* were surmounted by bunches of grapes in gold; but the hair was not dressed so high as it is now worn. She was a faithful copy of a Bacchante, such as are seen in antique statues and cameos. . . . Her robe of exquisitely fine India muslin had a deep bordering of gold; the pattern was of grapes and vine leaves. With this she wore a tunic of the purest Greek form, with a bordering similar to her dress, which displayed her fine figure to admirable advantage. This tunic was confined on the shoulders by cameos of great value. The sleeves, which were very short,

were lightly gathered on small bands, which were also fastened by cameos. Her girdle, which was placed below the bosom, as is seen in Greek statues, consisted of a gold band, the clasp of which was a superbly-cut antique stone. She entered the drawing-room without her gloves, displaying her beautiful white round arms, which were adorned with bracelets formed of gold and cameos. It is impossible to describe the effect her appearance produced. Her entrance seemed absolutely to illuminate the room."

Very interesting, in these Memoirs, are the notices of Napoleon as he was before his great career had begun to open before him. Here is one concerning him, just after he became a sub-lieutenant of artillery:

"Previously to his departure he came to pass some time at our house. My sister was then at her convent, but she frequently came home while Napoleon was with us. I well recollect that on the day when he first put on his uniform he was as vain as young men usually are on such an occasion. There was one part of his dress which had a very droll appearance—that was his boots. They were so high and wide that his little thin legs seemed buried in their amplitude. Young people are always ready to observe anything ridiculous, and as soon as my sister and I saw Napoleon enter the drawing-room we burst into a loud fit of laughter. At that early age, as well as in after life, Bonaparte could not relish a joke; and when he found himself the object of merriment he grew angry. My sister, who was some years older than I, told him that since he wore a sword he ought to be gallant to ladies, and, instead of being angry, should be happy that they joked with him. 'You are nothing but a child, a little *pensionnaire*,' said Napoleon in a tone of contempt. Cécile, who was twelve or thirteen years of age, was highly indignant at being called a child, and she hastily resented the affront by replying to Bonaparte, 'And you are nothing but a *puss in boots*.' This excited a general laugh among all present except Napoleon, whose rage I will not attempt to describe."

Such was the opening scene in the military life of Napoleon. The conqueror of Austerlitz and Jena was assured by a vivacious young lady that he was only "a puss in boots."

It was subsequent to his distinguished services during the siege of Toulon, that Napoleon was arrested and thrown into prison. He was put upon his trial, and, although acquitted, his enemies were sufficiently powerful to cause his name to be erased from the list of French generals. For some years he remained in an extremely hopeless and poverty-stricken condition, and but for the generous attachment of Junot could not have found means of subsistence. During this period of depression, Bonaparte was a frequent visitor at the house of Mme. Permon; and, though he spoke French execrably, Mme. Junot remembers how the vigor and originality of his conversation enchained the attention of all who heard him. At this period of his life, Mme. Junot informs us, Bonaparte was "decidedly ugly," and a considerable sloven to boot. Subsequently, she admits, his appearance underwent a complete change; but then his features were sharp and angular, he wore a shabby round hat drawn over his forehead, gloves he rejected altogether as a useless and expensive luxury; and he wore boots ill-made and ill-blackened, which he was in the habit of drying in front of Mme. Permon's fire, to the extreme dissatisfaction of that lady. "He at length perceived this, and, being at that time exceedingly afraid of displeasing my mother, he would prevail upon our maid to brush his boots before he came in." From this condition of depression Napoleon was liberated by the events of the 13th Vendémaire, year 4 of the Republic. It was then that he quelled "the sacred right of insurrection," embodied for the moment in the Section Lepelletier, and, according to Carlyle, "blew into space the thing we specifically call the *French Revolution*."

"After the 13th Vendémaire (4th October)," writes Mme. Junot, "soiled boots were out of the question. Bonaparte never went out but in a handsome carriage, and he lived in a very respectable house, Rue des Capucines. In short, he had become an important, a necessary personage; and all without noise, as if by magic. He came every day to see us, with the same kindness and the same familiarity. . . . At this period famine prevailed in Paris in a greater degree than anywhere else; there was a real want of bread; and other kinds of provisions ceased to find their way to the city. The distress was dreadful. . . . Bonaparte saved more than 100 families from perishing. He caused wood and bread to be distributed among them at their own homes; this his situation enabled him to do. I have been charged by him to give these bounties to more than ten unfortunate families who were starving. . . . One day, when Bonaparte came to dine with my mother, he was stopped in alighting from his carriage by a woman who held a dead infant in her arms. It was the youngest of her six children. Her husband, a slater by trade, had been accidentally killed three months before, while at work on the roof of the Tuileries. Nearly two months' wages were due to him. His widow could not obtain payment. She suckled, but grief and afterward want dried up her milk. Her poor little infant had just expired; it was not yet cold. She saw a man, whose dress was covered with gold, alight at our own door almost every day, and came to ask him for bread, 'that the other children might not share the fate of the youngest,' she said; 'and if nobody will give me anything, I must even take them all five and drown myself with them.' . . . Bonaparte, that day, came into my mother's with a look of sadness, which he retained all dinner-time. He had, for the moment, given a few assignats to the unhappy woman. After we had all left the table, he begged my mother to cause some inquiry to be made concerning her. I undertook the office. All she said was true, and, moreover, this poor mother was an honest and virtuous woman. Bonaparte, in the first place, obtained payment of the arrears due to her husband, and a little pension was afterward granted to her. Her name was Marianne Huvé. She lived for a long time near our house. She had four girls whom she brought up like a good mother. Two of them frequently came to do needlework for us; they always expressed the most profound gratitude to the *General*, as they called him."

The foregoing is one out of several like stories related in these Memoirs which show that until warped and hardened by power and ambition, the nature of Napoleon was not lacking in humane and compassionate elements.

Mme. Junot's testimony to the striking force and brilliancy of Napoleon's conversation at this period is in exact accord with that of Mme. de Rémusat:

"Our evenings, even after the play if it were not too late, were spent at Mme. Bonaparte's. There we enjoyed the happiness of meeting the First Consul. His conversation, always attractive by its depth of thought, and that air of originality which reflected from his rich and brilliant imagination, acquired increased interest from the consciousness that at such a moment he could give expression only to ideas of the most direct influence. For this reason I seldom missed the quintidian dinners. . . . The most profound civilians, the ablest financiers, the most subtle diplomatists thronged around to hear him, and appeared to be rather taking lessons from him than imparting their knowledge to a young man, whose pale complexion bore witness to watchings and fatigues far exceeding theirs, although the superiority of years was greatly on their side."

At this time Bonaparte, although First Consul, and the most powerful man in France, had not thought fit to surround himself with an inaccessible etiquette. He occupied the Tuileries, but simply as the first citizen of France; and the intercourse between him, his generals, and their wives was free and unconstrained. Every fortnight a parade of troops was held in the court of the Tuileries. All the regiments in France came up to Paris in due succession to be present at these reviews. They lasted for several hours, because Napoleon made use of them to converse with all the subaltern officers, and even the private soldiers. His care extended to the most minute particulars—the food, the dress—everything that was necessary to the efficiency and well-being of the men. He encouraged them to speak to him without restraint. "Conceal from me none of your wants," he would say; "suppress no complaints you may have to make of your superiors. I am here to do justice to all, and the weaker are especially entitled to my protection." Mme. Junot records the following incident at one of these reviews, which is illustrative of the manner in which Napoleon established his ascendancy in the hearts of his soldiers:

"At this moment the First Consul stopped under our window, and said to a drummer of about sixteen or seventeen, 'So it was you, my brave boy, who beat the charge before Zurich.' The countenance of the young soldier was suffused with crimson, but it was not timidity which called the flush to his cheek. He raised toward the First Consul his large black eyes, sparkling with joy at being thus publicly distinguished, and replied in a half tremulous, half confident tone, 'Oui, mon Général.' 'It was you, too, who at Weser gave proof of the most gallant presence of mind by saving your commander.' The youth blushed still deeper, this time from modesty, and answered in a lower voice than before: 'Oui, mon Général.' 'Well, I must discharge the debt of the country; it will be paid you not in a ring of honor, but a sabre of honor; I appoint you a subaltern in the Consular Guard. Continue to behave well, and I will take care of you.' As the First Consul ceased speaking, he raised his eyes to the low window at which we were seated, and, touching his hat, saluted us all with a gracious smile. My mother-in-law's eyes filled with tears. 'How ought we to love this man!' said she, crying and laughing together. 'See how the poor boy is overpowered!' The young drummer was leaning on the shoulder of a comrade, and following Bonaparte with his eyes. He was pale as death, but how eloquent were his looks! I know not what may have become of him; but I will answer for it, if his life were sacrificed for Napoleon, it cost him no regret. He was in the evening the subject of my conversation with the First Consul; he listened with interest, and, addressing Berthier, . . . desired him to take down the young man's name, and provide him with outfit for his new rank."

Here our gleanings from this fascinating book must come to an end. It is unsystematic, but there is an epical completeness in the career and destiny of Napoleon, which gives an involuntary unity to any work that deals with it as a whole. There is, first, the dark and agitated period of the Revolutionary struggle, then the calm and quiet hopefulness of the Consulate; then again the gaudy and oppressive splendor of the Empire, standing forth, as it were, from a background of thunder-cloud and gathering gloom; and, finally, the closing period of retribution and ruin. Mme. Junot lived through them all, and describes them with dramatic power and insight, fortified by personal knowledge of the great actors in the changeful drama.

FREEMAN'S ENGLISH TOWNS.

English Towns and Districts; a Series of Addresses and Sketches. By Edward A. Freeman, M.A. With illustrations and map. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

THIS collection contains papers of two kinds: short sketches, reprinted from the *Saturday Review*, of the same character as the author's 'Historical and Architectural Sketches, chiefly Italian,' and his 'Sketches from the Subject and Neighbor-Lands of Venice,' and longer ones, resembling those on cities and countries in the third series of his 'Historical Essays,' and originally composed and published as addresses to various societies, several of them as presidential opening addresses to the Historical Section of the Archæological Institute. In both kinds of papers the author has, "in revising them for the reprint, made any changes that seemed to be called for, whether by adding, leaving out, or any other form of improvement." The illustrations are in the same style and made by the same artists as those in the 'Subject and Neigh-

bor-Lands of Venice.' The essays—thirty-one in number, grouped not in the chronological order of composition, but according to geographical divisions—are mainly devoted to the pointing out of historical and architectural features, not to detailed description, antiquarian or other. Each town is looked on and presented as a whole, with a kind of personal history, and put in its fitting place, as part of the history of England. "The city itself and its history are something greater than any particular object in the city."

A quarter of a century lies between the composition of the oldest and that of the latest of these sketches, but they are all—probably owing in part to the thorough revision, with its various "forms of improvement"—almost equally marked by the intense peculiarities of Mr. Freeman's historical and antiquarian pen. There is constant dissection, analysis, definition of terms, marking of limits, illustration by analogy, elucidation by contrast, presentation of likeness and unlikeness, repetition for the sake of clearness or inculcation—much beautiful work, some that is tedious; here flashes of genius, there almost pedantic hair-splitting; a vast display of knowledge and research, and some of prejudice and conceit. That the book is another rich contribution of the author to English history—though offering only strings of bits of information, and nothing complete in itself—need hardly be said at this stage of Mr. Freeman's fame; nor, on the other hand, that the same knowledge and acumen, with less mannerism, might have made it incomparably more charming.

In "Cardiff and Glamorgan," the first sketch, the historian asks himself these questions: Who were the first inhabitants of the country?

"Were the Britons the earliest wave of Aryan migration in these lands, or were they preceded by an earlier Aryan and Celtic race—that, namely, which consists of the Scots, both of Britain and Ireland? . . . That is to say, is the wide distinction between the two branches of the Celtic race in these islands, between the Scots or Gael, and the Welsh or Britons, a distinction which arose in these islands, or do they represent two successive waves of Aryan migration? . . . And, again, can either branch of the Celtic race, Gael or Britain, claim to be the first inhabitants of the land? Were the Celts preceded by races kindred to the primitive non-Aryan dwellers in Europe, of whom the Finns of the North and the Basques of the Pyrenees are remnants? Were the Silurians, whose descendants form a main element of the population in South Wales and the neighboring districts, a people closely akin to the non-Aryan Iberians of Spain, as 'has been held by two writers, both of great name, but with a long interval of ages between them—by Tacitus and by Professor Huxley'?"

Mr. Freeman, unlike other recent authorities (see "Celtic Britain," in the *Nation* of July 19) leaves the questions unanswered, remarking only in regard to the latter points: "I know not whether Britons will be ready to give up Caradoc as a British brother; I should certainly be unwilling to give him up as an Aryan cousin. . . . One thing is plain, that if the people of South Wales are really of a non-Aryan stock, the process of Aryan assimilation has been very thoroughly carried out." The British tongue is still living in these parts; if Basque or any other non-Aryan speech ever lived here, it long ago became extinct in vale and mountain. That it should have become extinct through assimilation must appear to Mr. Freeman very improbable, as he remarks in another essay, "Anglia Transwalliana": "English has not assimilated, though it has largely displaced, the Welsh and Gaelic tongues, with which it has no connection beyond the remotest Aryan kindred," while "the tongues of the Dane and the Fleming, as well as those of the Angle and the Saxon, have all been drawn together by the attraction of a single type of standard English"—which teaches us the lesson, "how easily a standard form of any language assimilates all the kindred dialects of a country, but how little effect it has on dialects which are not kindred."

What the type of standard English was that attracted and absorbed all other dialects Mr. Freeman tells us in his very elaborate paper on Lincoln ("Lindum Colonia," "an heathen" city on "an hill"): "The tongue which we call English, while it is neither the Northumbrian of York nor the Saxon of Winchester, is the intermediate Anglian speech of Eastern Mercia. . . . It was a Lincolnshire man, a Bourne man, who gave the English language its present shape. . . . We do not speak the tongue of Ælfred; we do not speak the tongue of Waltheof; but we do speak the tongue of Hereward, the tongue in which the chronicler of Peterborough kept on our native annals, till the pen dropped from his hand as he set down the coming . . . of the King who wore his crown in Coleswegen's church of Wigford." The birth of English learning, however, is traced further back in time, and further north, in "Points in Early Northumbrian History," one of the most interesting, if not the most interesting, of the thirty-one essays of the collection:

"Do not forget that the English tongue, that the earliest compositions in the English tongue, are more ancient than the migration which brought Englishmen to the shores of Britain. The first poets of the English race belonged, not to this our island England, but to the older England on the mainland. Had their tongue been Greek instead of English, their fame would have sounded from one end of heaven to the other. But the poets of our Homeric epic and of our Homeric catalogue, the gleemen who sang the tale of Beowulf and the song of the Traveller, being English, are nameless. But of the first Christian English minstrelsy, of the first recorded English minstrelsy on British ground, the land of Northumberland, the land of Deira, is the parent. Yours [Northumbria's] is Cædmon, the bard of the Creation, the bard of the battles of the patriarchs—he who, a thousand years before Milton wrote, had forestalled Milton, alike in his daring subject and in his majestic treatment."

Here—as often elsewhere—we have Mr. Freeman with all his passionate, almost superstitious, sympathy for everybody and everything in the remote past that promoted the rise, the "making," and "welding," the greatness and literary bloom of England, of English England. He never forgets to teach his hearers or readers to see a blessing in every event, however horrible and shocking, which tended directly or indirectly to "make England England." He graphically describes, under "Exeter," the heroic but vain resistance of that city to the Norman Conqueror, and immediately adds: "But we see none the less that it was for the good of England that Exeter should fall. A question was there decided greater than the question whether England should be ruled by Harold, Eadgar, or William, the question whether England should be one." Northumberland's resistance was equally stout and vain, but "the Norman conquest was, in very truth, a Saxon conquest. It ruled that England should be forever an united kingdom." Going further back, we find Silchester—of whose greatness in Roman times, as attested by recently dug-up remains, we read a wonderful tale—ruthlessly swept away by the conquering English; but mourn not: "It is because Silchester and places like Silchester were left waste without inhabitants—because those who dwelt in them were cut off by the sword or driven to save their lives in remote corners of Britain or Gaul—because for a hundred years the faith of Christ was wiped out before the faith of Woden—it is because of all this that Britain has not been as Gaul and Spain, and that we still keep the laws and the tongue which we brought from the mouths of the Elbe and the Eider." "Had it been otherwise," we are told under "Carisbrooke," "had the slaughter and havoc by our fathers been less complete, Englishmen would not have remained Englishmen, and Britain would never have become England." The following is, perhaps, the best specimen of the brutal pitch to which Mr. Freeman carries his philosophy of history:

"We were the Turks, and worse than the Turks, of those days; the sword was our only argument; the persecuted Briton had not even the chance of Koran or tribute. But simply because we carried slaughter and havoc to a more fearful pitch than any Turk ever carried them, for that very reason our conquest carried with it the hopes of better things. We stood on the ground which we made without inhabitants, to grow up, not as a mere conquering caste, but as a new people of the land. We stood ready to receive a new faith and a higher civilization, . . . from the Roman and the Scot. . . . We may weep for the monks of Bangor, but the day of their massacre was none the less one of the great days in the growth of the English nation. . . . Deva was the last city which was taken only to be left desolate. When Æthelfrith slew the British monks, part of England was already Christian. . . . And before that same seventh century had passed, Northumberland had become . . . the special home of learning and holiness, the cradle of the history of our people, the cradle of the poetry of our tongue."

Of course our historian does not mean to say that the English exterminators of the Christian Britons acted righteously in their heathen blindness and barbarous ignorance of historic pragmatism; he only delights in the strength and irresistibleness of the English sword and will. Thus speaks the historian of England. Freeman, the antiquarian and student of towers, gates, and steeples, bows before the same "ruling" of history. He cannot compare Exeter, the English city, as an architectural conglomeration of historical interest, with any of the Continental towns of a class even one degree lower than Venice or Florence, Treves or Ravenna. England has few spots so rich at once in history and art as to rival "the last home of Carolingian kingship on the rock of Laon" or the walls of successive ages—"spreading each round another, like the circles of Ecbatana"—which envelop the minster and the castles of Le Mans; "the Bern of Theodoric by the Adige" or "the Bern of Berchthold by the Aar"; the council-house of Lübeck or Ghent, of Padua or Piacenza; the episcopal palace of Liége or the ducal palace of Dijon; the castled steep of Marburg or the hill of Marburg, with its many-towered church, walls, and gateways. "Yet we need not grieve," he patriotically tells his fellow-patriots, "that we are in this matter poorer than other nations. . . . Why is the history of Nürnberg greater than the history of Exeter? Simply because the history of England is greater than the history of Germany. Why have not our cities such mighty senate-houses, such gorgeous palaces, as the seats of republican freedom or of princely rule among the Italian and Teutonic cities? It is because England was one, while Italy and Germany and Gaul were still divided." England's nobles and prelates were not allowed to grow into sovereign princes, nor her cities and boroughs to grow into sovereign commonwealths. In observations like these the antiquarian Freeman—to whom we are unable to do full justice—again merges in the historian. The following extract from "The Shire and the Gá"—another highly interesting essay—may, while concluding our inadequate analysis of this rich collection, serve to remind our reader of the geographer Freeman:

"It is the central position of Northampton and Northamptonshire which caused so many important scenes of national history to be acted within or under the walls of the town. The central land of England, the land into which not

a brook flows from any other shire, but out of which rivers flow into three seas, swelling the waters of the Wash, the Thames, and our own Severn Sea, was, from its mere place in the map, likely to be the scene of great events. A national assembly must be held somewhere. In days when there is free choice in such matters, when all the business of three kingdoms is not done in a single town, in a corner of one of them, that national assembly is most naturally held in some place near the centre of the kingdom. So, when armies are in the field, they will meet in battle somewhere; and when two armies of Englishmen are engaged in civil war, they are more likely to meet for their decisive struggle in Northamptonshire than in Northumberland or in Cornwall. But mark that the exact place depends upon the accidents of warfare. If one army had been a little quicker or another a little slower, the battle of Edgehill might have been fought in Northamptonshire or Oxfordshire, and the battle of Naseby might have been fought in Leicestershire. . . ."

CHARLES AND MARY LAMB.

Mary Lamb. By Anne Gilchrist. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros.

The Essays of Elia. With Introduction and Notes by Alfred Ainger. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

MARY LAMB, like Dorothy Wordsworth, was a woman for whom those who have known and loved her would have sought a tenderer word of praise than "famous." Barring this objection to the classification, the present book about her is welcome, not so much as adding to our knowledge of the Lambs as awakening a fresh interest by the novel grouping of even well-known incidents around Mary as the centre of the tale. This has been so ably done that no one, however well acquainted with the brother and sister, will fail to be grateful for it, while to younger readers it offers a nearly unparalleled example of the power of the most simple, the most unpretending of womanly natures to attract others to itself. Oddly enough, the one piece of hitherto unpublished, or rather unrepublished, writing—and that, too, the only one ever intended for mature readers—which the author has been able to discover, is a letter, after the manner of the *Spectator*, to the editor of the *Lady's Magazine*, "On Needlework." It has an historical value now which the modest author never anticipated for it, since it sets forth most clearly the views and hopes of a thoughtful woman of seventy years ago (the date is 1811). More than this, it incidentally covers the whole ground of the discussion about woman's position, the aims of her education, her work, and her wages, as we are now familiar with it. Such was her clear-eyed apprehension of the principles involved, that it needs but slight adjustment to present circumstances to be just as true and just as useful as upon the day when it was written.

Charles Lamb stands by common consent at the head of modern English humorists. Like so many of his successors and descendants, he was originally a journalist, or rather what might now be called "an outside paragrapher." He furnished jokes to editors at so much a piece, and his best-remembered essays were written for the press. From this modest, humble, and unrecognized position he has gradually risen to that of a classic, whose fame places him almost above criticism. Analysis and appreciation are the utmost that Mr. Ainger has attempted. He has left unsolved what is evidently to his own mind a rather interesting literary question, how far Lamb's fame rests upon a permanent basis, and how far his "self-pleasing quaintness" of style is likely in the long run to impair it.

The affectations which he employed in aid of his humor are not at all in the taste of our day, and seem to have exposed him to criticism in his own. His wide reading in English literature and strong mimetic faculty enabled him to reproduce the trick of style or expression of any writer or period, from that of the Shaksperian drama down to his own time; and his taste for squeezing the last drop of expression out of language led him to introduce a fantastic variety of style which overlaid, and often even obliterated, his own. His own individual style, unadorned and unperverted, may be found in far greater purity in the "Popular Fallacies," now so seldom referred to, than in the essays; and these are in many respects as funny as anything Lamb ever wrote. They are all of some permanent value, for they neatly unmask or correct the error which lurks beneath the surface of a proverb; and they are all amusing, from the fact that they gravely meet and dispose of the assertion contained in the saying in such a way as to make it seem for the time the exact opposite of the truth. Lamb gives the reader the idea that the statement that "Home is home, be it never so homely," or that "Enough is as good as a feast," is a monstrous lie, an invention designed to humbug mankind into contentment with unsatisfied desires and a despicable and squalid lot.

Mr. Ainger, whose name is familiar to all lovers of Lamb from the excellent biography contained in the "English Men of Letters Series," and also through an edition of the 'Tales from Shakespeare,' insists that Lamb's imitations of the styles of Sir Thomas Browne, Fuller, and others were natural to *him*, and, therefore, not fairly to be set down as affectations. This is perfectly true, as Lamb himself amusingly says: "They had not been *his* [mine]," had they not been "villainously pranked in an affected array of antique words and phrases." He fell into the style of familiar authors as their styles seemed to suit his subject, as any writer endowed with more literary sensibility than force is apt to do. This, however, does not affect the fact that these antique words and phrases now strike the ear as artificial, and not always as heightening the effect of the humor. It is hard, however, to lay down any general rules as to the laws which govern expression in humor.

The great and perennial charm of the 'Essays' lies in the fact that the humor in them is suffused with poetry and fancy and pathos of an exquisitely delicate and refined sort. From the wild extravagance and rollicking gravity of the "Roast Pig" essay to the delicate and touching sentiment of "Dream Children," there is a range not covered by any other humorist of modern times. The gentleness that everybody finds in Lamb is a gentleness closely allied to sadness of that unselfish sort of which we know his life was full. There are in every generation a few men whose sensitiveness of mind and heart fits them perfectly for reproducing all the fleeting and delicate contrasts with which life is full, and they are necessarily humorists, if not poets. It is not surprising to make out pretty clearly from Mr. Ainger's pages that Lamb's reputation as a critic is on the wane. His dictum as to the impossibility of acting Shakspere's plays is now seen to be a paradox—something like one of his own popular fallacies; his theory that the comedy of the Restoration must be considered the comedy of a world to which the ordinary distinctions between vice and virtue did not apply, can hardly now be considered very fruitful or exact. His opinion of the merit of his contemporaries, Byron, for instance, and Scott, appears to have been determined by accident. We know more about literature nowadays than he did, and hardly any longer look up to him as a literary authority; indeed, to us he is almost rather a friend than a literary man. We know so much of his life, of his modesty, his self-sacrifice, his goodness, his devotion to his sister, his struggle with adversity—he has so taken the world at large into his confidence, that friendship or affection is as much the result of reading him as admiration or amusement.

Mr. Ainger's notes are admirable; they fill nearly fifty pages, and contain a mass of interesting information about Lamb and his writings and his friends. Bibliographical details are given as to the first publication of the 'Essays' in magazines here and there. Many obscurities and allusions are explained, and many of Lamb's mystifications are unveiled. Mr. Ainger has had the use of a key (in Lamb's handwriting) to the various persons designated in the first series of essays either by initials or asterisks; this valuable paper is owned by Mr. Alexander Ireland. On pages 402 and 415 Mr. Ainger gives us two notelets of Lamb's hitherto unprinted. It is greatly to be wished that he, or some other editor as competent and as conscientious, might be induced to give us a full edition of Lamb's correspondence. There are a mass of uncollected letters, some to John Howard Payne (printed in the *Century* not long ago), some in Mr. C. Kegan Paul's life of Godwin, and many others scattered right and left in the catalogues of booksellers and dealers in autographs.

Physiological Cruelty; or, Fact *v.* Fancy: An Enquiry into the Vivisection Question. By Philanthropos. John Wiley & Sons. 1883. Pp. 156, 8vo.

As stated in the Preface, the author's aim "has been to place in the hands both of professional and unprofessional readers a short compendium of the principal established facts and most obvious reasonings on the question of experiment upon living animals." In the body of the work are candidly and ably discussed the following matters: What is Pain?—What is Cruelty?—Our Rights over Animals—What is Vivisection?—The Relation of Experiment to Physiology—The Relation of Medicine to Experiment—Legislation, Past, Present, and Possible. Each chapter closes with a brief summary, and the appendix presents in condensed form and logical order detailed evidence respecting Popular Fallacies about Experiment, Its Necessity, and English Laws concerning it. The book was printed (and presumably, also, first published) in England. The author is evidently an Englishman, apparently a physician, not obviously himself an actual experimenter, and certainly predisposed in the direction of real humanity to all living creatures; but his pseudonym indicates his view that if any suffering is needed, it should be inflicted upon animals rather than upon men; and his statements and opinions deserve careful attention in this country likewise, where certain "right-hearted," but "wrong-headed," persons are seeking to interdict by law the experimental advancement and dissemination of physiological knowledge.

After clear definitions of the words *pain* and *cruelty*, and a passing comment upon the misleading etymology of the term *vivisection*, the author gives reasons for the belief that even the higher animals are both physically and psychically less capable of suffering than human beings, and then states that, whatever may have been or may be the case upon the Continent, in England really painful experiments have never been sufficiently numerous or severe to require legal interference. This was practically conceded by the Royal Commission of 1875. Unlike the sensational writers who denominate all neuro-muscular reactions "spasms of agony," our author is not only possessed of the essential facts, but displays equal command of his temper and of the English language. Indeed, many of his expressions have the rare flavor, imparted by brevity and accuracy commingled, which is

so characteristic of the writings of Professor Huxley, and we wish there were space for quoting some of them. We must be content, however, with commending the work to all who sincerely wish for enlightenment on the subject, as the most complete and convincing presentation that has yet appeared of the views of the "moderate experimenters," of those who hold that, although vivisection may be, and doubtless has been, abused, it should, nevertheless, be used. Perhaps the only serious omission is in regard to the desirability of employing experiments—painless, of course—in illustration of all, even the most elementary, physiological teaching, just as in the study of chemistry and physics; but perhaps it could not be expected that this should be strongly urged in a land where "any one may torture wild creatures in whatever fashion he likes, *provided it be not for scientific purposes*," and where the teachers and investigators of physiology are "sentenced to be under the surveillance of the police for life."

In the concluding chapter, after exonerating English physicians and physiologists from the charge of "brutalizing" themselves and others by experiments, the author points out that the real danger of "demoralization" comes from the fact that "indiscriminate attack leads to indiscriminate defence." In their common resistance to the demands of ignorant or sentimental agitators, the naturally humane are thrown into undesirably close association with those who may be cruel by birth or through lack of proper training. It is, perhaps, an equally unfortunate result of the efforts to prohibit painless as well as painful experimentation, that in both England and the United States many teachers and physicians have been deterred from coöperation with societies for the prevention of cruelty to animals, the general objects of which they nevertheless cordially approve, and could very efficiently aid in accomplishing.

Historical and Biographical Sketches. By Samuel W. Pennypacker. Philadelphia: Robert A. Tripple. 1883. 8vo, pp. 416.

RATHER more than half of Mr. Pennypacker's volume is made up of papers, seven in number, upon the Mennonites of Pennsylvania. They are the result of many years' study and accumulation of materials with a view to writing a history of this body. The plan has been unfortunately frustrated, or, as we may hope, only delayed: it is very much to be desired that the history of so interesting and influential a community should be written by so competent a person. Most of these papers have already appeared in periodicals, that upon David Rittenhouse, the most distinguished member of the body, having appeared in *Harper's Monthly*. The name and achievements of Rittenhouse are generally familiar; the reader of this volume will be glad to make the acquaintance of other persons of Mennonite descent, less known, but well worthy to be known. The paper, for instance, entitled "Christopher Dock," describes the life and methods of a "pious schoolmaster," a short treatise by whom, upon "School Management," is translated and given in full (p. 98). Mr. Pennypacker takes pleasure in pointing out a general similarity in character and object in the Mennonite emigration to that of the New England Puritans, and it is a pardonable exaggeration if he is disposed to place his countrymen higher than they deserve, in proportion as they have been overlooked by historians. Certainly they merit much fuller recognition than they have received. *Carent vate sacro:* the poets and historians of America belong to other States and nationalities, and the "Pennsylvania Dutch" have been contemptuously overlooked. Whittier alone, in verses part of which are quoted in this volume, has sung of these German pilgrims—perhaps from a special sense of spiritual nearness; for the Quakers, like the Mennonites, appear to have sprung from the Anabaptist movement of the sixteenth century—not, however, that which had its seat at Münster. One of the most interesting facts brought out in this volume is the protest against African slavery, April 18, 1688—"the first public protest ever made upon this continent against the holding of slaves" (p. 42), here given in full. It is shown also (p. 10) that the first paper-mill in the colonies was that of Willem Rittinghuysen on a branch of Wissahickon Creek; and that the Bible was printed at Germantown by Christopher Saur thirty-nine years before any Bible in English. In these papers frequent credit is given to the valuable labors of Dr. Oswald Seidensticker.

The last half of the volume is taken up for the most part with short historical papers, several of them of permanent value. Nearly 100 pages are occupied with some personal reminiscences of the late war, entitled "Six Weeks in Uniform," the time being that of the battle of Gettysburg. There are also some occasional addresses, of which the short ones upon President Garfield and Henry Armitt Brown are marred by exaggeration of statement and of rhetoric.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, G. G. Universal Phonography; or, Shorthand by the Allen Method. C. T. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Bardeen, C. W. Verbal Pitfalls: a Manual of 1,500 Words Commonly Misused. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 75 cents.
Bishop, C. E. Pictures from English History. By the Great Historical Artists. Phillips & Hunt. $1 25.
Bowen, Dr. H. The Overshadowing Power of God: a Synopsis of a New Philosophy concerning the Nature of the Soul, etc. Cold Spring, N. Y.: New Life Publishing Co.
Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 72-76. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Condit, C. L. Painting and Painters' Materials. *Railroad Gazette.*
Delitzsch, Rev. F. Jewish Artisan Life. Funk & Wagnalls. 15 cents.
Denison, Mary A. His Triumph. C. T. Dillingham. $1.
Dixon, R. B. Fore and Aft: a Story of Actual Sea Life. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 25.
Dodge, T. A. A Bird's-eye View of Our Civil War. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Freeman, A. C. Index to the American Decisions. Vols. 81–85. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Gardiner, C. C. Papers and Biography of Lion Gardiner, 1599-1663. St. Louis.
Gréville, H. Dosia. [Romans Choisis, No. 1.] William R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Harlan, Dr. C. The Fate of Marcel: a Tale. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Hopkins, Louise Parsons. Handbook of the Earth: Natural Methods in Geography. C. T. Dillingham. 50 cents.
James, H. Daisy Miller: a Comedy, in three acts. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Jarves, Mrs. Mary D. The Soul-Winner: a Sketch of the Life and Labors of Edmund J. Yard. Phillips & Hunt. 80 cents.
Knapp, W. I. Modern Spanish Readings, embracing Text, Notes, and an Etymological Vocabulary. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1 65.
Mercer, Rev. L. P. The Bible: Its True Character and Spiritual Meaning. [New Church Series.] Philadelphia: E. Claxton & Co.
Montgomery, Rev. I. Heart Chords. Cassell & Co.
Murray, D. C. By the Gate of the Sea. Harper & Bros. 15 cents.
Payn, J. Thicker than Water. Harper & Bros. 20 cts.
Platt, Rev. W. H. God out and Man in; or, Replies to Robert G. Ingersoll. Thomas Whittaker. $1 25.
Ponce de Leon, N. Diccionario Tecnológico Inglés-español y español-inglés. Part 3, Bond-Carriage. New York: N. Ponce de Leon.
Power, Rev. F. B. My Soul. Cassell & Co.
Prayer and Promise for Days of Holy Communion. A. D. F. Randolph. 35 cents.
Reade, A. A. How to Write English. J. B. Lippincott & Co. 60 cents.
Spang, H. W. A Practical Treatise on Lightning Protection. New ed. D. Van Nostrand.
Thompson, Dr. W. G. Training Schools for Nurses. With Notes on Twenty-two Schools. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
War-Songs for Anniversaries and Gatherings of Soldiers. Boston: O. Ditson & Co. 50 cents.
Wythe, Dr. J. H. Easy Lessons in Vegetable Biology; or, Outlines of Plant Life. Phillips & Hunt. 40 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 13, 1883.

The Week.

THE chief domestic event of consequence during the week has been the formal completion of the Northern Pacific Railroad, with appropriate ceremonies. The mere achievement of laying a continuous rail across the continent has long since been taken out of the realm of marvels, and the country can never feel again the thrill which the joining of the Central and Union Pacific lines gave it. On the other hand, fifty years of glowing representations of the natural capacity of the vast area now first fairly made available for settlement, have not enabled the popular mind to realize the full significance of the opening of the third great highway to the Pacific. The public rejoicings, fêtes, and monster processions at St. Paul and Minneapolis, which so interested and perhaps surprised the foreign guests of the occasion, were not an extravagant effervescence. No one can predict the rate of growth of the region now inviting the discontented of all the earth. Forty years ago a single overland caravan from Missouri doubled the population of Oregon on its arrival out. For the past two or three years the steamers plying between San Francisco and Portland have carried northward an average human freight comparable to that brought to the Atlantic shores from Europe. It is perhaps of good omen for the future of the Northwest that these emigrants have been Americans mostly—that is, the best class of pioneers the world has yet seen. The European loses nothing by coming later.

The distrustful attitude which capital has maintained for so many months has apparently relaxed a little during the past ten days. There has been a manifest disposition to invest in railroad stocks and bonds, and the prices of both have consequently been advancing pretty generally for nearly two weeks. It is believed that the initiative of the upward movement of prices was designedly given by experienced operators. But it is also nearly certain that they were first convinced that investors and all others had come to the conclusion that prices of stocks were "low," and therefore safe to buy. The upward movement was stopped by the reports of serious damage by frosts to the corn crop. The expected imports of specie seem about to begin. It is stated that something like 4,000,000 francs is to be shipped from Paris to New York before the close of this week.

The auction sale of blankets of various sorts and grades on the 5th instant has made it more plain than before that there is a marked overproduction of textile goods in the country, and that the tariff, if ever valuable to that branch of industry, has ceased to be so. When the former sales of dry goods were made at ruinously low rates, it was alleged as a reason for the unsatisfactory prices that the goods were unseasonable, and must needs be got rid of at a sacrifice. This cannot be said of blankets sold on the approach of winter. Now, if ever, ought blankets to bring high prices. Yet the concurrent testimony is that they all went at rates from 15 to 26 per cent. below the previously ruling quotations, and that the sales did not realize actual cost to the manufacturers. Yet blankets are among the most highly protected articles in the whole tariff list—that is, if anything can be said to be protected which is first smitten with heavy duties on the raw materials, and then sheltered behind a still heavier duty on the finished product. Manifestly this system has not answered the purpose intended by its makers. There is not the smallest probability that the population and consuming capacity of this country will hereafter outrun the producing capacity of the blanket mills. The evil which exists to-day is not sporadic and temporary. It is chronic, and the only remedy is to be found in untaxed raw materials and access to foreign markets.

These observations, if not yet applicable to the steel-rail industry, are likely to become so. Rails fell to $39 per ton at the beginning of the year, and have since declined slowly and persistently to about $35. We are informed that a contract was made last week by an important railway company below $35. Yet the manufacturers are able to make some profit even at these low rates, the prices of ore and of pig having fallen in a corresponding ratio. The quotation for rails at the Welsh mills, as reported in the London *Economist* of August 25, was £5 per ton, although rails of second class at interior points could be had for £4 10s. At these figures it would be scarcely possible for British manufacturers to sell rails in the United States, even if the duty were wholly removed. Indeed, we think that our manufacturers, if examined separate and apart, and out of the hearing of Judge Kelley, would acknowledge their ability to hold their own against any competitor in the world. But as there is nothing so alarming in protectionist circles as the suspicion that any tub can stand on its own bottom, we must not look for such revelations at present. We are disposed, however, to congratulate the steel-rail makers on the progress they have achieved on the down-hill road of prices, if they have reached the point where British competition is not to be feared under any kind of tariff.

For the purpose of estimating the amount of damage sustained by the corn crop by the frosts of last week, a reference to the census tables of 1880 will prove useful. In that year the total crop reached 1,754,591,676 bushels. Of this aggregate the six States within the "corn belt" proper yielded more than one-half—viz.:

Ohio	111,877,124	Missouri	202,414,413
Indiana	115,482,300	Iowa	105,729,325
Illinois	325,792,481	Nebraska	65,450,135
Total			926,745,778

Nine Southern States produced nearly one-fifth of the total crop, viz.:

Alabama	25,451,278	N Carolina	28,019,839
Arkansas	24,156,417	Tennessee	62,764,429
Georgia	23,302,018	Texas	29,068,172
Kentucky	72,852,263	Virginia	29,119,761
Mississippi	21,340,800		
Total			315,971,977

The sources of growth of 1,243,717,755 bushels, or about seven-tenths of the whole, are seen to be within regions only lightly touched by the recent frosts. Although the northern portions of Indiana, Illinois, and Iowa were somewhat affected, it is not probable that the damage inflicted in those localities was equal to the increase which has taken place in Kansas and Nebraska since the census year. The general average of mischief may therefore be considered as confined to the States of New York, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, which yielded in 1880 only 6 per cent. of the whole crop, viz.:

New York	25,690,156	Wisconsin	34,230,579
Michigan	32,461,452	Minnesota	14,831,741
Total			107,213,928

The possible damage from frost would seem to be only 6 per cent. of the total, even if the crop in the last-named States were a complete failure. But it is known to be only damaged in those States, not destroyed. Unless the injury within the "corn belt" proper is greater than has been reported, there would seem to be little cause for apprehension of a corn famine this year.

The decision of the United States Circuit Court that the tax-receivable coupons of Virginia are, notwithstanding the recent legislation of that State, still legal tenders for taxes, is an important victory for the bondholders. The last decision of the Supreme Court left them in an awkward predicament, for the judges, although upholding the view that the coupons were receivable for taxes, held at the same time that the "coupon-killer" legislation was valid to the extent that it superseded the old remedy which the bondholder had previously enjoyed, of mandamus. Up to the time of the "coupon-killer" bills it had always been possible for the bondholder, if the State refused to receive his coupons for taxes, to compel the officials to take them by means of this summary process. The Virginians, to meet this difficulty, resorted to one of the most elaborate and ingenious pieces of legislation ever devised even in a Southern State as a means of getting rid of a pecuniary obligation. First, as a basis for their work, they invented in cold blood the fiction that some of the bonds were fraudulent or spurious, and that it was impossible to ascertain which these were without a judicial inquiry; then they proceeded to require every bondholder who wished to pay his taxes in coupons to prove in court that his bond was not spurious before he could be allowed to do so—a process not only expensive, but involving a delay of years. When this legislation came before the Supreme Court the judges decided that the remedy by mandamus was gone, and that the bondholder had instead the remedy provided by the new law, which, as we have seen, was actually designed by its framers to destroy the

value of the coupons. The legal grounds as signed for the decision were various, but it was universally regarded as a triumph for the repudiators, and so delighted were the Virginians that they fired off many guns when they got the news.

The Virginia Funder Democrats have always complained that they have been treated with great unfairness by the independent press at the North, because it refused to believe that they were much "sounder" on the debt question than their adversaries. They have now, since Judge Bond's coupon decision, an opportunity of giving some evidence of their sincerity, and their action in regard to the decision will be watched with interest. Judge Bond has enjoined the tax-collectors from levying for taxes whenever a tender of coupons in payment has been made, while the Riddleberger-Mahone legislation requires the collectors to levy. Until Judge Bond's decision has been passed upon by the Supreme Court, there will be some doubt as to the validity of his injunction, but not much to those who are familiar with the previous decisions of the Court on the subject. The Funders will, therefore, unless all signs fail, have a chance of "rallying" the debt-paying Virginians, if there is any rally left in them, with the Federal judiciary behind them. The State cannot collect its revenue without taking the coupons, and cannot take its coupons without going in the face of the Riddleberger-Mahone "coupon-killer" statutes. The Funders, it would seem, might force Mahone and his followers to choose between submitting to a repeal of the most disgraceful part of his anti-debt legislation and a defiance of the power of the Federal courts, which he would hardly like to attempt.

A notable demonstration has been made by the Independents of Massachusetts. About two hundred of them assembled in Boston on Saturday, and issued an address which cannot fail to have an important effect upon the approaching campaign in the State. While nearly all the participants in the gathering were Republicans, there were some Democrats present, including John Quincy Adams, and cordial letters of sympathy were received from Leverett Saltonstall and Frank W. Bird. The spirit of the meeting is admirably shown in the address, which declares the Independents ready, regardless of personal preferences, to assist in securing the best nominations, while they will refuse to support merely expedient candidates, even to escape the impending disgrace of Butler's reëlection. The attitude of independent voters everywhere is well defined in this passage: "They stand ready to assist any party with honest and right principles, but they are equally ready to withhold their votes from any party that weakens in its efforts to obtain the reforms which the people demand." It is thought in Massachusetts that the principal effect of the address will be to make certain the nomination of the Hon. Henry L. Pierce for Governor. If this should turn out to be the case, the chances are that Governor Butler would greatly simplify the situation by deciding that, upon the whole, he did not care to run again.

Governor McDaniel, of Georgia, in making appointments to fill vacancies, seems to be very little affected by "petitions." Heretofore, applications for offices have been made to the governors of Georgia by means of papers filled with the recommendations of persons of influence. That these endorsements for the most part have no significance is well known; in fact, the same names often appear on the petitions of rival candidates for the same office. There is reason to think that this practice may, during the present administration at least, fall into utter disuse. When the physician of the Georgia Convict Camp (for Georgia has no penitentiary) died the other day, the Governor immediately appointed in his stead Doctor Westmoreland, very much to that gentleman's astonishment, and to the great indignation of the horde who expected to bring their "influence" to bear upon the Governor. Doctor Westmoreland is one of the most distinguished physicians of the South, and is, besides, entitled to the credit of having caused to be created the very office to which he is now appointed. Another opportunity for executive independence is afforded by the bill to erect a new capitol which now awaits the approval of Governor McDaniel, as it provides for the appointment by him of five commissioners to take complete charge of the matter. Public opinion seems to be confident that men of sterling integrity will be appointed, whether or not they are among those who are seeking the appointment "with most petitionary vehemence."

The acquittal of Frank James will not surprise anybody who has paid much attention to the career of the distinguished family to which he belongs. Like his brother Jesse, he commanded the admiration and esteem of the community, though of course the nature of his occupation bred hostility in some quarters, which sufficiently accounts for the prosecution of Frank. The jury is said to have been composed exclusively of Democrats—a very good way to secure an acquittal, as Frank had been in the war on the Southern side, and there seems to be a belief among Missouri Democrats that any indictment of a fellow-Democrat is presumably a Republican trick to revive the issues of the war. The speeches of counsel, too, show that Frank represented to the jury the cause of Labor against Capital, the prosecuting attorney finding it necessary to argue in his closing speech that it was not "wounded capital that calls upon you to redress its wrongs." Any one will see that the identification of Frank's cause with that of labor was natural enough when he reflects that Frank's life hitherto has been one long war against banks and railroads. We have no doubt that, if the truth were known, it would be found that the signers of the address thanking the prosecuting attorney for his services would be found to be mainly just such men as Frank used to kill and rob—owners of property and employers of labor. Their motives, however, are easily seen through.

The examination of Mr. Jay Gould by the Committee on Education and Labor touching his biography, and his answers to the specific questions propounded to him, throw an air of opéra-bouffe over the whole investigation. Ninety-nine out of every hundred readers of this remarkable testimony will be concerned not with any question of wages or strikes, of education or labor, but solely with the career of Gould as a counter-jumper, a land surveyor, a tanner, a railroader, a telegrapher, and a stock-jobber — things interesting, perhaps, as personal memoirs, and having a relation to the bad side of human nature, but mainly irrelevant to the subject-matter, and calculated to provoke laughter at the expense of the Committee rather than of the witness. Regarded as a fencing match between Gould and the Committee, the advantage was on the side of the former. If it was needful to have Gould's biography spread upon the records of Congress, it was desirable to have the whole of it; yet he bounded like a chamois over the whole of his Erie Railway transactions, including the Black Friday affair, and the Committee never refreshed his memory upon those points. He told them that his large investments in telegraph property were made in order to get a situation in the Western Union Company for a very dear friend of his. He said that he had no objection to the Government regulating the charges of all corporations provided it would also guarantee them good dividends. He thought there was no more "water" in Western Union than in any other company he was connected with! On cross-examination he declined to mention any other. He considered real estate in New York mostly "water" because lots on Broadway had been bought originally for a handful of colored beads or a few pounds of tobacco. He did not believe that any rival telegraph company could do much damage to the Western Union, because he had tried the game himself, and had failed. He was willing to sell out to the Government, or to hold on to his property—the only thing he objected to was the Government's setting up a rival telegraph with the proceeds of public taxes. This he considered confiscation. Any rivalry or competition based upon fair play he was ready to take his chances in. To the searching inquiry addressed to him by the Committee: "Do you think that the laborer gets his fair share of the vast accumulating wealth of the country?" he gave the profound answer: "I do." He added that it is impossible to adopt any general rule to prevent poverty or ameliorate the woes of the poor, but the best advice he could give them was that given by a late well-known philanthropist — viz., "Go West." He recommended with earnestness that something be done "to educate the masses and to elevate their moral standard." He did not say that he had contributed his own example to the realization of this boon, but the public will easily supply the omission.

Mr. George Blair, who knows what monopoly is through being a manufacturer of packing-boxes, but at the same time represents the cause of labor in being the Chairman of the State Committee of the National Labor party,

gave some very interesting evidence before the Senate Committee on Monday. Experience shows, he says, that "a person can go through life very comfortably on $25,000 a year." From this simple premise, which nobody but a madman would deny, he derives the following important conclusions: First, that Government bonds should be taxed; second, that the remedy for the present low price for making packing-boxes is a law making a uniform reduction of the hours of labor; third, that there should be a National Bureau of Industry to regulate the hours of labor, and that this bureau should determine how many persons should be employed in any particular trade, placing the "surplus" at other occupations when any one trade becomes overcrowded. This shows that the severest problems presented by the labor question can be readily solved when approached by an unbiassed reasoner. It is hardly necessary to add that the Bureau ought also to prescribe what occupations the citizen shall engage in, and what he shall be prevented from taking up. This work is, to be sure, pretty effectively done through the tariff by Congress, but then a Bureau might do it better.

An interesting letter in the *Evening Post* on the dulness of the Newport season attributes this curious fact in part to the hostility between different "sets," and strongly hints that this hostility itself grows out of the suspicion and distrust with which some of the newly rich are regarded there by the permanently but fastidiously poor. This is a risk which society in its present phase of development will have to face and meet with courage and decision. At first it may seem as if it were an old difficulty, but it has assumed proportions which are wholly new and may fairly be called appalling. Until recently the newly rich were "admitted" by society after a more or less careful pass-examination of their credentials, a private comparison of notes by the "leaders" as to their appearance, their manner of dressing, talking, in fact the general suitableness of their behavior for the standards recognized as fitting in social life. Consequently, the newly rich always looked upon their admission as a favor, and used their best endeavors to conform their lives to those of the people who had let them in. The position of wealth, however, as compared with birth, breeding, education, refinement, etc., has so much improved of late years that it is no longer disposed to ask any favors. It feels that it now constitutes the basis of social life, and that instead of asking for admission it ought to impose terms and set standards of its own. It is now engaged in a struggle to establish this right, which, naturally enough, vexes and irritates the conservatives, who try to keep up the old relations between things. In the end, of course, the conservatives must go to the wall; but meantime the conflict must tend now and then to eclipse the gayety of fashion.

The *Herald* published on Friday a page and a half of information about Peru and Chili, the most important part of which consists of an interview with Admiral Lynch, in command of the Chilian army of occupation. What he says confirms the view we have frequently expressed in these columns as to the Iglesias movement—that it affords the only reasonable chance which Peru now has of extricating herself from her difficulties, Iglesias having the active support of Chili. He is, of course, a revolutionist; but any government which succeeds in establishing itself in Peru now must be revolutionary. To judge from his recent pronunciamiento, he sees—what too few Peruvian leaders see—that the country now most needs, not eloquence or a readiness to die in defence of the soil, but order and quiet, the regular administration of justice, the disbanding of the "troops" that are now robbing and murdering in the interior. Admiral Lynch declares that the Iglesias treaty will be carried out, or if that fails that Chili will "decree" peace. The treaty, it will be remembered, provides that Chili shall take the best part of Peru, the nitrate and guano territory, and by "decreeing" peace the Admiral undoubtedly means that he will simply annex this portion, and withdraw his troops from the rest of the country, leaving the Peruvians to settle their dispute as to their rival "governments" as best they can.

Affairs in Croatia are apparently taking a more peaceful turn, owing to a rapid display of energy on the part of the Hungarian and Imperial authorities. The Hungarian escutcheon, with the bilingual inscriptions, was replaced in Agram on Thursday by order of Baron Ramberg, the successor of Ban Pejacsevich, amid imposing ceremonies and a grand flourish of military trumpets. A proclamation exhorting the people to remain quiet was issued, but had no effect, for the next evening the windows of the Government offices were smashed by the mob, who had to be dispersed at the point of the bayonet. On Saturday, Jewish houses became the objects of popular assault, the more readily because of the leniency with which similar outrages had been dealt with across the Hungarian border. But the Hungarian Government had become tired of anti-Jewish riots, and earnestly concerned about all kinds of riot and agitation in Croatia. The infantry fired upon the mob, and the hussars cleared the streets. Similar collisions, not entirely bloodless, took place in the rural districts, military reinforcements arriving from Styria and other parts. A new attempt by the Agram mob on Sunday was easily quelled. A number of citizens offered their services to preserve order, and both the city and country have resumed a more quiet appearance. It is, perhaps, owing to this unexpected abatement of the Slavic fever in Croatia that the London *Telegraph*, *Standard*, and *Post*, eager for a new outbreak in the east of Europe, have at once turned their eyes toward Bulgaria, and there discovered, in the hands of Russian conspirators—abettors of Prince Alexander—the lighted match which is to set the whole Slavic world on fire. Already "a large number of Russians, evidently military officers, are crossing the frontier on the way to Bulgaria," says a Cracow telegram.

The hostile feeling excited between the masses of the Italian and French peoples by the French occupation of Tunis two years ago, and which at the time led to bloody collisions between Italian and French laborers in various cities of France, seems undiminished. It enabled Prince Bismarck to draw King Humbert into the Austro-German alliance in spite of Romance race sympathies, Garibaldiism, and Irredentism. A new manifestation of it has been caused by the recent earthquake in Ischia. On the one hand, Emperor William—a monarch not particularly remarkable for charitable munificence—has contributed out of his private purse 50,000 marks to the fund started by the Crown Prince and Crown Princess of Germany in aid of the surviving islanders. The gift was announced to the public on the morning of the Emperor of Austria's birthday, during the celebration by the German Court, and in the evening the official journal contained the hearty thanks which the King of Italy—"der dritte im Bunde"—had transmitted through his embassy in his own and his Government's name, to the German Imperial family and "to all the German nation." On the other hand, collections to the same end had also been undertaken in France; but Rochefort, trusting to French resentment against the Italian alliance with Germany, ventured to accuse King Humbert, in the *Intransigeant*, of pocketing the sums collected in France, while urging Germany to annihilate the Republic. Challenged to a duel by an Italian officer, Rochefort refused to fight; but a committee of the survivors of the earthquake at Naples have resolved not to accept any more charitable gifts from abroad in view of such atrocious insults to the Italian nation.

The news of China's warlike operations last week has not been confirmed, and little confidence can be placed in the rumors of negotiations which have meantime been superabundant. What is hardly open to doubt is that the Governments of France and China are equally anxious to secure a peaceful solution of the difficulty between them by some arrangement compatible with national honor. But national honor in Pekin demands the preservation of Chinese suzerainty over Anam, and national honor in Paris demands a denial of that suzerainty. The *République Française* speaks, perhaps, the present thought of the French Cabinet when it asserts "that France is willing to recognize an honorary suzerainty of China in Anam, but cannot admit of the existence in Tonquin of a French protectorate and Chinese jurisdiction; that the rectification of the frontier will be necessary . . . for the purposes of trade; and that the proposition of a neutral zone is inadmissible." In the meantime France strenuously prepares for war, sending or ordering heavy reinforcements to the East; and our Government has just received official information of the blockade by the French navy of the Gulf of Tonquin and of the ports of Anam against vessels carrying cargoes of war material. In the Treaty ports, the natural feeling of anxiety on the part of the foreign settlements has just been aggravated by the mob in Canton, accidental as this appears to have been, and without immediate political significance.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, September 5, to TUESDAY, September 11, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE formal completion of the Northern Pacific Railroad, by the driving of the last spike, took place fifty miles from Helena, Montana Territory, last Saturday afternoon, in the presence of many people, including the foreign guests. President Villard made an address, sketching the history of the work, and was followed by Mr. William M. Evarts. The latter, in his oration, defended the policy of the Government in giving public lands to assist in building the transcontinental railroad lines. Addresses were also made by several of the foreign guests and by the Governors of a number of the Northwestern States and Territories.

The corner-stone of the new Capitol at Bismarck, D. T., was laid last Thursday. Remarks were made by Governor Ordway, Mr. Villard, General Grant, ex-Secretaries Evarts and Schurz, Secretary Teller, and others.

President Arthur returned to Washington last Friday.

The Secretary of the Interior has received from ex-Senator Ramsey, of the Utah Commission, a communication in which he says: "The law known as the 'Edmunds Act,' so far as we have been responsible for its execution, has been carefully but rigidly enforced this year, as it was last. No person living in polygamy has been permitted to vote at any election or to be voted for for any office; and while only three convictions in prosecutions against polygamy under the act of 1862 have been secured, nearly or quite 15,000 persons have been disfranchised on account of polygamic practices through the operations of the law as administered by this Commission."

The report of the committee that has investigated the office of Supervising Architect Hill is in the hands of Secretary Folger. It is understood that it charges that the Architect's office has been controlled by official favoritism, and conducted in the interest of rings; that the system which has been adopted has practically destroyed the possibility of competition in many important matters; that favored contractors have obtained all the contracts for heating apparatus, for safes, and for elevators, and that the work in many instances has been imperfect and contrary to the specifications. The committee, however, do not charge any personal corruption on Mr. Hill.

Civil-Service Commissioner Thoman, who has just returned from California, says that he was earnestly supported in his efforts to establish the reformed system by the local officials there, and that civil-service reform is now an accomplished fact.

The banks in several cities have refused to accept the new postal notes, and it is thought that their form will have to be modified to render them less liable to errors.

Since the new changes in the tariff and internal-revenue laws large quantities of matches have been imported into this country from Sweden, one house in this city having imported already 125,000 gross. The price of American matches has been reduced from $2.60 to fifty cents a gross.

The United States Consul at Naples, in a report to the State Department, says that because of our new tariff on art works the Italian Government will probably impose an export duty of 30 per cent. on all American art works by American artists in Italy. The effect of this, the Consul says, will doubtless be to drive all American artists out of the country.

There were reports early this week of serious damage to the Western corn crop by the frost, but later estimates show that the first reports were exaggerated. In Niagara County, N. Y., the frost was very severe, killing the corn, as well as buckwheat and late vegetables. The loss to farmers there is estimated at from $100,000 to $200,000.

The National Cotton Exchange of America makes the following report of the cotton crop for the years ending August 31, 1882, and 1883: Net port receipts, 1882, 4,688,037 bales; 1883, 6,009,612 bales.

The total number of immigrants landed at this port for the eight months ending August 31 was 284,966. This is a decrease of 58,572 from the number landed during the corresponding period last year.

Governor Cleveland, of New York, said last week, speaking of his administration: "Perhaps some people have exaggerated my 'independence,' as you call it. I haven't exiled myself from acquaintance with politicians, or shut myself up from them. No man in my place could do so successfully. An Executive is necessarily much indebted to public or semi-public men from the various localities of the State for information and advice. Of course, I couldn't follow everybody's advice. I had to choose, and did the best I could. This is a big State, and every part of it has its local preferences."

Governor Cleveland has formally approved the report of the New York Civil Service Commission, classifying the positions under the State Government.

In the selection of delegates to the New York Republican State Convention thus far there has been entire harmony and no disposition to make contests in any county between Stalwarts and Anti-Stalwarts. In this city the district associations have so amended their constitutions that any person who voted the Republican national ticket in 1880 may participate in the primary meetings this month.

A conference of Independents in Massachusetts was held in Boston last Saturday, Prof. Francis A. Walker, Representative-elect Lyman, Prof. F. J. Child, of Harvard, Samuel Bowles, and John Quincy Adams, jr., being among those present. An address to the people was adopted setting forth the necessity of defeating the principles represented by Butler, and warning existing parties that the formation of a third party can only be averted by a consistent advocacy of civil-service reform, tax reform, economy in State affairs, and wisdom in legislation.

The New York Greenback State Convention has nominated the following ticket: For Secretary of State, Thomas K. Beecher, of Chemung County; for Comptroller, S. L. Halsey, of Otsego County; for Attorney-General, Lewis F. Post, of New York; for State Treasurer, Julian Winne, of Albany County; for State Engineer, Edwin A. Stillman, of Ontario County.

Judge Hoadly's physician says that the reports that he will retire from the contest for Governor in Ohio are false. The anti-McLean Democrats of Hamilton County have nominated a full independent local ticket. In Cleveland a local ticket in the interest of Bookwalter for United States Senator has been nominated, and there is much bitter feeling.

The colored citizens are excited over a call that has been issued for a convention of colored men to be held soon in Louisville, Ky. Fred Douglass is a defender of it, while other colored leaders, like Professor Langston, think it injudicious because it seems like offering support to the Democrats in exchange for offices.

Prof. Willard Fiske, ex-Librarian of Cornell University, has begun an action to annul the will of his wife, which leaves $1,500,000 to that college and $300,000 to him. The principal points raised by him are that the charter of Cornell University prohibits it from holding property exceeding $3,000,000 in value, and that that limit has been reached; and also that the statutes of this State forbid any person having a husband, wife, child, or parent to bequeath to a benevolent, charitable, literary, scientific, religious, or missionary corporation more than one-half of his or her estate after the payment of debts. The reply sets forth an ante-nuptial agreement between the Professor and his wife in which he agreed that she should dispose of her property after the marriage just as if she had remained single.

Chief Justice Coleridge was honored with a dinner in Boston last Saturday evening. He made there his first speech in this country, warmly praising America, and said, speaking of the United States and England: "We are bound together, if I may reverently say so, by God himself in golden chains of mutual affection and mutual respect; and two nations so joined together, I am firmly convinced, man will never put asunder."

Reports to the National Board of Health show that Dayton, O., has the lowest death-rate of any city in this country.

The steamship *William Crane*, for Baltimore from Savannah, narrowly escaped burning on Tuesday, September 4, near Frying-Pan Shoals. Three hundred bales of cotton and a number of barrels of turpentine were thrown overboard, and after fourteen hours hard work the fire was extinguished. The vessel was badly damaged, and the loss to the cargo exceeds $25,000.

The boiler of the Hudson River steamboat *Riverdale*, which exploded near this city, has been raised. It was found that the bottom part of the shell was badly corroded, and in the place where it had burst it was only one-sixteenth of an inch thick. The other boiler of the same boat was in no better condition.

Frank James, the Missouri outlaw, was acquitted last Thursday. The verdict was received with applause. He says he now wants to live a quiet, honest life, but he is held on other indictments.

The Central Labor Union had a parade in this city on September 5, in which about 8,000 men participated. Some of the banners were inscribed as follows: "Jay Gould Must Go"; "We Must Crush Monopolies Lest They Crush Us"; "Every Man Must Have a Breech-loader and Know How to Use It"; "The Wage System Makes Us Slaves"; "Down with Oppressive Capital"; "Prepare for the Coming Revolution"; "Workers in the Tenements, Idlers in the Brown-stone Fronts."

First-Lieutenant John M. Porter, of the Third Cavalry, stationed at Fort Thomas, Arizona, is short in his army accounts, and has fled. He is a West Point graduate.

Messrs. Moody, McGranahan, and Whittle, the evangelists, will leave this country on October 2 for Ireland, where they intend carrying on an active missionary campaign in the south of the island.

Andrew Varick Stout, long prominent in this city as a bank president and as a wealthy citizen of large benevolence, died on September 5, aged seventy-one years. He began life as a teacher in the public schools. A few years ago he made a gift of $50,000 to the Drew Theological Seminary, and one of equal amount to the Wesleyan University at Middletown, N. Y.

FOREIGN.

The question of peace or war between France and China is still undecided, and the reports about the negotiations are conflicting. Li Hung Chang is said to be in favor of a peaceable solution of the difficulty, while the intriguers who surround the court are urgent for war. According to one report, which is said not to be wholly accurate, the following are the principal points of an agreement proposed by the Marquis Tseng, the Chinese Ambassador, to the French Minister: The French protectorate to be hereafter confined to the Delta and the Red River; China to open the navigation of the Red River up to Lao-Kay, which shall be the only point open to trade with Yun-Nan; the frontier at all other points to be closed by the establishment of a neutral zone, which shall be garrisoned by the Anamites;

China to undertake to prevent further incursions of the Black Flags; the suzerainty of China over Anam to be recognized by a mere act of homage, after which China will recognize the treaty of Hué; the French force of occupation to be limited to 4,000 men. It is further reported that China demands that her suzerainty of Anam shall be sustained exactly as it hitherto existed, and any idea of a merely honorary suzerainty will not be entertained by the Chinese Government. The Paris *République Française* says that France will insist upon maintaining a protectorate over Anam, which will in no way prejudice Chinese interests; that France is willing to recognize an honorary suzerainty of China in Anam, but cannot admit of the coexistence in Tonquin of a French protectorate and Chinese jurisdiction; that the ratification of the frontier will be necessary, with one point for the purposes of trade, and that the proposition for a neutral zone is inadmissible.

China objects to the sending of French reinforcements to Tonquin while the negotiations are pending, and the French press insists that they must be sent. A Hong Kong despatch says the people of China seem to have little fear of the result of a war with France, and believe that with their new armaments and the improved discipline of their forces, the nation is far better able to cope with a foreign enemy now than it was in the war of 1860. The London *Times* points out that in the event of war the Americans, Germans, Japanese, and even the Chinese themselves, would secure more of the foreign and coasting trade in the east than the French. A Chinese mob at Canton has burned the houses of several European merchants, and also their wharves, causing great consternation among the foreign residents, most of whom sought refuge on board vessels in the river. No violence was offered to persons, and a force of Chinese troops was called out, which quickly dispersed the rioters. On the receipt of the intelligence at Hong Kong several gunboats were immediately sent to Canton to afford protection to the foreign merchants. The British Admiral in command in Chinese waters is left to act as he thinks best under the circumstances. It is said that the riot was caused by a number of Portuguese sailors killing a Chinaman, and that the French question was not involved in it.

Baron von Ramberg, the military commander, entered last week upon the discharge of his duties as successor to the Ban of Croatia. He issued a proclamation declaring his task to be the re-establishment of peace and the restoration of the official notices on state buildings, in order to show that street riots cannot settle political questions. Accordingly on Friday the Hungarian escutcheon, with bilingual inscriptions thereon, was replaced on two Government offices. That evening an anti Magyar mob assembled and smashed the windows of the Government offices. The troops were ordered out by Baron von Ramberg, and the rioters were dispersed at the point of the bayonet. A crowd of persons collected at Agram on Saturday and smashed the windows of a café and several houses occupied by Jews. The military were called out, and fired on the mob. The communal elections have been postponed through fear of further outbreaks. The Mayor of Agram has issued a proclamation forbidding the assembling of groups of persons and prohibiting people from walking abroad after dark. The Hungarian Prime Minister has summoned the principal notables to Agram, including the former Ban, to devise means for the suppression of the disorders. The peasants living between Glina and Petrinia are in full rebellion. The movement is directed chiefly against the landowners. A strong military force has been despatched to the scene of the disturbance. The Bishop of Veszprèm has issued a pastoral letter in which he declares that Jew-baiting is unchristian, and exhorts the clergy to use all their endeavors to divert their flock from following such a dangerous path.

The will of the Comte de Chambord gives 500,000 francs to the Societas de Propaganda Fide, 100,000 francs for the benefit of the poor of Paris, 150,000 francs to the convent at Göritz, a large part of his fortune to the Duc de Parma, and a smaller part to the Comte de Bardi, and the income of 20,000,000 francs to the Comtesse during her life, less 2,000,000 francs variously bequeathed. After the demise of the Comtesse the Comte de Bardi is to receive one-third and the Duc de Parma two-thirds of the entire property. The estate is said to be worth 60,000,000 francs.

Don Carlos, the Spanish pretender, is in Venice. He has written to the leader of the Legitimists in Spain declaring that he belongs to Spain alone, and will belong to her always.

King Alfonso of Spain arrived last week at St. Sebastian, and was received with enthusiasm by the populace. He declared that he would not consent to the pardon of rebellious officers of his army, whose immunity from punishment hitherto has been the principal cause of the recent uprisings.

The unveiling of the statue of Lafayette took place last Thursday at Le Puy, France, in the presence of an immense crowd of people. The streets were decorated with American and French flags, and triumphal arches were erected over the prominent avenues. Among the persons present were Mr. Morton, United States Minister to France, and Mr. Sargent, United States Minister to Germany.

The *North German Gazette* has printed a conciliatory article, saying that in all questions pertaining to its foreign policy since the last war the Government of Germany has strictly observed toward France a benevolent and friendly attitude, and is prepared to observe the same attitude in the future whenever France sees fit to assert her interests in a legitimate manner. Referring to a recent article in the London *Times*, the *Gazette* says also that if the *Times* retained its former acumen it would perceive that the recent article in the *Gazette*, which was written to maintain peace, helped to lessen the tension between England and France, the effect of which was eloquently shown in the release by the French in Madagascar of Mr. Shaw, the English missionary.

The Marquis of Hartington, British Secretary of State for War, speaking at Sheffield, England, last week, said it was a mistake to suppose that the arrest of Mr. Shaw by the French in Madagascar was sufficient ground for a quarrel with France, or that the release of Mr. Shaw removed all ground for offence. The Government, he said, hoped that France would make a satisfactory explanation of the matter.

An article printed in the Paris *Intransigeant* by Henri Rochefort has aroused great indignation throughout Italy. It accused the King of having pocketed the money subscribed by the French people for the Ischia sufferers, while he was at the same time urging Germany to annihilate France. At a meeting of a committee of the Ischia survivors a resolution was adopted declaring that they would refuse all proffers of aid, on the ground that when charity is offered them in order to serve as a pretext for insulting their King they feel that it is their duty to reject such charity from the whole world.

M. Bratiano, Prime Minister of Rumania, has had a conference with Count Kálnoky, the Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, and with Prince Bismarck for the purpose, it is said, of finally arranging the terms of an alliance of Rumania with Austria and Germany similar to those of Italy with these Powers.

The celebration, on September 12, at Posen and elsewhere in Prussian Poland, of the bicentenary of the raising of the siege of Vienna by Sobieski was originally forbidden, but the prohibition in regard to stage plays has been removed in several districts.

The manifesto issued by Prince Alexander, of Bulgaria, announcing the appointment of a commission to draft a new constitution for Bulgaria, is reported to have been forced upon the Prince by the Russian Envoy and the Russian Generals Soboleff and Kaulbars. Prince Alexander, who was anxious to rid himself from the tutelage of the Generals, at first refused to accede to the demands of the Envoy. The latter then threatened that, if the Prince persisted in his opposition, a decree would be issued by the Czar of Russia releasing the Bulgarians from their allegiance to Alexander, and that General Soboleff would be appointed temporary agent. Upon this threat the Prince retreated from his position and issued the manifesto referred to. A despatch from Vienna says it can be positively stated that the object of Russia is to get rid of Prince Alexander and place its own nominee upon the throne; but that none of the Powers will, however, tolerate the usurpation of the throne of Bulgaria by a Russian pretender, even though he should prove to be the Grand Duke Sergius or the Grand Duke Paul. The London *Standard's* correspondent at Berlin says that the joining of Rumania in alliance with Austria and Germany is the answer to the Russian *coup d'état* in Bulgaria. He adds that the relations now existing between Germany and Russia are more than cold, and says it is reported that the Russians are concentrating an armed force north of the river Pruth, between Rumania and Bessarabia.

The cattle plague continues its ravages with unabated fury in Russia. More than a million cattle have fallen victims of the plague within the past four years in European Russia

The Vatican has adopted a very important decision in regard to the Church question in Prussia, which will permit of the removal of the misunderstandings existing between the Prussian Government and the Pope, and render the resumption of negotiations probable.

The Archbishops of New York, Baltimore, Cincinnati, and Philadelphia, and several other prelates, are expected at the Vatican soon, to confer with the Propaganda upon the extension of Church regulations to the clergy of America.

There was a great demonstration at Waterford, Ireland, last Sunday under the auspices of the Irish National League. Resolutions were passed demanding a Parliament for Ireland, not only in name but in reality, and declaring that Ireland must have that which England by the necessity of the time granted to Canada because Canada was rebellious. Michael Davitt in a speech denounced the Land Act as entirely inadequate to the needs of Ireland. He said that not one-sixth of the land cases had yet been heard, and that when they had been all settled the reduction of rent would not amount to £1,000,000.

The police have discovered that one Terence McDermott purchased in Glasgow two lots of glycerine several weeks before the explosions there took place, and that he carried them to a factory at Birmingham, where they were probably converted into nitro-glycerine, and then used in the attempt to destroy public buildings in Glasgow.

An official report of the recent disaster in Java has not yet been published. The number of natives killed at Bantam, Batavia, and Lampong is estimated at 30,000. The number of Europeans lost is unknown.

The Cromwell Line iron steamer *Canima*, of 546 tons, from New York for St. Johns, N. F., was wrecked last Thursday morning on Gull Island, at the mouth of St. Mary's Bay. She sank almost immediately after striking. The passengers and crew, sixty in all, got ashore safely owing to the skill and coolness of Captain Farquhar.

THE TIMBER-CULTURE ACT.

THE first publication from the Forestry Division of the Department of Agriculture since its reorganization is before us. It is in the form of a preliminary report on the 'Forestry of the Mississippi Valley and Tree-Planting on the Plains,' and is by Mr. F. P. Baker, of Topeka, Kansas. This report, like other similar productions of the prairie, hints at the general depravity, ignorance, and malversation of certain Eastern men of science who at various times have suggested that the Western plains were treeless from lack of a sufficient moisture to insure a growth of trees, or even that the breaking up of a few acres of prairie ground might not, perhaps, cause a permanent increase of rainfall west of the Missouri. Such slanders are treated at the West with the contempt they deserve; and the confiding settler, under the inspiration of such Government reports as this, still plants trees, and expects to gather abundant crops from the high, dry plains of western Kansas and Nebraska.

A consideration of the Timber-Culture Act occupies a considerable portion of Mr. Baker's report, into which he has gathered from different sources a large amount of evidence in regard to the practical working of this law. The information thus obtained is to a certain extent valuable and suggestive. The testimony points clearly to the fact that the law, as at present constructed, makes frauds upon the Government possible and easy. The Timber-Culture Act, as is well known, enables a settler to obtain a quarter-section of Government land upon condition of planting and properly cultivating during several years a certain number of trees to the acre upon a small portion of his claim. The law of course contemplated that when a timber claim was taken it should be held as such, and that the requisite number of trees should be planted and duly cultivated. But it appears from the testimony collected that it has become a general custom for speculators and non-residents to take up timber claims, neglect entirely the provisions of the law, and then sell them, often with a large bonus, to persons wishing to make entries under the homestead or preemption acts. It follows that the object of the law—the extension of wooded areas upon the prairies — is defeated, and speculation and fraud are facilitated.

The remedy for this evil would seem to be, as Mr. Baker suggests, the adoption of the principle that "once a timber claim always a timber claim"; that is, that land once filed under the Timber-Culture Act, should be permanently withdrawn from entry under the preemption or homestead acts. The suggestion is a good one as far as it goes, but neither Mr. Baker nor any of the witnesses he has called in to testify as to the working of the law, has detected its real weakness or shown in what it requires essential modification. The act opens for timber-culture entry all land belonging to the public domain not already timber land, or not mineral or desert land. The Government, therefore, encourages the planting of trees in any part of the public domain, without regard to its fitness to produce trees. The law in this way is in many cases misleading and unjust to honest settlers, encouraged by the belief that an enlightened government would not present land to them upon conditions which could not be, under any circumstances, fulfilled. From the one hundredth meridian to the Pacific Ocean the line between forest and plain is sharply drawn. The mountains, and especially the high mountains, are timbered; the valleys and plains are totally destitute of timber, except along the immediate borders of the larger streams. They are destitute of trees because they do not receive sufficient moisture to cause trees to grow. It is useless to plant trees in such situations, and if a man is induced to do so, under Government encouragement, he is defrauded and swindled. We make this statement with a complete consciousness of what is in store for us. We are prepared for the worst. We fully expect to be spoken of as "one of them professors," or even—but that would really be too dreadful—as "scientific." When we think of the tornado of obloquy, rolled up from the Missouri to the Colorado, which will soon reach us, we can hardly resist self-laudation at our own boldness.

According to Mr. Baker's statement, 9,000,000 acres of land are at present held under the provisions of the Timber-Culture Act. Those persons, however, best informed upon the subject would, we believe, be surprised to learn that there are 10,000 acres of healthy, vigorous forest trees growing upon timber claims in the whole United States. Such plantations may exist, but unprejudiced and observant travellers in the West have failed to discover them. In Arizona, where numerous timber-claim entries have been made, it is safe to affirm that no planted tree is now growing or can grow without irrigation. This is equally true of Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, and Eastern Oregon and Washington Territory. In all the region occupied by these States and Territories trees grow upon the mountains and not in the valleys, where the timber claims are located, and where without irrigation trees will not grow. This is largely true of California and of Western Kansas, Nebraska, and Texas. The Timber-Culture Act was passed with reference to the requirements of Minnesota, and, with certain modifications, was well adapted, if honestly taken advantage of, to develop prairie planting. The trouble is, however, that the distinction between the climatic conditions of Minnesota and those of the dry, parched valleys and plains of the far West was not considered. The law, unless repealed entirely, should certainly be so modified as to include in its workings only the prairie portions of Minnesota and Missouri, all of Iowa, and the eastern portions only of Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas. The remainder of the public domain, outside of the region described, should be excluded from its workings on the ground that the Government should not encourage the planting of trees where trees cannot be made to grow.

The question, however, which presents itself is whether, under the circumstances, and in view of the fact that the best land belonging to the Government in those States where tree-planting is climatically possible, is already in private hands, it would not be wiser to abolish the Timber-Culture Act entirely. It has failed deplorably even in Minnesota to accomplish what was honestly expected from it, and, on the whole, it has probably delayed rather than advanced the increase of forest area upon the prairies.

THE CONDITION OF MR. GLADSTONE'S MINISTRY.

IT is now more than three years since Mr. Gladstone's Government came into power, leading a Parliamentary majority larger and more enthusiastic than has been seen in England in this generation. Much has happened since then. The Ministry have been driven by stress of weather into seas which they never meant to navigate, and among shoals from which escape seemed sometimes impossible. However, the same fortune which threatened them at one time befriended them at another; and though they have more than once seemed on the verge of falling or of breaking up, though they have lost three of their most eminent members in the Duke of Argyll, Mr. W. E. Forster, and Mr. Bright, though the zeal of their followers has grown far cooler, still they stand to-day not substantially weaker than they were at the close of their first session in September, 1880.

Their greatest dangers were encountered in 1882, when the failure of Mr. Forster's efforts to pacify Ireland, and the outburst of feeling which followed the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, shook the confidence of the nation in their wisdom or their courage. These dangers passed by, and the last session closed quietly enough. In this session they have had less serious risks to face, yet such as have sometimes proved fatal to weaker cabinets. The first came from the Bradlaugh difficulty, which has dogged their steps since the beginning of the present Parliament. They resolved to meet his case by permitting him, since the House of Commons would not let him take the oath, to substitute an affirmation for the oath. The country, however, disliked Mr. Bradlaugh too heartily to look at the matter in its legal aspect, and a good many Liberal members joined the Conservative Opposition and the Irish Opposition in voting against the bill. Its defeat by a majority of five was not such a defeat as requires a Ministry to resign, for the question was not strictly a party one, the Affirmation Bill having formed no part of Mr. Gladstone's regular political programme. Still, a defeat is a defeat; and it was thought at the time that the Liberal party would become demoralized by it, and the Government lose their hold on their supporters. This did not happen, and after three weeks the affair was practically forgotten.

Not long afterward it was discovered that so much time had been wasted during the first half of the session in idle debates and in the discussion of the Bradlaugh Bill itself, that some of the chief measures promised in the Queen's speech would have to be dropped, and only a small harvest of legislation reaped for the year. This was a second and heavier cloud rising to overcast the sky, because the Liberal leaders had, when opposing Lord Beaconsfield's Government, made it their chief

charge that he neglected domestic legislation, and because they had themselves, in November last, carried a set of new rules of Parliamentary procedure on the plea that by its means they would be able to get more and better work out of the House of Commons. To turn out no better work than their predecessors, after having demanded and obtained a new set of tools, must, everybody said, damage the Cabinet in the eyes of the country. The Liberals became uneasy, and the Tories saw their dismay with the more satisfaction because the result could not fairly be charged either on themselves or on the Irish members. Great prolixity of talk there had certainly been, but no open or deliberate obstruction, nothing which took the blame off the shoulders of the majority, who are of course primarily responsible for the way in which business is done and time spent. However, the months of July and August saw more work accomplished than had been hoped in June. The total legislative crop is less than the better years of Mr. Gladstone's first Ministry showed, but as large as, or larger than, was reaped in any year of Lord Beaconsfield's reign. Moreover, the Tory party has always derided the impatience of the reformers and deprecated over-legislation, so that it is not so well placed for raising these complaints; and, on the other hand, it cannot be said that there is really much eagerness in England for changes of any kind.

The third and last of the difficulties which shook the Government was of their own making, and ought therefore, according to the usual rule in such matters, to have given them the most trouble. It arose out of their Suez-Canal negotiations with M. de Lesseps. Their bargain made with him on behalf of the British shipowners was received by the mercantile class with a shout of disapproval. Their most faithful friends scarcely defended it. Their enemies had the public with them in deploring or denouncing the incapacity of Ministers who could show so little business shrewdness. The *Times*, long on the watch for an opportunity of striking them, thought they were down, and struck hard accordingly. For a week it was supposed, just as it had been supposed after the Bradlaugh division, that the blow to their reputation and influence was a mortal one: they might hang on for a while, but they could never be strong again. Just as in the Bradlaugh case, these anticipations were falsified. There was a reaction from the vehemence of the first outbreak. The Conservative leader, in trying to move an indirect vote of censure, gave the Liberals an opportunity of rallying to the Government; and as the agreement had by this time been dropped, their rally implied no approval of its terms, but was merely a declaration of confidence in the Government itself. The little quarrel with the House of Lords with which the session now usually winds up, as an Irish wake does with a fight, has this year been short, and has placed Lord Salisbury and the Lords once more in the attitude of landlords fighting for their own pockets. If they had wished to give Mr. Gladstone a lift before the recess, they could not have done better. The country is always pleased to see Ministers resisting the Lords on a question affecting the land, and still more pleased to see the Lords obliged to submit.

Though the game of the session has again been won by the Government and lost by the Opposition, this is owing just as much to the mistakes of the latter as to the skill of the former. There has been a want of muscle in the Government several times, and a want of judgment in divining popular sentiment. They do not push on business with the same vigor which Mr. Gladstone displayed in the years between 1868 and 1873. They have allowed the zeal of their followers to wax cold before they had made any adequate use of it. If the Conservatives were led by a man like Peel—a man who could play the rôle of a reasonable though keen and watchful critic, anxious that the authority of the executive and the reputation of the country should be maintained, and therefore slow to embarrass the Government by frequent attacks or vexatious questions, but who was also capable on occasion of concentrating his forces for a pitched battle, and filling them with ardor by his own energy and dash—if they had during the last three years possessed such a man, the Ministry would probably have before now fallen. Sir Stafford Northcote has all the knowledge, all the acuteness, all the reasonableness and balance of mind required for a leader, but he wants that authority over his own party which would have held them back from unprofitable skirmishes, and he has none of the *élan* with which one ought to charge at the head of a column. More often than not in his attacks he selects the wrong occasion and incurs a needless defeat. Over and over again he has allowed the Government to escape from him, as David slipped through the fingers of the Philistines, when he might have signally damaged them. Yet his retirement from the leadership must be thought a misfortune for his party, which has in the House of Commons no man comparable to him all round. Lord Salisbury is inferior in everything except in an oratory which is more trenchant than convincing, and in an air of vigor which springs rather from recklessness than from courage.

THE VIENNA ANNIVERSARY.

The historical event of which Vienna celebrated yesterday the bicentenary anniversary is one of the very grandest landmarks in history. Christendom, as such, has had only two days of deliverance through the fiery ordeal of battle which can be compared with the 12th of September, 1683: the days of Poitiers and Lepanto. And the victory achieved by Charles Martel over the Saracens in 732 only hurled back the power of Islam beyond the Pyrenees; it left it in unimpaired vigor and dominant in every other field through which its prodigiously victorious course had carried it. The triumph of Don John of Austria over the fleet of the Sultan in 1571 stemmed the tide of Turkish aggression along the shores of the Mediterranean, but left the sword of the Janizaries unbroken, menacing, and ready for new conquests. It was the battle at the foot of the Kahlenberg which decided completely, and decided forever, the world's contest between the Cross and the Crescent. The crushing defeat of Kara Mustapha before the ramparts of Vienna not only delivered the imperial capital from impending ruin, Germany from terror, and Hungary virtually from the yoke of the Pashas: it doomed the whole structure of Ottoman military power to fatal decay. The offensive career of Islam in its deadly grapple with the Christian West ended on that memorable second Sunday of September. Turkish valor and Moslem fanaticism have since shown on hundreds of battle-fields—from Buda to Plevna—as bright as ever before, but the fights had become defensive, and as useless as obstinate. John Sobieski and the Duke of Lorraine struck wounds from which Turkey was nevermore to recover as a conquering Power.

At the opening of the year 1683 Mohammed IV. had the signal of war hoisted in Stambul, pointing in the direction of the Danube. Immense preparations were made. When the campaign opened, the Sultan accompanied his Grand Vizier, Kara Mustapha, to Belgrade, and gave him the holy banner of the Prophet. The army was drawn together at Eszék, on the Drave. It was joined by the Christian vassals of the Porte, the Prince of Transylvania, among others. It numbered from two to three hundred thousand combatants. The chief of the Hungarian malcontents, Emeric Tököly, on whom the Sultan had bestowed the royal dignity in Upper Hungary, led the way toward Vienna, as John Zápolya—like him a Magyar rival of a Hapsburg monarch—had done in 1529, when Solyman the Magnificent marched against the brother of Charles V. The Hungarians who served under the flag of the Emperor Leopold, as elected King, went over to Tököly, or evinced a worse than useless fidelity. The scanty Imperial troops withdrew before the invader without striking a blow. The Tartar horse spread devastation over immense tracts of land. The forces of Bavaria, Saxony, Würtemberg, and other States of the German Empire, summoned to succor the Emperor in this his greatest distress, gathered slowly, Brandenburg selfishly refused her aid, and the Imperial commander-in-chief, Charles of Lorraine, was distracted by calls for help from various quarters. Vienna awoke late to the peril which menaced her. Her defences had been neglected. For Leopold, threatened simultaneously by Mohammed IV. on the east and by Louis XIV., the Sultan's most Christian ally, on the west, had long hoped to buy off the former, and had subsequently too confidingly relied on an offensive alliance against the Turks concluded on March 31 with Sobieski, whose valiant hosts were now still far off. The Polish King, won over to the Imperial side mainly by the persuasion of his French consort, who had a personal grudge against Louis XIV., hesitated to begin a new campaign which the interests of his own country seemed to condemn, until Leopold's ambassador and the Pope's legate threw themselves upon their knees before him, the one crying, "Sire, save Vienna!" and the other adding, "Save Christendom!" In the beginning of July the Turks crossed the Austrian border, the Emperor fled, and on the 14th Kara Mustapha laid siege to Vienna, the suburbs of which were flaming from the torches of the Tartars. Tens of thousands of the villagers had been carried off into slavery.

Fortunately for Vienna, her defence was intrusted to Count Starhemberg, and the army that was to relieve her after the arrival of reinforcements was commanded by Duke Charles of Lorraine. No better man could have been found for either post. The fortifications of the capital were strengthened with a zeal and an alacrity such as only imminent peril and self-sacrificing patriotism could inspire. Sixty thousand inhabitants had fled at the approach of the foe; about an equal number remained, and of these about six thousand—burghers, students, workmen—shouldered arms for defence, all other able-bodied men working at the ramparts, palisades, and batteries. Charles had thrown 10,000 cavalry into the city, and with the bulk of his forces held the north bank of the Danube. The besiegers numbered about 180,000. Kara Mustapha was sure of his splendid prey, and desiring, it is believed, to get it intact, to the end avoided a general storm, which might have resulted in total destruction. But fierce fighting and assaulting, trenching and mining, went on incessantly, and before the end of two months the armed defenders were reduced by the sword and disease to less than half their number, and the Turks had lost nearly 50,000 men. Kara Mustapha failed to dislodge Charles—an attempt proved disastrous—to seize the crossing places of the Danube, and to occupy the heights of the Kahlenberg, between the Turkish camp and the river. The relieving forces gradually effected their junction. The Elector of Bavaria was among the first to arrive, the King of Poland came at the end of August, the Elector of Saxony a few days later. Among the many princely volunteers was Eugene of Savoy, then twenty years old. A council of war was held on September 3, and the advance on Vienna was determined on. King Sobieski had the chief command, but the Duke of Lorraine was the virtual leader.

On the 7th the united army was assembled at Tulln, on the south bank of the Danube, about twenty miles to the west of Vienna. It numbered about 75,000 men—20,000 Austrians, 30,000 troops of the Empire, and 25,000 Poles. On the 11th the Kahlenberg was occupied without resistance. The vast camp of the Grand Vizier now lay before the Christian hosts, and beyond it Vienna in her last extremity. On the morning of the 12th the offensive movement began. The Austrians and Saxons, forming the left wing and commanded by Charles, descended from the Kahlenberg, and, moving along the Danube, forced back the Turks who advanced to meet them, and, after bloody fighting, stormed their intrenched positions at Nussdorf and Heiligenstadt, north of the city. It was noon, and the victorious wing paused to allow the centre, consisting of Bavarians, Franconians, and Swabians, and the Poles on the right to come into line. The South-Germans and Poles advanced fighting—the latter as far as Dornbach—and the efforts of the Turks to check them proved vain. Kara Mustapha had left 30,000 men in the trenches before the city, who continued mining and storming while the battle raged; upward of 100,000 faced the wide semicircle of the Christians. Two charges of Sobieski's cavalry were repulsed; before the third the Turks withdrew to sheltering heights. It was now Charles of Lorraine's turn to move forward. His Saxons stormed a rampart armed with a battery, and the Austrians penetrated into the Turkish camp at Döbling, flanking the extreme right of the enemy. The flight of the besiegers began. Kara Mustapha, aroused from his quiet contemplation of the bright western sky, collected the bravest of his agas, displayed the banner of the Prophet, and prepared for the last combat. Sobieski attacked with all his cavalry, supported by German infantry and artillery, and, after a grapple of the fiercest kind, the Turks turned to flight. The Duke of Lorraine's troops had reached the ramparts before Vienna. The Janizaries, who had attempted a desperate storm of the city in the last hour, turned their guns against Charles, fired once more, and followed the fugitives. The sun had set. Twenty thousand Turkish corpses covered the battle-field. Vienna was delivered, Christendom triumphant.

It would be out of place here to speak of the tremendous amount of booty taken, of the Polish King's entry into the delivered capital on the following day, of the rapturous enthusiasm and gratitude of the Viennese, of the noble conduct of Charles of Lorraine toward the hero who had outstripped him in the race for the elective crown of Poland, of the stupid ingratitude of the Emperor Leopold, of the flight and pursuit into Hungary, of Kara Mustapha's death by order of his master, of Tököly's futile resistance, of Sobieski's return, of Charles's new triumphs. Our narrative closes with the day the anniversary of which Vienna, and with her Lemberg, Cracow, and other cities of Poland, celebrated yesterday. On the day of her deliverance Vienna hailed Sobieski, above all others, as her God-sent saviour. The streets, the churches, resounded with his name. The world's history, without forgetting the equally great merits of the heroic Starhemberg and the great Captain Charles, has entered that name most prominently in the proper page—fairly, we believe, for Sobieski came from a foreign country as a volunteer, and at the most critical moment, and was foremost by his rank, and command, and valor. Ninety years after the event Sobieski's fatherland was treacherously divided by her powerful neighbors, Russia, Prussia, and the empire of which Vienna was the capital, and the monarch a descendant of Leopold. A quarter of a century later Poland was divided once more, and the Hapsburgs took another share. The Poles became deadly enemies of Austria, and Dombrowski, Poniatowski, Bem, Dembinski, fought against her under French or Hungarian banners. Of late years, the aspect of things has changed again. Austria relies for her support on the Hungarian nation, whose independence Tököly, and after him Rákóczy and Kossuth, defended; and Austrian Poland—Galicia—is the only part of Sobieski's realm in which the Poles enjoy a free national existence. Russia prohibited the celebration of the day of Vienna within her dominions, from fear of its becoming a Polish demonstration in favor of Austria. In Prussian Poland the commemoration took place under severe restrictions. But Galicia glorified without stint the Polish King's fight before Vienna. Vienna herself, strange to say, prepared for the celebration in ill-humor, grumbling at the Poles for their late anti-German votes in the Reichsrath, depreciating the merits of Sobieski, and talking of *Polish* ingratitude.

THE SURVIVAL OF TYPES.

THE London *Daily News*, in the course of an article on what it calls "international reproaches," refers to the fact that there is much that is "traditional" in them. It thinks that both in America and in France the qualities and peculiarities attributed to English people are derived, to a great extent, less from experience than from inherited tradition. "We hear that Englishmen are rude to ladies; that they fail to yield them precedence at the ticket-offices of steamboats and railway stations; that they complain of everything that is given them as food; that they occupy more than their share of public conveyances with multitudinous wraps, sticks, and umbrellas. They assert themselves, it would seem, when they have placed 3,000 miles between themselves and their old home. There is, however, in all these complaints the ring of old coin." In the same way it says that the Parisian of the boulevards still believes the Englishman to be a creature who wears long red whiskers of the mutton-chop species, and wears a plaid—although, as a matter of fact, the typical Englishman of to-day does not look like this at all.

Any one interested in the matter might make a very queer collection of types which, having disappeared from actual life, survive in the popular imagination, and by surviving keep alive international prejudice, hostility, suspicion, or distrust, and which go on doing duty in this way for years and years, until suddenly some fine day it is discovered that they are out of date and must in future be dispensed with. There is, for instance, our old friend the stage Irishman. How often have our hearts been touched by the qualities of gratitude, devotion to sentiment, faithful friendship, and heroism of this noble creature. No doubt there must have been a time when he was as common in Ireland as he has been in our day in melodrama. But the Irishman, as he exists in New York and as he is described by those who have seen him at home, is strangely unlike the type. He is a decidedly practical, hard-headed man, with a keen eye to the main chance, a considerable fondness for fighting, and a disposition which we should call the reverse of sentimental. Harrigan and Hart represent the actual Irishman in America capitally at their little theatre in Broadway, yet the stage Irishman is to multitudes of Americans a more real creature than the actual Irishman, and we suppose there is hardly a Democratic statesman from one end of the country to the other who has not constantly before his mind an image of him by the contemplation of which he solves many of the knottiest problems of contemporary politics.

Then there is the Dundreary Englishman, first cousin or lineal descendant of the Englishman so dear to the French imagination. Dundreary really represents, as we know very well, when we think about it, a past type of swell

as extinct as the dodo. It is not common any longer for English swells to change all their *r*s into *w*s, and to spice their sentences with "aw-aws." We have numbers of them over here every year, but we do not hear them talk nowadays the once familiar Dundreary language. Yet there is hardly a newspaper in the United States whose funny man does not assume, for the benefit of his readers, that Dundreary is alive, and every now and then reproduce him with gusto. It is not in *Punch* that we find Dundreary, but in the funny department of the Oshkosh *Monitor* and the "All Sorts" column of the Bungtown *Clarion*. Even *Puck* contributes to perpetuate the belief in the continued existence of Dundreary by devoting a column a week to observations on American society in the Dundreary dialect, which thirty years ago might have been decidedly funny.

Punch still has John Bull as a national type; but it shows great reserve in the use of him, and now continually resorts to Britannia as a substitute. Is not this because our old friend John is now only a survival, a tradition of the past? The bluff, stout, honest, red-faced, irascible rural person—of whom the photographs of John Bright remind us—has really been supplanted by a more modern, thinner, nervous, intellectual, astute type. For English use the Yankee type of Uncle Sam still seems to represent America, although it belongs to the past as much as slavery or the stage-coach. He would be a bold man who should undertake to say what the national type is now; but it is safe to say that it is not a long, thin, 'cute Yankee, dressed in a swallow-tailed coat with brass buttons, whittling a stick and interlarding his conversation with "I swan!" and "I cal'late." If Mr. Lowell were writing the "Biglow Papers" now, would "Uncle S." serve his purpose as he did during the war? By a merciful dispensation of Providence, however, Brother Jonathan and Uncle Sam still live on in the imaginations of large masses of conservative Englishmen, and no doubt enable many a Tory to people the United States with a race as alien from that which actually inhabits it as Zulus would be.

In the same way it may be possible—to the Providence that guides the destinies of nations nothing is impossible—that the rude Englishman is, as the *Daily News* suggests, getting to be a survival. The *Daily News's* portrait of him is fair enough, though it would require Americans who have suffered from him to do him real justice. He is, or was, a very rude person, and always seemed to take great delight in "asserting himself" in such a way as to produce as much general annoyance and discomfort as possible. During the war he had a brilliant career. He used to come over and express great surprise at the silly fuss made about the Constitution and secession, and profess an entire inability to discover what it was "all about." If they want to go, he always said, why don't you let 'em go? What is the use of fighting about the meaning of a word in the dictionary? It was in small things as in great. When he went into society, he dressed to suit himself, and not as gentlemen in England or anywhere else do, thus contriving to exhibit a general contempt for his host and his friends. When his meek entertainer ventured to offer him some American dish which he did not like, he would frankly warn his companions against it, and if he asked for sugar in his coffee, he would in the same outspoken way explain that he always sweetened it "when it was bad." One of his favorite topics of conversation was the awful corruption and rottenness of American society and politics, and he dwelt so much upon this that it often seemed as if what he was really interested in was to find out whether the people he was staying with and being entertained by were not themselves, if the truth were known, rotten to the core.

He was a very rude man, and he did exist. But is he gone or going? Is the time coming when we shall have to regard him too as a survival, and admit that the rude Englishman is a creature of the past? Time and continued international experience can alone settle this question. There are, however, bitter memories of past sufferings at his hands in hundreds of American homes that make it better for both countries not to probe the subject too deeply.

THE ART REMAINS OF ATHENS.—I.

The modern town of Athens contains several places of deposit for works of ancient art. Some pieces of sculpture remain out-of-doors, more or less well sheltered and guarded. A few sculptures still remain in place, as in the Parthenon, or have been set up again after having been thrown down, as in the temple of the wingless Victory. So that Athens, not having as yet a well-organized museum, must be looked upon as itself a vast museum—one of the richest museums of sculpture in the world, and unrivalled in the department of sculpture in relief. The total amount of such sculpture is very great, and the average quality higher than that of any collection in Europe; and, indeed, London alone, enriched by the spoils of Athens itself, can compare with Athens in respect to average quality of ancient sculpture, and that in but a small collection, priceless as is its value. The great Continental galleries have their matchless masterpieces, but these are scattered and isolated among later imitative and inferior work. In Athens is no rubbish, such as fills furlongs of galleries in Italy and France; except a few Greco-Roman barbarisms from marble-yards of the epoch, all is pure Greek. What one sees is either of the Periclean epoch, or of the fascinating times of slow development before the Persian war, or of the splendid and glowing revival of the fourth century. And all this sculpture remains as it was found. The neat-looking statues that crowd the Vatican and the Louvre, such as have but a small nucleus that is antique and original—the limbs made anew by Renaissance or modern sculptors, and *perhaps* in their original attitudes; the head put on, and *perhaps* in its right position—all clean and bright, magnificent furniture, but of doubtful value for the study of the art of any special epoch: these are unknown in Athens. Shattered, mutilated, marked with the pick where hasty workmen have struck too hard through the superincumbent earth, laid on the floor, stood up against walls, defaced and discolored—at least all is original work of the Greek sculptor. The mind of the spectator can supply missing limbs, but cannot work so easily in despite of false limbs put in the place of the lost ones. Or, if the original state of the statue or bas-relief can only be conjectured, at least it is exquisite still as art: one hardly regrets what is lost in enjoyment of the fragment that remains.

The chief museum of Greece stands at the northern edge of the city of Athens, on the road which leads to the village of Patissia. It is by name the Central Museum (central to Greece, in a moral sense), but to cabmen and Athenians generally, the Patissia Museum rather. The building has been erected for its purpose. It is, as all museum buildings ought to be, one single story high, a *rez-de-chaussée* only. It has a front of two hundred and fifty feet, or thereabouts, toward the west, and, on entering in the middle of this front, one finds one's self in a lobby of thirty by forty feet, or thereabouts, paved with slabs of marble, walled with stucco, roofed with a simple vault, also plastered, and lighted by a row of plain windows high in the east wall, the whole severely plain—not a moulding, not a single architectural adornment. In the middle stands a colossal two-visaged Hermes; around the walls lie, stand, or lean perhaps forty pieces of sculpture of many epochs. The lobby is a sort of place of deposit for marbles which have not yet found a more fitting resting-place. There are interesting pieces among them, but perhaps no one is of importance enough to detain us, in our necessarily cursory examination.

Out of this lobby, southward, one enters three halls in succession; each is perhaps thirty feet by fifty, and is lighted by a row of windows high in the east wall—that is, in the end, and not the long side of the room. The first hall has also a sort of vestibule, which precedes it. Each room is as plain in style and finish as the lobby. To the north stretches a precisely similar row of rooms, but beyond these one enters a new wing containing much larger and longer halls; and as the length of this new building lies east and west, the windows are pierced in the north wall. It will be seen, then, that there are already built two sides of a considerable quadrangle; that the light is taken sometimes from the court within, and sometimes from without, as convenience dictates; that the lighting of each room is simple—that is, from one side only; that everything is in masonry, so that the building meets the only true definition of a fire-proof building—that is, a building in and about which there is nothing to burn; that there is only one floor and one level for all the rooms; and, finally, that not a drachma has been spent on ornamentation. This reads like a specification for an ideal building for a museum of sculpture. It is not my fault if a building built as cheaply as possible in a land where masonry is cheaper than wood work, and planned according to the most obvious dictates of common sense, serves better than royal or papal palace-halls, or than "Glyptotheks" built regardless of expense by dilettante kings.

Now, in the rooms to the south of the lobby are gathered the pieces of Romano-Greek, or late Greek, sculpture, and the visitor, forewarned, naturally turns northward, and, entering the vestibule leading to the first hall, finds himself among some delightful archaisms. Two statues, well known to students from published plates and descriptions, are from places not in Attica—the so-called Apollo of Thera in the island of Santorini (Sybel, 1; Milchhoefer, Saal I., a, 10), and the so-called Apollo of Orchomenos in Bœotia * (Sybel, 4; Milch., Saal I., a, 9). Each of these statues is without its legs to the knees, but is otherwise well preserved. They are generally

* The name of *Apollo*, it may be said once for all, as, indeed, Dr. Milchhoefer points out in his handbook, has been given almost as a matter of course to nude male statues which have no especial attributes; and this custom has been general until in the case of very recent discoveries.

assumed to be tombal statues. These two statues are not exactly unique, but they are important additions to the very small list of tolerably perfect pieces of good archaic work. In the same vestibule is a curious Romano-Egyptian statue of heroic size (Milch., Saal I., a, 22), an "Egyptian Antinous," if you like; but it has no business here, and should be sent across the lobby and into the Southern rooms, like a bit of sham archaism, as it is. These three statues are set up on plain marble pedestals, very sensibly, but the other pieces in this vestibule lie upon the floor or are propped against the wall. There are valuable things among them: a curious bearded Herakles carrying the Erymanthian boar (Sybel, 13; Milch., I., a, 3), much broken; but especially a high and narrow tomb-slab (Sybel, 8; Milch., I., a, 26), which has been frequently engraved. This is in gray Theban marble, and is sculptured with a life-size figure of an old man leaning on a staff, and holding out a cicada or other insect toward his dog, as if to tempt him to play. This was found at Rhomaiko in Bœotia, and was kept at Orchomenos for a while, from which place it is generally named. This is to be studied with the great sacred bas-relief from Eleusis in the second hall; they are important documents both, and our knowledge of this semi-pictorial sculpture of the time, shortly before the best epoch, when art was going on very rapidly toward its culmination, is founded upon these two pieces to a very great extent.

The first hall, into which we enter from the above-described vestibule, and of which that vestibule really forms a part, is filled with admirable monuments of sculpture, and is a most attractive room. The walls are lined all around with tomb-slabs, sculptured, some in low, some in very high relief; all large, some so large that the full-length figures upon them are of life-size. None larger or more elaborate are known, except two also in Athens, of which something must be said in their place. The smaller slabs are set up on two wooden screens placed end-on to the light. There are in this first hall sixty-five of these sculptured slabs, of all sizes; and, as few museums have any of these tombal slabs, and perhaps none out of Athens any large ones, it seems as if one at least should be described here. Many have inscriptions; but an unusually full and interesting inscription is that carved upon a slab under the windows, leaning against the east wall (Sybel, 69; Milch., Saal I., b, 9): "Here the earth covers the good and prudent Archestrate, sadly missed by her husband." This, in the original, is two lines of verse, carved upon a narrow architrave, for the slab is worked into a very simple architectural form—elongated pilasters, a narrow entablature of two divisions, and the semblance of a pediment with acroteria. The whole is just short of five feet high. The figures have much greater relief than the architectural frame. A woman of full age, but not old, sits on a decorative chair, facing the left; this is Archestrate, and her figure is nearly of life size. A servant standing in front of her presents a small box, and from it the lady's raised right hand is taking some piece of stuff. This maid-servant must be taken as only half-grown, as her head is on the level of the head of her seated mistress. A child behind its mother's knee, only its head and shoulders to be seen, tries to draw her attention to a bird which it holds. No part of the sculpture is worked up to perfection, and parts are curiously neglected, but the drapery is cast in the noblest way, and the head, the right arm in low relief, and the feet are admirably worked, and left just short of complete finish, as if by deliberate choice. There is nothing archaic about this relief: it is the swiftly and cheaply-done handiwork of a skilful workman of a great epoch. And yet this one, in merit, is below the average of the slabs in this room. At the opposite end are two which are above the average, which are quite *hors ligne;* they are put opposite the windows, and flat against the wall, but their very high relief makes this lighting from the front as harmless as if they were statues "in the round." These two (Sybel, 53; Milch., I., b, 24, and Sybel, 57; Milch., I., b, 20), both found in Athens, are almost the counterparts each of the other; it will suffice if one of them is described (Sybel, 57). It has two life-size figures. A magnificently muscular young man—not a coarse and tasteless caricature like the "Farnese Hercules," but a superb athlete, only a shade too much developed about the shoulders and back for perfect manly beauty—half sits, half leans upon a block or pillar. He turns toward his left, so that his right side is almost wholly disengaged from the background. A loose garment is thrown over his left fore-arm, and passes around behind him, forming a sort of cushion; he is otherwise undraped. From his wrist hangs a short, heavy, formidable, knotted club; behind his leg, and half seen, is a hound, with nose to ground. He may be read as a famous hunter, and his weapon as the Greek equivalent of the South African hurling-club for small game. A little attendant is curled up, and either asleep or weeping, on a low seat behind him. The other principal figure is a clothed and bearded elder, who stands, with right hand on chin, and the left leaning on a long staff, contemplating sadly the youth in front of him. There is no inscription, no architectural frame. The figures, and a perfectly simple shelf or floor upon which they stand, are relieved from a flat marble slab, and that is all, except that holes in the background near the heads seem to point to the former existence of bronze wreaths permanently attached to the heads. In each of these fine reliefs we may take the young man to be the regretted dead, and his companion to be the mourning father; but indeed the relation of the other personages present in all these grave-stone reliefs to the dead is uncertain. One curious difference in these two fine works of art, otherwise so like, is that the young man in the one we have described is wholly unconcerned and unconscious, and looks out from the marble, regardless of his companion, "wahrscheinlich bereits in heroisirter Existenz gedacht"; while in the other, the youth, with bowed head and hand on brows, seems almost to regret the separation.

In the middle of this room stands one of the few large separate statues which have been found in Greece (Sybel, 41; Milch., without number), the so-called Hermes of Atalanti (Talanda) in Bœotia. It has the lower parts of the legs supplied in plaster, and the hands, with what they once held, are much broken—the open socket showing where a part of one had been supplied in a separate piece of marble; otherwise it is perfect, and a fine, simple, manly piece of sculpture of heroic size. But in the next hall—which we will call, with the cataloguers, Hall II.—is a far superior work of art of the same sort, another nude statue of heroic size (Sybel, 264; Milch., II., 1), the admirable Hermes of Andros, found in 1833 in the island of that name. This figure is so like the famous Hermes, or Antinous, of the Vatican, that it may be called a *replica* of that noble statue, one of the half-dozen masterpieces of the first rank that Greece has left to us, in the way of free and separate statues.

The strength of the Athenian collections is evidently in bas-reliefs and other sculptures associated with buildings, or with a more or less decorative purpose. This is in no wise to be regretted; only it makes the few fine statues that are to be found there the more noteworthy. In this Hall II., besides the Hermes and the magnificent figure of a draped woman (Sybel, 265; Milch., II., 2) found at Andros together with the last named, and (but that it is headless, and so loses much interest and value) worthy to be associated with it, the chief attraction is found in the numerous small votive tablets and memorial tablets, all charged with sculpture, and many of them excellent as works of art. But as we shall find finer ones on the Acropolis, this subject may be left for the time. Another great thing in this room is the collection of funereal vases, their marble surfaces sculptured in very low relief, as comports with the curved and delicately-modelled forms. One huge lekythos (Sybel, 186), four feet six inches in height, in form closely copied from the graceful Attic earthenware vessels to which we give that name, bears the most delicate reliefs possible of a mounted youth and group of women on foot; but none of the others are at once so elaborate and so fine. There are three very curious statues of Sirens or Harpies in this hall (Sybel, 255, 256, 257), and on the floor an immense architectural coronal or terminal of a tomb set up to those who fell before Corinth, in the year 394 B. C. Of the heroes who fell in that expedition we shall hear more at the Street of Tombs, outside the ancient Eleusinian gate.

The hall beyond (III.) contains the small statue which was greeted with such an acclaim when found, in the heart of Athens, three years ago (too recently for a place in the catalogues, though Milchhoefer squeezes it into an appendix). As a copy in half life-size of the vast statue of Athena in the Parthenon, it has perhaps great documentary value, but it has little charm, little beauty by itself. The work is probably of the Roman time. A statue (Sybel, 274; Milch., III., 4), Hermes or Perseus, larger than life, and fine though not of the highest class; many votive bas-reliefs of great interest, and marble statuettes, all arranged on wooden screens; torsos and parts of statues laid on the floor along the walls, and two most admirable reliefs of draped dancing-women, in high relief and in good preservation, master-works of a time somewhat later than the best, fill this room, except that the immense "Eleusinian Relief" (Sybel, 314; Mich., III., 14), of which so much has been written, is put into the one place in the room where it cannot be seen—namely (as it is in very low relief and very much discolored), exactly opposite the windows. This measures five by seven feet, and is a perfectly simple bas-relief, the figures occupying the whole surface, so that they are much above life-size. It was found near the Propylæa of Eleusis, fifteen years ago, and may easily be identified by the archæological imagination with some interesting part of the mysterious Eleusinian Mysteries. Demeter and Kora, much larger than life, stand on the right and on the left, looking down upon a boyish figure who stands between them. Demeter or Korê (for here begin the diversities of interpretation, which is the mother and which the daughter) is giving to or receiving from the boy something—what? The object has been supplied in bronze, no doubt, and is now lost. If it was an ear of wheat, the boy is perhaps Triptolemus, the female to the left Demeter; but this interpretation, that one which calls the youth Bacchus, that one which takes him to be a prize-winner at the games, that one which makes him a specially devout servant of the "two great goddesses"—all have their upholders, and it is not now our business to defend theories of interpretation. The really admirable work of art, of a time just previous to the great epoch of Phidias and his school, is what we are interested in; and of this it must be said that a cast in a better exposure would give more enjoyment than the precious original in the

place where it is hidden in fulness of light. It is fortunate, by the way, that very good casts of all the more important Athenian marbles are to be had, without great delay or expense.

Now, passing out of the original building into the new north wing, we find ourselves in a hall, as devoid of ornament as all the others, ten paces wide, thirty-five paces long, well lighted from the north; and in this two long rows of marble statues, all lying on their backs. These have been moved hither since the new wing was finished, about two years ago; but no steps have as yet been taken to place them. One of them is a colossal Poseidon from the island of Melos, about which a good deal has been said. It is not at all a work of the highest quality. Of the many draped female statues, some are evidently of value; but let not the injustice be done any of them to criticise them where they lie. A recumbent statue is one thing; a statue made to stand erect, and laid temporarily upon the floor, is so out of place that we ought not to study or judge it. Its muscles do not relax; its forms do not adapt themselves to the strange position; it is a clumsy thing, because retaining what may be called its positive attitude under negative circumstances. So that, although something can be seen of the merit of a statue so placed, it will be more fair to leave judgment of these until that happy future day when this museum shall be arranged and, perhaps, catalogued.

When will that be? Perhaps not very soon. Years pass by, and sculptures which were laid in a corner five, seven, eight years ago, lie there still. Moreover, if the plan is actually adopted of completing the building of this Central Museum on the two remaining sides of the quadrangle, thus doubling its size; and if, as is gravely asserted by persons high in authority, no permanent disposition of the sculptures can be made until this is achieved, the twentieth century may find much the same state of things that exists to-day. There will be more works of art, no doubt, more fine pieces of sculpture, but the same inchoate condition of the collections. It is with no feeling of impatience that I express, what all lovers of art must feel, a profound regret at this state of things. Greece and the Greeks have had more than their share of abuse. The country is poor beyond the conception of people who know only rich and prosperous communities; with all the good-will in the world, there is *no* money to spare. Moreover, it has hitherto been an universal experience that, in a newly organized, half-developed, immature community, the shysters and knaves have more than their share of offices and of influence; perhaps the great United States have seen something of that. And when it is urged that Greece has had fifty years to shake off her swarm of vermin, and recover from the harm they do, the answer is twofold: Growth and development are but slow, politically, under such poor economic conditions, in such an absence of industry, commerce, and wealth; and, moreover, Greece had to begin again when the retrograde and benighted Bavarian régime came to an end only twenty years ago. With all deference for the opinions of those who know Greece long and well, I, who am but a passing visitor, busied only with carved stones, cannot join in blaming what I deplore, the forlorn condition of the museums of Athens.

There is but one thing which we, the outside world of students, have a right to ask of the Greeks: that they shall not allow their works of ancient art to be destroyed. The time will come when what then exists will be properly displayed; meantime let us ask, let us demand, let us insist upon one thing only—safe keeping. Let these statues lie upon their backs for ten years longer on the dry marble pavement; let the loveliest bas-reliefs in the world lean against walls, barely visible, in a bad light, if they must; but let them be guarded; let visitors' canes be kept away; let us entreat the Hellenic authorities to put a less feeble and worn-out race of *invalides* in charge, and prevent idle saunterers from rapping the marbles hard with the iron ferrules of their sticks, as one sees it done to-day. What we have of good old art is gradually being destroyed; all over Europe, neglect and "restoration," hand in hand, are all the while wiping out of existence what is most precious to us. In Greece every body, natives and foreigners, naturally thinks of exploration and excavation, and the adding to the stock of ancient sculptures, bronzes, terracottas, and the like. Very well; but first what is already above ground should be cared for. What we have should not be destroyed while we busy ourselves digging up more.

RUSSELL STURGIS.

THE IRISH FRANCHISE AND REGISTRATION QUESTION.

DUBLIN, August 25.

MR. HEALY, in the House of Commons on Thursday night, indulged in one of his fiery and detailed assaults upon the Government's position in Ireland: "From the day you first landed on our shores, 700 years ago, down to the 23d of August, 1883, you did nothing for the people that you could possibly abstain from doing." We may regard this as rhetoric; there is in it, however, a certain amount of truth. Nothing has been freely, and openly, and gladly conceded, as measures have been conceded to our British neighbors, and as they would be conceded by a Government dependent on and representative of the people. The rejection by the Lords of the Irish Registration Bill, the suppressed excitement this rejection has caused in Ireland, and the certainty that it will be a fertile cause of discussion during the recess, render it desirable we should have a clear conception of what the Irish franchise and registration question is.

If there is one right more than another that should be common to the inhabitants of all parts of the United Kingdom, it is the franchise. Irishmen are often called to account for not taking a genuine interest in the political questions which more especially agitate Great Britain, and which concern us as well. We always have felt that great reforms would be shorn of their benefits in their application to Ireland, and it was so in the case of the Reform Bill of 1867. The wide and general and hearty extension of the franchise to our fellow-subjects in the sister island was not accorded to us. A feeble protest was made by a few Irish members. But those were the days when we were "respectably" represented—when the men we sent over for the most part fell under the spell of British public opinion and the "tone" of the House. Ireland and its constituencies were far off. London, with its splendid privileges and enjoyments, was present. A green scarf and a little spread-eagle sunburstism would make matters all right at the next election. The Irish Franchise Bill was let pass, and the question has been an open sore ever since.

In the United States, as I take it, the vote centres in the man. In the United Kingdom it centres in the house, room, farm, estate, or chattel interest. Show me that you, A, B, and C, occupy the house, room, and farm, D, E, F, and you may have your votes. A blind beggar, unable to read and write, occupying a room worth a dollar a week, has a vote; while three wealthy college professors, living in common, would not have votes. If 1,000 men moved into the town X for a few years for a temporary purpose (say the construction of a great viaduct), the voting power of X would not be increased. It would probably be lessened, for some of the 1,000 would probably share rooms or houses with the voters, who would thereby lose their votes. We cannot have more than one vote in a town or district; but there is nothing to prevent our having votes, if we have property enough, in every town and county. Many rich men, therefore, have a busy time of it flying round at a general election; and the sheriffs, who fix the date of the elections, often fix them to convenience their friends. Most business men in cities have now two votes—one out of their business premises, another out of their residence. The only franchise at all like yours is the "freeman" franchise—an hereditary franchise held from old times. In England, in the large mass of voters, it counts for nothing, and is divided between Liberals and Conservatives. Here it is an essentially unfair franchise, held by Protestants. Out of the constituency of Dublin, 13,000, some 2,000 are "freemen." It is, in truth, difficult for a man here to know whether he has the franchise or not. Except in the case of freemen, the questions of residence and property and occupancy are complicated with involved considerations, interpreted differently by officials in different parts of the country, as to whether a man has paid certain rates and taxes, and when he has paid them.

The principal and really important franchise arises out of residential occupancy; and to give any clear idea in a short space of the differences between the franchise in Great Britain and Ireland we must confine ourselves to a consideration of the differences regarding the residential occupancy (or "rated occupier") franchises of the two countries. I shall have to quote figures as illustrating the net result of these differences. It must not be supposed the unfairness regarding Ireland is as great as appears from them. If the franchise were dependent upon general intelligence perhaps Ireland would be entitled thereto in full proportion to her population. As it depends upon residence and occupancy, and as there is more improvidence, poverty, and overcrowding apparent in Ireland—especially in the towns—than in Great Britain, we should not have as large a proportion of voters even under the fairest adjustment of the law.

In British boroughs all rated householders whose taxes have been paid are entitled to votes; also, by a late decision of the judges, nearly all lodgers will for the future be so entitled. In Irish boroughs only rated householders whose houses are valued by Government at over £4 per annum (equal to a yearly rental of about £8 in Ireland, or £10 or £12 in England), and lodgers paying 4s. per week or over are entitled to votes. Irish boroughs have less than half as many Parliamentary voters in proportion to population as British boroughs. There has been no change since Mr. Butt's time in the relative proportions of population to alter the suggestiveness of a return he obtained upon this subject. Leeds, with a population of 259,200, had 43,800 electors; Dublin, with 267,700, had 12,800; Swansea, with 80,800, had 12,500 electors; Cork, with 100,500, had 4,400; Wolverhampton, with 157,000, had 23,300 electors; Belfast, with 174,400, had 15,000; Stafford, with 16,000, had 3,400 electors; Kilkenny, with 15,800, had 700 electors, and so on.

In English and Irish counties the occupier's franchise is nominally the same, a £12 Government valuation; but, from a difference in the method of valuing and other causes, English counties have more than one and a-half times as many voters in proportion to population as

Irish. In England the valuation, both in boroughs and counties, is based upon the rental, whereas in Ireland it is generally some 33 per cent. or more under the letting value. I hold two houses, the valuation of both of which is but 50 per cent. of the letting value. This valuation question is only spoken of under the breath in Ireland, as its regulation and consequent increase would add to the amount of our income tax. It will be thus understood that in Great Britain a farmer paying £12 rent finds his land valued at £12 for letting purposes and has the franchise, while here such a man would be rated at but £9 in Ireland, and would be excluded from a voice in the election of his Parliamentary representative. Taking boroughs and counties together, two men out of five have votes in Great Britain, while only one man in five has the same in Ireland. Again, illustrating the position by figures from Mr. Butt's return, Eastern Sussex, with a population of 139,600, had 10,000 electors; Dublin County, with 140,500, had 4,400; East Yorkshire, with 140,600, had 11,000 electors; Limerick, with 141,500, had 6,500; Cheshire, with 349,000, had 23,200; Cork, with 396,600, had 16,200; Gloucestershire, with 251,400, had 20,800 electors; Down, with 263,800, had 11,500.

In England every person, *male and female*, who has occupied for twelve months any house rated for poor relief, is entitled to the municipal franchise. In Ireland every *man* only, who has occupied a house rated at the value of £10 (equal to a rental of some £18 in Ireland or £24 in England) is so entitled. English towns have from four to nine times as many voters, for municipal purposes, as Irish towns. Leeds, with a population of 259,200, had 52,800 municipal electors; Dublin, with 246,300 (the municipal is not the same as the Parliamentary population), had 5,600; Bradford, with 245,800, had 29,500 voters; Belfast, with 174,400, had 5,500; Swansea, with 80,800, had 8,700 voters; Cork, with 78,600, had 2,000; Gateshead, with 48,300, had 10,300 voters; Limerick, with 39,800, had 1,100.

The present inequalities have existed for fifteen years. The Government has made no real move to reform them, and has given no effective assistance to the Irish members, who have pressed them again and again upon Parliament. Such disabilities scarcely tend to sweeten the character and bearing of the Irish people and those who represent them, or to render them enthusiastic supporters of the British Constitution. Delay inevitably complicates reform. In 1867, when even-handed justice might fairly have been done, there was no "Irish Parliamentary party." Now, it would perhaps be hard to expect the Ministry to feel very enthusiastic about strengthening the hands of those who are their opponents.

So much for the letter of the Irish franchise; now for a glance at some of the additional disabilities which the Registration Bill just thrown out by the Lords was intended to redress. The Government have twice brought in this Registration Bill, and it has been twice rejected by the Upper House. It is nevertheless maintained by the National party that the Government have never shown any real earnestness in the matter —such earnestness and determination as they have always shown in relation to repressive measures for Ireland. Nor have they taken any trouble to secure the attendance of a sufficient number of their followers in the Upper House. There are 490 Peers; the Ministry can command a majority upon all important occasions, or they could not carry on the work of the country. The Registration Bill was defeated the other day by 52 Conservatives to 32 supporters of the Government. In other words, but 32 hereditary legislators cared to support a measure declared by Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Trevelyan to be a necessary measure of justice to Ireland.

Every precaution is taken that the British voter shall have his vote. Here it is not so. In all cases the burthen of objection is thrown upon the objector. (1.) In Ireland no reason need be assigned. The objections can be sent out at a cost of but threepence each (six cents), and if the voters do not attend at the Revision Court they are disfranchised. They are seldom granted any compensation for loss of time in meeting frivolous objections. I have lived in the county of Dublin for eighteen years—nine years in one house, nine years in another. I pay my taxes regularly. I have, I believe, never yet had the vote. Each year I have received an "objection paper" from one or other party (often from both parties). Each year I have not had the time to devote one or more days to attendance at the Revision Court. Consequently my name, while retained for all *obligations*, such as jury-serving, is for all *rights* erased. Poor, hardworking voters in districts remote from the revision centre are swept off by the hundred. The organization on the Conservative and landlord side is, as it has generally been, complete and vigilant. Their friends are those who can best afford to attend and sustain their votes, and humbler voters are often deterred from appearing through the fear of giving offence to landlords, agents, and officials. Some unexpected and dire misfortune to the National party is upon the cards at the next revision in consequence of the vigor with which the weapon of "objection" is now being worked. (2.) By one legal quibble, apart from objections, some 5,000 men are disfranchised in Dublin. (3.) In Great Britain there is a penalty of £2 on the proper officer for omitting a name from the registry; in Ireland there is no such provision, and the officers are generally under the influence of and friendly to the Conservative party. (4.) In Great Britain the owners of property are bound under heavy penalties to return to the overseers the names of their tenants entitled to vote. In Ireland there is no such provision. (5.) In England the overseers are bound under a penalty to send notice to a man that unless he pays his taxes by a particular day he will be disfranchised. In Ireland there is no such provision. (6.) In England every inducement, as much in some cases as 15 to 20 per cent. reduction, is held out to owners to pay the rates necessary to entitle occupiers to the franchise. In Ireland there is no such provision. In the richer country a bonus is given to induce men to avail themselves of their right; in the poorer country every obstacle is thrown in the way of those who are desirous of exercising it. (7.) In Great Britain the revising barrister in every town over 10,000 inhabitants must hold an evening sitting for the convenience of persons employed during the day. In Ireland there is no such provision.

There is no defence for these anomalous differences. In Great Britain every householder, man or woman, has the municipal franchise, and every male householder can, in the words of Chief-Justice Holt, "vote for a member of Parliament, who has the power to bind both his person and his property." The people of Ireland enjoy no such privilege; they for the most part stand outside the pale of the Constitution. I cannot better conclude this somewhat dry and perhaps uninteresting communication than in the words of the London *Times*, printed many years ago: "Of all the enterprises on which legislative and administrative time can be wasted, the most useless, except in exceptional circumstances, is that of attacking secret societies. The only way to counterbalance them is to open to men in the ordinary institutions of the country the means of obtaining all the political objects they can reasonably desire." Mr. Gladstone has, as I have said, intimated that the Registration Bill, or one more inclusive, will be reintroduced next session. Let us hope that the question of the assimilation of the Irish and British franchise will likewise be dealt with.

D. B.

Correspondence.

GREEK AND ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a contribution to the recently-revived discussion of the value of Greek in our educational curriculum, the following *facts* are submitted for what they are worth: Our city high school has three parallel courses of study extending through four years, and known as the "English," "Latin-English," and "classical," only the latter including Greek as a regular study. At the graduation of each class a medal is awarded for the best English essay upon a subject assigned by the faculty, and several "honorable mentions" are made of others approaching in merit the prize essay. All the graduates are obliged to compete. The awarding of these honors is usually made by a committee of college professors. The report on the essays of the last class was signed by President Porter, of Yale College.

The records of the school show that in the last ten years (1874–1883) the graduates of the "classical" divisions have averaged *twenty* per cent. of the entire classes, while they have taken nearly *thirty four* per cent. of the honors (medals and "honorable mentions" combined), and *sixty* per cent. of the medals alone. The mathematics in the three courses is virtually the same. The scholars in the English course study rhetoric one year, and those of both the English and Latin-English study English literature one year, mental science one year, and political economy and moral science each one semester. The members of the classical division are of necessity deprived of all these last-mentioned studies, and take Greek in their stead during three years. In the comparison of teachers, I should say the English and Latin-English have the advantage. I submit that, à priori, the graduates in the two last-named courses ought to be better fitted for writing English composition than those who have given their attention mainly to Greek in place of these eminently "practical" English studies; but the foregoing figures, if they have any bearing on the subject, do not confirm this opinion. These facts seem to me all the more important, in view of the statement so often reiterated, that "time is spent on *Greek* to the great detriment of learning to think and express one's thoughts in good English." R.

Albany, Sept. 6, 1883.

PRESIDENT PORTER ON THE STUDY OF ANGLO-SAXON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Doubtless many of us who are interested in college matters turned with great eagerness to see what President Porter, in the *Princeton Review* for September, had to say about Mr. Adams's recent address, "A College Fetich." We certainly got some information. We learned that Mr. Adams, as well as his "hesitating" predecessor, "the adventurous and sanguine President of Harvard College," was sadly astray in his views about the place of Greek in a college curriculum. We learned, too, that Soft Electives are a Serbonian Bog, and that the whole elective system is full of "fatal temptations."

But not on account of all these things did I, for one, go away sorrowful. On page 127 President Porter is very stern against those who are "foremost to reduce the study of Greek to an elective branch, and to treat it as a select and rare form of intellectual culture, like Quaternions or Anglo-Saxon or Icelandic. . . ." Undesigned testimony, we know, is the best testimony. President Porter testifies that he considers the study of the early forms of our own language and of the splendid beginnings of our literature just as needless for the general student as the study of Quaternions or Icelandic. What light this may throw on President Porter's ability to discuss fairly and liberally the general question of college studies, is not for me to say; but it will be permitted me to express a little anxiety for the future of the Early English Text Society.

FRANCIS B. GUMMERE.

MT. DESERT AND ITS FREQUENTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter in the *Nation* of August 23 from a "Boarder" at Bar Harbor is a valuable addition to my own, because it enumerates the things needful to be done there which I had not space to mention in detail. Still, a fuller acquaintance with the history of the place and of the present condition of things would have prevented the reflections upon the course of the Selectmen. Any one who knows where the work began fifteen years ago, rather admires what has been accomplished than wonders at what is still wanting. In nothing has the task been harder than in the matter of roads, for, with the single exception of the old post road between the Narrows and Southwest Harbor, every road on the island has been built within that time, or so completely made over as to amount to new. The shore roads are, as the "Boarder" suggests, absolutely indispensable if the island is to be a great resort; but nowhere and upon no point is the influence of the Cottager so powerful and so fatal as upon this. Certainly the road to the Ovens ought to be built, but the plan for the small piece of it from Duck Brook to Hull's Cove, constructed last spring, cost a three-years' struggle, and was at last carried only at the point of the bayonet. It was the Cottager, present and prospective, who fought most bitterly against it. No one knows better than the Selectmen of Eden (I speak advisedly) what would be the gain of a road from Great Head to Otter Cliffs, but it would cost all the town was worth twelve years ago. The road along the west shore of the island must be built by the towns of Mt. Desert and Tremont. They are poor. Much of the shore is already in the hands of speculators. None of the three towns has yet accumulated anything. It has taken all that the summer has brought to do what they have already done.

Such, in brief, are the reasons why outside help, as I said before, has become necessary—outside help, directly, in actual money from the merchants and the corporations that have interests there, and then, indirectly but even more powerfully, in the moral help which may come from a public opinion that will duly value the shore, and will condemn any selfishly exclusive enjoyment of it.

A. R.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Our community has just been sorely "shocked" by the assassination of an estimable citizen of this county. He had been tried some months ago for an assault with intent to murder, and had been acquitted. Prudential motives, however, had detained him away from home until recently. He returned a few weeks since and resumed his business. One day, shortly after his return, he was found dead in the road near his house. A post-mortem examination disclosed the fact that he was fired at from the roadside with a gun loaded with buckshot and mortally wounded; that while his victim lay dying, the assassin approached and fired five pistol-balls into the body to make sure of his work. This occurred at Le Grand, a station on the Montgomery Southern Railway, twelve miles from this point. The murder is of a much more deliberate sort than those common in the South, but the murderous spirit so plain in this instance is none the less present in "the heated encounters" we hear so much of in this section.

The rationale of Southern homicide is, it seems, very far from being satisfactorily determined. The *Nation* has been more successful in demolishing all attacks made upon its criticism than in explaining why there should be an occasion for its criticism. The Cavalier theory of the origin of Southern fondness for homicide may be rejected as useless. According to that theory, never did a little leaven leaven so mighty a mass before. Consider the case made out against the South, that, among all classes of people there, life is frequently taken under circumstances that excite the horror and wonder of civilized communities elsewhere: why do not Southerners feel the same horror and wonder at Southern murders?

The man who was suspected of the murder referred to above had his preliminary trial in this place. The trial was attended by a crowd of witnesses from the neighborhood where the crime was committed, but to the citizens of Montgomery (the writer included) the trial of the suspected man has been of little interest. The dead man lived in this county, and was known here; the writer knew him personally. We have all gone our ways. I sit down to write the *Nation* how little we care about the murder.

This indifference to life is due, I am strongly persuaded, to the effects of slavery. This would be difficult to prove, and will recommend itself differently to different minds as an explanation. It is an easy application of the method of difference to say slavery has made the best Southern people indifferent to life. Because it has an easy application, however, is one reason why we are likely to overlook its value to us in this instance. Slavery enveloped and controlled the growth of the South until a few years since. This is a large fact—so large that, when an estimable citizen is shot down by another estimable citizen, we must run to their English ancestry, that was perhaps Scotch, perhaps French, for an explanation of the murder. Why neglect the leading characteristic of the South? Slavery was the South. If politics partook of the definiteness of religion, and we were able to speak with the exactitude of a theologian in discussing social life, a Southern political catechism might be easily written. It might follow the Westminster and ask, "Who made you?" The answer from the young political student would be, "Slavery." If, like the Westminster also, it attempted prophecy, and, unlike that, allowed change, and should contain another question, "Who will make you over again?" the answer would be, "The slave."

The student who seeks an answer to Southern problems ought first to assure himself of the influence of slavery. When he has weighed this and found it small in any instance, then he will be right in seeking for other determining causes. In the two following considerations he will, I think, get near a solution of the enigma of Southern homicide: first, the latent anarchy of the Southern slave system, verging as it did upon war, and the consequent disregard of life among all classes; second, the widely-dispersed nature of settlement at the South, that caused every planter to set the bounds to his own passions. Every Southerner was a sort of Italian republic within himself. Like the modern Jingo, also, he sought peace with honor, and he warred to get it. I leave to a more skilful hand than mine the task of reconciling the fierce Germanic spirit of independence in the Southerner with his strong subservience to the opinion of his neighbor. Or is all this too likely to be, with our passion for life-taking, a thing of the past, because the product of a past? The practice of shooting at sight will continue, we may be sure, for many years yet at the South. The disappearance of the practice will be thought as certain to be, at a sooner or a later day, as we put great or little trust in the beneficent action of the social forces of our time. These forces are now pouring into the veins of the old South. The *Nation* deserves our gratitude for beginning and encouraging a rational discussion of a topic that is important to the whole Union.

Very respectfully, THOS. H. CLARK.

MONTGOMERY, ALA., Sept. 8, 1883.

A LAST WORD ON McMASTER'S HISTORY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of September 6 contains a letter from "Editor of *Book Notes*" in regard to McMaster's 'History.' I am content to leave readers to judge, from his own statement of his case, whether his criticisms are microscopic; but, in simple justice to Mr. McMaster, I must ask space enough in the *Nation* to complete a citation made by "Editor," and to add what he has omitted in order to make out a prima-facie case.

He cites from page 339 of McMaster's 'History,' italicising to suit his purpose, stops just at the point beyond which he did not venture to go, and then comments as follows:

"Now, I maintain that the impression upon the reader's mind is, all through, that this proposed law was a real law; that for a time the people labored under it; and that, at a subsequent meeting of the Legislature, it was repealed: all of which is untrue, and no part of the history of Rhode Island."

As a comment on his commentary, let me complete his citation from the point at which he stops:

"In this form the law went before the people. Town meetings were immediately called to discuss it; but the partisans of the bank had, by their own violence, inflicted a deep injury upon their cause. Many honest and fair-minded men, who were prepared to welcome with delight the appearance of a paper currency, were not prepared to vote for the bill. They believed that the new money would lighten many burdens. To them, taking the oath would be a small matter; but they shrank from the thought of giving their assent to a law that forbade men of a different mind to sail their ships, to cast their votes, to practise their professions, to hold any office of public trust, till they had come before an officer of the law, and, stammering and stuttering from shame, called their Maker to witness that they would do a thing they thought to be both foolish and wicked. There was also some fear of a great exodus. It seemed likely that a number of rich merchants and prosperous tradesmen would, before submitting to so degrading an act, pack up their goods, desert their homes, and set off for a neighboring State. Everywhere the oath was denounced in the strongest terms; and when the returns were all in, it was found that but three towns had given an assenting vote. At North Kingston, Scituate, and Forster, those who approved so far outnumbered those who opposed the bill that the delegates were instructed to support it in the Legislature. Their support was of no use. In November the Test Act was thrown out by an overwhelming majority."

By adding this to the extract given by "Editor" last week, any reader is competent to decide on

whom rests the burden of the *suppressio veri*. I do not feel that I should be justified in asking the *Nation* for any more space on this point.

J.

NORWALK, CONN., Sept. 7, 1883.

GEN. CROOK AND THE APACHES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of August 16, a correspondent, "F. E. R.," makes the statement that "the value of General Crook's campaign among the Apaches in Mexico seems to me to have been overestimated. A great personal triumph over natural obstacles has been so exaggerated in importance that it appears as a public benefit." He then gives several reasons—which, it is fair to presume, seem to him to be sufficient—"why the capture of the Apaches General Crook brought in was not of the value which has been given to it."

The first reason assigned by your correspondent is the fact that the Apaches, "when he [General Crook] came up with them, were anxious to be on the San Carlos reservation, . . . because they realized [this he takes from General Crook's statements] that they were no longer able to make a successful stand against the whites." Your correspondent adds: "How the Indians arrived at this conclusion, or what past experience they had on which to base it, we are not told"; and, in the absence of the necessary information, he assumes that these Apaches *had gone out* from the San Carlos reservation, and desired to return to it to recruit for future raids.

I ask the privilege of your valuable space to supply, however imperfectly, the missing information. In the first place, the above is an unfair statement, and one calculated to convey the impression that General Crook toiled over the rocks into the heart of the Sierra Madre in the character of a peace commissioner, anxious for "the transfer of a band of murderers from a place of discomfort and danger to a city of refuge." It omits to state that a few hours, or days, before the Apaches sent in runners asking to be taken to the San Carlos reservation (not to *return* to it, please observe, for many, if not the greater part, of them were the "incorrigibles"—men never before on a reservation), General Crook had struck them the "quick, hard blow these Indians deserved"—a killing blow, as any one familiar with these Indians will understand, because it *destroyed their confidence in their strongholds*, and showed them that General Crook, with whose reputation they are perfectly acquainted and whom they *fear* (I make this statement based upon three years' close observation of the Arizona Apaches), had at last been able to break through the obstacle of a national boundary-line, the importance of which as a means of defence the Indians perfectly understood, and that their particular time for punishment had arrived. Here we have a good reason why the Indians were anxious for peace: they were whipped. The actual number of killed in the fight was of little importance; the dread of General Crook's methods of Indian fighting had come home to them, and they will not forget it. All the soldiers who worked and suffered—"died daily," so to speak—under the privations and hardships of General Crook's Apache campaigns from 1871 to 1875, will understand perfectly the exact effect and importance of his latest success. These men can remember how the Arivaypa Apaches were driven out of their stronghold in the Pinal Mountains, and sued for a peace which they have kept; how the Tonto Apaches were hunted, with incredible toil, through the Mazatzal Mountains and over the "Black Mesa" until they submitted; and how the name of Crook became a perfect terror to the Apache Indians of Arizona. I respectfully submit that "F. E. R." is greatly in error if he supposes that General Crook allowed these Indians to come in without satisfactory proof that they were subdued; and I trust I may be pardoned if I add that the judgment of a man who is feared by all the Indians of Arizona, and respected because he never broke his word to them, is of more value than that of the gentleman who innocently remarks that the "anxiety" (of the Indians) "to be on the reservation may be accounted for by remembering that during April, May, and June in southern Arizona . . . the grass is poor and the game not desirable." Evidently "F. E. R." is unaware of the fact that the Apaches are foot-soldiers, mountain-climbers, dependent only upon their sturdy legs for transportation, and that they subsist for months on the vegetable mescal to be found on every hillside.

In regard to the question of adequate punishment for these Indians, I am sorry that "F. E. R." has a "feeling of shame" for our frontier soldiers, because, in his opinion, they "have failed to strike the quick, hard blows these Indians deserved"; but I am comforted by the thought that he probably knows as little about what they have done as he does of the nature and habits of the Apaches. Otherwise, I am sure, he would find no ground for shame.

The Indian question is not to be settled in a few lines of newspaper correspondence, but I venture to say that any punishment inflicted on the Indians in a spirit of *revenge* is unworthy of a civilized nation. If, therefore, these Apaches were subdued, and would remain peaceable, for which I am willing to accept General Crook's judgment, it was entirely in accordance with all precedents to make peace with them. To punish the individuals for acts committed by the tribe, and for which all are guilty, is simply to declare a war of extermination. J. B. B.

FORT ROBINSON, NEBRASKA, Sept. 1, 1883.

ITALIAN UNFRIENDLINESS TO SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We have, in Italy, been under the régime of a mixed silver and gold coinage, brought down to par after several years of irredeemable paper circulation, but silver is generally avoided and paper preferred to it for anything above a two-franc piece. Our postmaster apologized to me yesterday for giving me two five-franc pieces in change, as he had no paper, and the landlady of a hotel at which I lunched two or three days ago apologized for giving me gold in change for a fifty-franc note, as she found it impossible to get small notes enough to satisfy the demand, though she could have silver by the sack if she wanted it. The five-franc piece is shunned by everybody, except now and then an Englishman new to the country.

This is evidently an indication of the fate of silver if forced into circulation under the double standard. There will be a revolt against it if the tender is made substantial and practical.

W.

FLORENCE, August 23, 1883.

Notes.

BESIDES a new and uniform edition of the works of Donald G. Mitchell ("Ik Marvel"), already announced, Charles Scribner's Sons will soon begin publication of a collection of 'English Verse,' edited by W. J. Linton and R. H. Stoddard, in five volumes 16mo. These will be respectively divided into Chaucer to Burns, Lyrics of the Nineteenth Century, Ballads and Romances, Dramatic Selections, Translations. Purity of text will be one of the special aims of the editors. Mr. Stoddard will furnish an introduction to each volume, and there will be an abundance of brief notices, biographical and other. The same publishers announce 'Music in England and America,' by Dr. F. L. Ritter, an historical survey; 'Historical Handbook of Italian Sculpture,' by Charles C. Perkins; 'Mrs. Gilpin's Frugalities,' by Miss Susan A. Brown, showing how to use up remnants in the kitchen; 'Biblical Study,' by Prof. Charles A. Briggs; 'The Doctrine of Sacred Scripture,' by Prof. Geo. T. Ladd; and the following works by foreign authors: Prof. J. S. Blackie's 'The Wisdom of Goethe'; Prof. Julius Köstlin's 'Life of Martin Luther'; and Moritz Busch's 'Our Chancellor,' or Bismarck in private life, his religious views, etc.

Doyle & Whittle, Boston, will reprint in one volume, illustrated, 'Newfoundland: its History, Present Condition, and Future Prospects,' by Joseph Hatton and the Rev. M. Harvey.

J. B. Lippincott & Co., in connection with Smith, Elder & Co., of London, have in preparation a new edition of Thackeray's works, which will be published in twenty-six volumes 8vo. In this "Standard Edition" will be included some of Thackeray's writings which have not before been collected, with many additional illustrations. New type and fine paper will make this, with the exception of the *édition de luxe*, the largest and handsomest edition that has been published. The first volume, containing 'Vanity Fair,' vol. i., with a portrait of the author, twenty-one steel plates and eighty-four wood engravings, will be published early in October, and a new volume each succeeding month until the conclusion of the series.

Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, will publish 'Round about Rio,' by F. D. Y. Carpenter, being a year's experience of an American family in Brazil; and 'Political Recollections, from 1840 to 1872,' by Geo. W. Julian.

'Dulce Domum,' poems by Benjamin F. Taylor; 'World Life, or Comparative Geology,' by Prof. Alexander Winchell; and F. W. Horn's 'History of the Literature of the Scandinavian North,' translated by Prof. R. B. Anderson, with a very full bibliography of important books in English relating to Scandinavia, by Thorvald Solberg, are in the press of S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago.

The late Mr. Edward Fitzgerald, best known as the translator of Omar Khayyâm, has left behind him several pieces which have hitherto been circulated only among his personal friends. These will now be collected and published, probably with others of his works which are less accessible, and the whole will be accompanied by a selection from his letters, should there be sufficient material for the purpose. If there are any of Mr. Fitzgerald's correspondents who have preserved his letters, they are invited to communicate with his literary executor, Mr. Aldis Wright, Trinity College, Cambridge, England.

Mr. Henry Irving will make a book as well as a tour of this country, and already promises 'Impressions of America,' to be published immediately on his return. Mr. Joseph Hatton, we are told, has in hand a biography of this actor.

The announcement made by not a few newspapers that M. Coquelin, the great comedian of the Théâtre-Français, was about to publish his reminiscences of Gambetta, of whom he was one of the closest personal friends, is premature. The book is not only not ready for the press, but, we understand, the first line of it has not been written. M. Coquelin is making notes now and then for the book; but he intends waiting at least a year or two, until the temper of Gambetta's enemies and political opponents has had

time to cool off, before he publishes his tribute to his friend's memory. He desires to dwell more particularly on Gambetta's unusual gifts as a critic of art and of literature, and on the extraordinary facility with which he assimilated all that was best in contemporary thought. The book, when it does appear, will not be large—no larger, indeed, than the comedian's other books, in one of which, by the way, the lecture on the poetry of M. Eugène Manuel, he took occasion to make an outline sketch of Gambetta. M. Coquelin has now in press a lecture on 'L'Art de dire le Monologue,' in which he incidentally discusses the ever debatable question as to the proper delivery of verse on the stage. This little essay ought to be as instructive and as entertaining as that other on 'L'Art du Comédien,' of which there is an American translation. 'L'Art de dire le Monologue' will have a supplement by M. Coquelin's brother, the most famous comic monologuist of Paris, in which the more farcical and extravagantly humorous side of the question will be treated at length.

Some two years ago, in No. 835 of the *Nation*, we reviewed at length M. Louis Gonse's life of that interesting man and artist, Eugène Fromentin. This work has now been translated by Mary Caroline Robbins, and published with the portrait and facsimiles of sketches which accompanied the original ('E. Fromentin, Painter and Writer,' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.). The book is beautifully printed.

A general welcome will be extended to the "Handbook Dictionary" (English-French-German) by George F. Chambers, of which the American publishers are G. P. Putnam's Sons. The arrangement is in parallel columns; the selection of English words and phrases has strict reference to every-day usefulness in conversation; the memory is allowed to be burdened with but a single equivalent for the required idea in the three languages; the gender, finally, of nouns is manifested typographically to the eye, as *Faculté* (fem.), DÉFAUT (masc.) MISSLINGEN (neut.). All this has been carried out with great pains and intelligence, after vivavoce discussions of every word (as the compiler assures us) with Frenchmen and Germans. Compactness is attained by avoiding repetitions or cross-references. For example, "keep dry" is placed under *Dry* and not also under *Keep*. But this will cause but little trouble. Two pages are devoted to *Go* and the versatile *Get* respectively. We miss the handy phrases "all right," "help (me) out," "have done!" in the sense of cease; "out of mind," though the other half of the proverb is given; "out of sorts," "out of patience," "out of luck," and a few other trifles.

A real advance in social science is the establishment of schools for the selection and instruction of nurses. In this country nearly all the efficient work in that direction has been done within the past ten years, but now the trained nurse has become a recognized and important factor in the care of the seriously sick. The schools are generally practical ones, in connection with the larger hospitals, where both patients and facilities for caring for them abound; and as great care is taken in the selection of the pupils, the field is being occupied by young women of a good order of intelligence and character. Dr. W. G. Thompson, of this city, who has had personal knowledge of the working of one of the best of these schools, has published an account of what has been done at home and abroad up to date, with special reference to their organization ('Training Schools for Nurses': G. P. Putnam's Sons). His little book is useful to those contemplating the occupation and to those desiring aid, and it is interesting to the general reader. Both Boston and Philadelphia excel New York in having a central Directory, a sort of exchange, where trained nurses can be secured without delay, and where the nurses can make themselves known without unpleasant advertising. Such a Directory is more than a convenience: it is a public benefit. In New York, at present, chance and favor do more than system to secure help in an emergency.

A so called Centennial Edition of 'Irving's Life of Washington' has been got out in quarto form, in two parts, with paper covers, by G. P. Putnam's Sons. It is illustrated with woodcuts, and is well calculated for wide popular favor.

Harper & Bros. have published a new edition of R. D. Blackmore's 'Lorna Doone,' and have added to their Franklin Square Library 'The New Timothy' of the late Rev. William M. Baker.

The Society of the Cincinnati receives, apropos of the centennial celebration of its founding, especial attention in the September number of the *Magazine of American History*. Gen. John Cochrane's article is not much more, however, than an excuse for some very interesting portraits of Presidents and members of the Society.

No. 3 of vol. ix. of the Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute is wholly given up to a paper on 'The Development of Armor for Naval Use,' by Lieut. E. W. Very, U. S. N.

A kindred subject is treated in the latest publication of the Board of Engineers for Fortifications: 'The Fortifications of To-day' (Washington: Government Printing-Office), which consists of translations from the German and the Italian on fire against models of coast batteries and parados; and on horizontal and curved fire in defence of coasts.

An illustrated paper at Cincinnati, called the *Week*, and a *Commercial Traveller's Magazine*, also illustrated, published in this city, are among the novelties in periodical literature.

At last the 'Almanach des Spectacles' for 1882 has made its appearance, with an etching by M. Lalauze of Mlle. Bartet, of the Comédie-Française. The typography of the little volume is as delightful as ever. The two other French theatrical annuals have also appeared—M. Mortier's 'Soirées Parisiennes,' with a striking preface by M. Becque and a cover reproducing a picture of M. Clairin's recently exhibited in New York; and the 'Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique,' with a highly-interesting preface on *mise-en-scène* by M. Émile Perrin, the manager of the Théâtre-Français.

The formation of an American Ornithologists' Union, in accordance with a late prospectus, is now assured. The first convention will be held in the lecture-room of the American Museum of Natural History, in this city, on Wednesday, Sept. 26, at 11 A. M.

—The Board of Regents of the University of Michigan have recently published a reply to the Memorial of the Philological Association and of the Association for the Advancement of Science, in regard to the matter of conferring the degree of Ph.D. *honoris causa*. The subject was referred by the Regents to a committee, consisting of President Angell and Professors Frieze and Adams; and the Report of that Committee is published as the answer to the Memorial. The Report takes the ground that the memorialists are in error in saying that "in Germany the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is as much a professional degree as that in Theology, Law, or Medicine," and cites in proof a letter received by the Committee from Professor Roth, as well as the words on the same subject in the work on German Higher Education by M. Edmond Dreyfus-Brisac. Use is made of the table given by the French author, showing that at the University of Bonn, one of the most exacting of the German universities in regard to degrees, the degree of Ph.D. in the last sixteen years has been conferred 760 times on examination, and 105 times *honoris causa*. In a single year the honorary degree was conferred by that one university on eighteen persons. In view of these facts it is claimed by the Committee that the argument of the memorialists, so far as it rests upon German precedent and custom, falls to the ground. Unless the authorities quoted by the Committee are sadly at fault, the custom in Germany in regard to honorary degrees is identical with that of our own best institutions. The Committee deplore the frequency with which honorary degrees have been conferred by many of our colleges, but they are of the opinion that the University of Michigan has been particularly chary in the bestowal of its academic honors. In conclusion the Committee recommend no change in the policy of the university. In short, because others have been and perhaps still are intemperate in the matter of degrees, they see no reason for a policy of total abstinence on their own part.

—We noted in our last volume the existence of the custom of breaking a straw in ratification of a bargain in India, in Rome, in Germany, and in England. M. Gaidoz has pointed out, in the *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions*, a much greater extension of the practice of driving nails into idols when offering a prayer. The object is to call the attention of the god; the prayer being thought to penetrate his mind as the metal penetrates his body—indeed, to the primitive savage the distinction between idol and god, between body and mind, must have been very vague or non-existent. It is so still in children, and we fancy in more men than is ordinarily supposed. Be that as it may, the nail rite which is practised in Congo had its parallel in the most sacred solemnities of republican Rome. On great occasions, when the state was in danger, during a pestilence, during an epidemic of poisoning, a dictator was appointed *clavi figendi causa*. He did not drive the nail into the image—a stone image could not be pierced—but into the walls of the temple. The Roman rite is in its second stage: there has been a "substitution"; but it is in intention and at the bottom the same as the African. What is the common cause of the two? Is it historical or psychological? is it transmission or human nature? If it is derivation from a common stock, what is the source from which Rome and Congo have alike sprung? If it is communication from savage tribe to savage tribe, when was it made, and what was the link between two such different races? If it was neither of these causes, but only the inevitable result of the primitive efforts at prayer, how are we ever to argue a community of origin from a community of superstition, and what profit for the history of races is the laborious study of legends? Rome and Congo were not the only practisers of nail-prayer. In France it has survived till recently in connection with a survival of tree-worship. A great oak near Angers was covered with nails to the height of almost ten feet. At Vienna is the *Stock im Eisen*, a trunk which is a mere cuirass of nail-heads. And travellers report the nailing of sacred trees in Persia. Then there are various derivations of the rite, in which it appears with a changed significance or a modified practice. The Protestants in Montbéliard used, within a generation, to make marriages secure by driving a nail into the pulpit. In Brittany, girls who want a husband within a year push a pin into the wooden statue of a Spanish saint (St. Uferier). If the pin bends, the husband will be deformed. In another part of the country St. Quirec is treated in the same way, and in another parish

St. Christopher. If the pin does not go in at the first trial, the marriage will not take place within the year. When the statue is of stone, substitution is made as at Rome: the pins are put round it; and when the object to which the prayer is addressed is not an idol but a fountain or spring, the pins are thrown into it. There is some distance between a dictator driving a nail into the wall of a temple on the Capitoline Hill and a peasant girl throwing a pin into a brook in a French village, but there can be no doubt that their acts have the same origin and the same purpose—to call the attention of a supernatural power.

—Much ink was spilt a few years ago over a psycho-philological question regarding the development of the color sense in man. One party, represented by Gladstone, Geiger, and Magnus, claimed that our color-sense is of comparatively recent origin. The vagueness and apparent confusion in the use of color-epithets in Homeric and other early writings led them to believe that within historic times green, blue, and violet did not exist for our ancestors, while, further back, even the first two colors of the spectrum, red and yellow, would seem to disappear from literary records. This startling theory, however, was met by such solid and stubborn facts that those who were at first inclined to accept it as being possibly in accordance with modern notions of development, soon saw themselves obliged to abandon it. Mr. Grant Allen, in his work on the color-sense, presented evidence, based on special experiments, which showed that savages in all parts of the world have absolutely the same color sense as we have; and, as Evolution accepts the modern savage as the representative of our remote ancestors, it is hence inferred that the latter could not have been differently constituted. Mr. Allen also pointed out that all the principal colors are employed for decorative purposes by the ancient Indians, Egyptians, etc., and must therefore have been discriminated by these peoples at a time when these theorists suppose them to have been totally or partly color-blind. In an article published in *Macmillan's Magazine* for December, 1879, it was shown that even as far down in the scale as the monkey the retina has all the microscopic color elements which distinguish the human retina; and the apparent anomaly of ancient chromatic nomenclature was explained as being due to a want of æsthetic, and not of physical or physiological, development of the color-sense. But Herr Magnus has not yet, apparently, had all his doubts set at rest. In No. 420 of Virchow and Holtzendorff's 'Wissenschaftliche Vorträge,' just issued (Berlin: Carl Habel), he returns to the attack in a somewhat modified and surreptitious form. He admits that "we must not imagine that in those early phases of development mankind was in an optical condition analogous to our modern notion of color-blindness." The experiments on savages under his own direction, conducted on a somewhat different and more certain method than Grant Allen's, led to identical results, and he is forced to admit that, "hitherto at least, not a single tribe has been found lacking the power of perceiving any one of the principal colors" of the spectrum. Other anomalous phenomena, however, were discovered which are of the greatest interest. It was found everywhere that red and yellow are distinguished by name long before the more subdued colors at the other end of the spectrum representing the shorter waves—blue, green, and violet. Many primitive nations virtually divide colors into three groups: (1) red, including all nuances to yellow; (2) light, including all bright (intense) nuances of the different colors, except red; (3) dark, including all subdued nuances of the most different colors. In other words, the quantity of the light seems to be regarded earlier than its quality or color. Again, it has been shown that green and blue are much more difficult to recognize at a distance than red, and many Europeans at the present day, who are not really color-blind, are puzzled when they are asked to classify properly certain shades of blue, green, or violet. Finally, Professor Preyer's experiments on the perception of color by a child brought out the fact that in the second and the first half of the third year of its life there is an apparent insensibility to green and blue, while red and yellow are readily distinguished.

—All these things seem to point to a gradual evolution of the color-sense from the red to the violet end of the spectrum, and Doctor Magnus endeavors to show that the nomenclature everywhere keeps pace in specialization and definiteness with this physiological progress in perception. But his argument is hazy in regard to the real point at issue. Professor Preyer had no means of showing that his child could not physiologically discriminate between blue and green, but only that it showed *indifference* to those colors, while red and yellow, being more glaring and "loud," attracted its attention sooner. Very suggestive in this connection is an observation which Doctor Virchow made while experimenting on the color-sense of a band of Nubians in Berlin. At first they displayed hesitation and confusion as soon as they got beyond the red, but when the colored objects placed before them were enlarged their difficulties at once vanished. From this we may safely make the general inference that the retina of savages and children has all the anatomical elements of color-perception fully developed, but some of them are in a dormant state due to a lack of exercise—the result of *æsthetic indifference*. Blue, green, and violet are less glaring and more refined and æsthetic than red and yellow, and hence not as readily appreciated. If Doctor Magnus had taken the trouble to consult the article in *Macmillan's* already referred to, he might have saved himself the task of writing the present pamphlet. There has been, apparently, an æsthetic but not a physiological development of the color-sense within historic times, and parallel with this a development of a corresponding terminology. We find analogous phenomena in the sphere of the other senses—for example, in the sense of hearing. Many musical pupils with normal physiological development of the auditory apparatus are unable at first to distinguish between the minute fractions of a tone on which correct intonation is dependent; but æsthetic culture, by training the attention, very soon enables them to sing correctly in tune.

—To a perhaps not large class of readers the late Ivan Turgeneff stood for the greatest novelist of our day. No one, certainly, to whom the Russian is a sealed language, can exactly appreciate his genius. Of his diction, for example, we may be said to know nothing. The only quality which translations (speaking of prose works) cannot disguise is length, and in this respect we know that he stood at the other end of the line, say, from Thackeray or the author of 'Middlemarch.' On this account, and for the just measure of his brevity, it seems to some of us that Turgeneff was an artist in a sense that cannot be affirmed of his long-winded contemporaries, and that he will continue to be read with pleasure after a busy world has placed them on the shelf among the idols whose greatness is undisputed, though the worshippers have deserted their altars. We cannot possibly, again, estimate the value of his formal poetry, any more than a Russian could assign its rank to George Eliot's verse; but, on the other hand, we cannot mistake the poetry which suffuses his stories, and in particular that subtle and delicious blending of the landscape with human moods and passions in which what writer has ever excelled him? It would be superfluous to dwell on the rare loveliness of his female characters. They are a sure and honorable index of his esteem for that sex, and through them we are attracted as powerfully as in any other way to the author's personality. Here, at least, there can be no room for difference of opinion: Ivan Turgeneff had in him a noble and humane blood. Nor can there be any question of his patriotism. He shared this to the full with his sterling kinsman and fellow-exile Nicholas Turgeneff, the Russian abolitionist *par excellence*, the friend of Stein. To read the works of either without loving him was, we must believe, impossible for any man of sensibility.

—It is strange that, in a country where so much is thought of documentary evidence for history as in France, so little care should be given to the preservation of public archives; but so it is. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs has, indeed, after a good deal of complaint, organized its archives on a basis which insures their preservation and yet a sufficiently free use by scholars. But the archives of the War Office are almost entirely closed to workers, and the archives of the Navy Department are apparently open without restriction to pilferers. M. Flammermont has urged very strongly the preparation of inventories, which would reveal what treasures these archives now possess, and, if an examination was made from time to time, would render any dilapidations evident, and show where precautionary measures were needed. The same proposition was made some time ago, and the work was begun; but one of the numerous changes of Ministry threw the direction of affairs into other hands, and officialism prevailed. Why the persons in charge of the archives should be so opposed to inventories as they are is not evident, unless they want to steal without check themselves. Certain it is that in this country no library in the East, and of late years few large libraries in the West, think it possible to dispense with exact shelf-lists, as they are called. The annual "all present or accounted for" of the books recorded on these lists corresponds to the annual auditing of a treasurer's accounts, and is as useful to the librarians in protecting them against rash accusations of carelessness or dishonesty, as it is to the ruling boards in preventing those faults.

MISS FERRIER'S NOVELS.

Miss Ferrier's Novels. London: Richard Bentley & Son.

MESSRS. BENTLEY & SON have done well to republish Miss Ferrier's works: her novels are, in more ways than one, well worth careful perusal. Yet we doubt whether they will greatly interest the general reader. They are, indeed, the production of an author gifted with considerable talent; but a critic feels almost instinctively that no writer of half Miss Ferrier's cleverness would write nowadays as she did fifty or sixty years ago, and that an unknown author who should now repeat the style of 'Marriage' or 'Inheritance' would not find a publisher. The question which perplexes us as we study Miss Ferrier's pages is, What is the precise change which has come over novels and novel-readers during the last half-century? What is it which makes Miss Ferrier's humor and good sense seem so thoroughly antiquated and out of date? The inquiry deserves some consideration. It can, we believe, be answered only by frankly acknow-

ledging that, both in literary skill and in a quality which may be called thoughtfulness, the present generation have made a considerable advance beyond the point occupied by their fathers.

Take, first, the matter of literary skill. Miss Ferrier was, in point of natural ability, far above the average novel-writer of to-day. We doubt whether at the present moment there exists in England any living authoress (unless it be Mrs. Oliphant or Mrs. Thackeray Ritchie) who stands, in acuteness, in humor, in insight into character, much above the writer of 'Inheritance.' We shall not do Miss Ferrier injustice if we place her only a little below Miss Austen in point of humor, and Miss Edgeworth in point of wit and sterling sense. But high as we are inclined to put Miss Ferrier among the female novelists of England, we admit at once that she exhibits a want of literary skill which would hardly be betrayed by any one among the number of authors whose works are to be read in every month's magazine, and are forgotten before the month is out. What writer, for example, of any ability would now fill his pages with descriptions or reflections such as these?

"It rarely happens that one artificial mind can succeed in forming another. We rarely imitate what we do not love. There is something in human nature which recoils from an artificial character even more than from a faulty one; and where the attempt fails, the revulsion generally produces a character of a totally different stamp. Mrs. St. Clair had spared no pains to render her daughter as great an adept in dissimilation as she was herself, but all her endeavors had proved unsuccessful, and Miss St. Clair remained pretty much as nature had formed her—a mixture of wheat and tares, flowers and weeds."

Now, can any one believe that Mrs. Oliphant, or any author occupying in 1883 anything like the position held by Miss Ferrier among the writers of her time, would write in the style of the sentence we have quoted about a heroine intended to interest the public? The merest bungler would know that this way of ticketing Gertrude's characteristics would weary the reader, and that Miss St. Clair ought to be allowed to speak for herself and display her character by her words and acts. He would also perceive (though here we touch upon a somewhat different point) that the attempted analysis of the young lady's disposition was utterly wanting in the kind of subtlety required by critics who have been used to the fine discrimination between different shades of feeling and sentiment which abounds, say, in even the poorest of Mr. Trollope's novels. Every candid judge must admit that Miss Ferrier, as compared with her contemporaries, occupied, and deserved to occupy, a higher rank than can be claimed for Miss Yonge in the literary world of to-day. But any unprejudiced judge must also admit that Miss Yonge would never dream of opening a tale with the crude and platitudinous reflections which we have cited from the early chapters of 'Inheritance.'

Nothing, again, can be more absolutely inartistic than Miss Ferrier's plots. The plot of 'Inheritance' is supplied by the Douglas case, but the book would have been far better if, as in 'Marriage,' Miss Ferrier had dropped all ideas of mystery and dramatic complication. A reader must be inexperienced indeed in the world of romance who does not soon perceive that Gertrude is not the heiress, or who feels that the interest of 'Inheritance' is in the least degree increased by the very thin veil of mystery flung over Gertrude's parentage. The point of the novel is to be found in its pictures of character. But even as a painter of character Miss Ferrier at once betrays the want of literary skill which would be fatal to the success of a modern novelist. All her best portraits are at bottom humorous delineations, not of human beings, but of certain oddities which in real life make up only a very small portion of that very complex thing which we call a character. Every one of her personages is merely the embodiment of some one quality. What any one among her *dramatis personæ* is during the first scene in which we make his acquaintance, that, and nothing else, he continues to the end of the story. Lord Rossville, for example, is the incarnation of foolish pompcsity and family pride. To exhibit ludicrous solemnity and an absurd overestimate of his birth and pedigree, is the part assigned to his lordship. He is never for a moment allowed to forget this duty: he is always pompous; he is always inane; he is always alluding to his ancestors. Miss Pratt—by far the most humorous, by the way, of Miss Ferrier's creations—is the fussy, unabashed, irrepressible bore. Never for one minute is she allowed to be anything but a bore. There is, moreover, but little variety in the mode in which this lady tortures her victims. On all occasions, appropriate and inappropriate, she alludes to her nephew, Anthony Whyte, and repeats, in season and out of season, the dreary witticisms of the terrible Anthony. This passage gives Miss Pratt quite at her best or her worst:

"'But you are not so ill to please as Anthony Whyte. That was really a good thing Lord Punmedown said to him that night. Looking at the two Miss Blacks, says he to Anthony, with a shake of his head: "Ah, Anthony," says he, "I'm afraid two Blacks will never make a White!" Ha! ha! ha! Lord Rossville, did you hear that? At the Circuit ball Lord Punmedown said to Anthony Whyte, pointing to the two Miss Blacks, "I fear," says he, "two Blacks will never make a White." "No, my lord," says Anthony; "for you know there's no turning a Blackamoor white!" Ha! ha! ha! "A very *fair* answer," says my Lord. Lady Millbank, did you hear of Lord Punmedown's attack upon Mr. Whyte at the ball? The two Miss Blacks—'

"'I black-ball a repetition of that *bon-mot*,' said Colonel Delmour.

"'You will really be taken for a magpie, if you are so black and white,' said Miss Millbank.

"''Pon my word, that's not at all amiss. I must let Anthony Whyte hear that.'"

The quotation is a little long, but it is worth study, not so much for the picture of Miss Pratt as for the idea it gives us of Miss Ferrier. She can paint Miss Pratt's oddities with a good deal of vivacity, but she can do nothing more. Miss Pratt repeats a score of times precisely the kind of remarks—we might almost say the very remarks themselves—which she makes the first time we meet her at Lord Rossville's dinner-table. We are at first amused, we are next bored by Miss Pratt, and we begin at last to be bored by Miss Pratt's creator. And what is true of Miss Pratt is, as we have already pointed out, true of every one among Miss Ferrier's literary creations. She exaggerates and satirizes an idiosyncrasy, and fancies she has analyzed a character. She is, in other words, utterly deficient in the literary skill requisite for so blending different qualities together as to form out of them the picture of a living man or woman. Fancy Mrs. Gaskell dealing with the most insignificant of the personages in her novels after the manner in which Miss Ferrier deals with a character like that of Miss Pratt, on which she obviously expended an immense amount of care and even of imagination. Yet it would be unfair to suppose that Miss Ferrier did not in point of talent stand very much on a level with the authoress of 'Mary Barton' and of 'Wives and Daughters.' The difference between Miss Ferrier and Mrs. Gaskell measures the immense advance in literary capacity made by English writers during the last fifty years.

Turn, now, to the matter of thoughtfulness. You cannot read a chapter of Miss Ferrier's stories without seeing that the world in which she moved and for which she wrote—that is to say, the world of educated English gentlemen and English ladies—was in her day far less cultivated both in width and in subtlety of thought than is the same world in 1883. There is something oppressive in the narrowness of ideas and of interests to be found in the persons who are painted for us in Miss Ferrier's pages. The authoress herself was clearly a person of real feeling; but the sketches of life which she has produced are sketches of a generation who for the most part were utterly uninterested in the moral, the religious, the social, or political questions which, for good or bad, do in matter of fact employ the minds, or at any rate arouse the attention, of the educated men and women of modern England. We see, indeed, slight (though very slight) traces in Miss Ferrier's novels of interest in, or perhaps even sympathy with, what would now be called the Evangelical movement. There are unmistakable signs that English society was beginning to perceive that Miss Austen's respectable but entirely non-religious clergymen, and the doctrine they may be supposed to have taught, did not meet the spiritual wants of the time. But of all the varied interests which occupy the thoughts and often harass the conscience of the heroes or heroines introduced to us by Miss Yonge or Mr. Trollope, there is not a trace to be found in Miss Ferrier's narrative or in Miss Ferrier's reflections. 'Middlemarch' and a good number of the 'Scenes of Clerical Life' are meant to paint England at about the time when Miss Ferrier lived and wrote; yet George Eliot's genius did not enable her to keep quite true to the spirit of the period about which she wrote. The wider interests and more complicated sentiments of the age in which George Eliot composed her works give the picture of English country life in the last generation a coloring very different from the dull hue given it by one who, like Miss Ferrier, drew not from recollections of the past, but from her actual knowledge of what was then the present. The effort to impress upon the reader how narrow was the horizon within which were limited the views of the society in whose midst was passed the tragedy of Maggie Tulliver's life does not, after all, impress a critic with half that sense of narrowness which is conveyed quite unconsciously by Miss Ferrier's description of her own time. Any of Mr. Trollope's heroines—say, the lady whose changes of mind interest or disgust the readers of 'Can You Forgive Her?'—would feel suffocated could she be transplanted back into the atmosphere breathed, and breathed happily, by her grandmother.

For, after all, there is no reason to suppose that the young gentlemen and young ladies of fifty years ago enjoyed life less than their descendants. They enjoyed it, however, if Miss Ferrier be (as we doubt not she is) a truthful witness, in a very different way. For good or bad, the Gertrudes, the Marys, or the Bellas whom she has painted or satirized are blessed or cursed with an absence of thoughtfulness which would shock the least intelligent of that very dull family, the Mays, whose sayings and doings are recorded in volume after volume by Miss Yonge.

"We are never long so totally abstracted by our own feelings as to be unconscious of the attempts of others to please us. In Alicia, to be conscious of it and to be grateful was the same movement. Yet she was sensible that so many persons could not in that short period have become seriously interested in her. The observation did not escape her how much an English stranger is looked up to for fashion and taste in Edinburgh, though possessing little merit save that of being English; yet she felt gratified and

thankful for the kindness and attention that greeted her appearance on all sides."

Any modern boy or girl out of the nursery would laugh or yawn at this kind of platitudinous reflection, and no writer who knew her trade would describe the thoughts, say, of Ethel May in the manner in which Miss Ferrier describes the observations of Alicia. If we want, however, fully to realize the increased thoughtfulness of the present day as compared with the England of half a century ago, we should do well to study Miss Ferrier's fools. There are a good number of them. She was clearly a lady who had a keen eye for the absurdities of her neighbors. But the thing which strikes any modern reader is the extraordinary simplicity of the follies which Miss Ferrier satirizes. Take, for instance, Lady Juliana. The first moment we meet her she is thus described when addressed (with the monstrous pomposity characteristic of Miss Ferrier's noblemen) by her father, the Earl of Courtland, on the subject of her ladyship's marriage: "Lady Juliana rang for the footman to take Venus, bade Pluto be quiet like a darling under the sofa, and, taking Cupid in her arms, assured his lordship he need fear no disturbance from the sweet creatures, and that she would be all attention to his commands—kissing her cherished pug as she spoke." This is her ladyship at her first entrance. She continues the same to the end of the drama. At every turn she shows a simplicity of folly which would nowadays be just possible in a spoilt child of eleven or twelve, but could hardly be found in any young woman who had entered her teens. We venture to say that there is not a fool of the quality of Lady Juliana to be found from the beginning to the end of all Trollope's voluminous works; and Trollope shows in this his usual knowledge of his time. Fools we shall always have with us, but folly itself gains, at any rate, in complexity with the progress of civilization. Lady Juliana is no more a picture of the modern young lady than Tony Lumpkin represents the modern young squire.

The wickedness, moreover, of Miss Ferrier's world is marked by the same simplicity as is its folly. There are as many men now as there were fifty years ago ready to throw over a girl to whom they are engaged on finding that, instead of being an heiress of high birth, she is the penniless daughter of a vulgar father. But there are few gentlemen of Colonel Delmour's position who would rid themselves of a girl like Gertrude with the simple, undisguised selfishness and blackguardism displayed by Colonel Delmour. Gertrude herself is quite as simple in her manner of going wrong as is her lover. She is an excellent girl while in the country. She goes up to London; she at once forgets all her good habits, all her old friends, and all her praiseworthy resolutions. The funny thing is, not that a young lady should be heartless, but that she should show so little art in hiding her failings.

Miss Ferrier's heroes and heroines, in short, in their goodness, in their folly, in their wickedness, exhibit a simplicity of character quite foreign to the Englishmen or Englishwomen personally known to George Eliot, to Trollope, or to Mrs. Gaskell. Nor is it hard to see what are the main causes of this change. A good deal is due to the different movements—religious, moral, or social—which, during the last fifty years, have roused English society from a condition of placid, if somewhat dull, contentment to a state of interesting, though perhaps morbid, excitement about matters which hardly occupied the minds of its grandfathers or grandmothers. But the main cause is, after all, the existence and influence of the school founded by Miss Austen and Miss Ferrier. These ladies, and others like them, brought into vogue the novels which illustrate and analyze all the affairs of ordinary life. Novelists have done far more to educate the English world than have schoolmasters or governesses. The young persons who have grown up within the last twenty or thirty years have been accustomed to hear from their true teachers — Trollope, George Eliot, Miss Yonge, or Thackeray—about a host of matters which were all but unknown to the audience addressed by Miss Ferrier. They have also learnt from their teachers how interesting it is to think about one's own life, one's own duties, and one's own character. The stupidest young woman of one's acquaintance can now make reflections about herself which would have astonished Miss Ferrier's heroines and Miss Ferrier by their profundity and subtlety. Whether the world has gained much in happiness or in goodness from the teachers who have at last taught us all, if not to "know ourselves," at any rate to think about ourselves, may be left as an open question. The point which can be an open question to no one who studies Miss Ferrier's novels with intelligence is that she and her followers have produced a great result. They have imbued the whole of the present generation with that mysterious quality which, according to our estimate of its worth, we call self-consciousness or thoughtfulness.

NAVAL OPERATIONS IN THE GULF.

The Gulf and Inland Waters. By A. T. Mahan, Com. U. S. N. [The Navy in the Civil War.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

THIS volume deals principally with the service of the navy at Mobile, and on the Mississippi and its tributaries. Nowhere else in the war did the army and navy act together in more cordial and efficient concert. Instances of this may easily be multiplied. On the bloody field of Pittsburg Landing two gunboats prevented our left from being cut off from its base on the river till Buell's advance under General Nelson, himself a naval officer, restored the doubtful fortunes of the day. On the other hand, General Banks's army, under the skilful guidance of General Bailey, dammed the Red River and saved Admiral Porter's fleet from being stranded in the heart of the enemy's country. The history of the war, also, on no other theatre shows in a clearer light the importance of the part the navy played in the contest.

For river duty a fleet was hastily created of ironclads, massive and torpid, like the turtles from which they took their nickname; of river boats altered to rams; of mortar rafts and tinclads. Nondescript crews were put in each of these without any naval officer but the commander. The whole grew up under Captain A. H. Foote, a man of remarkable qualities, whose death early in the war deprived him of exceptional honors. Its first success of consequence was at Fort Henry, where General Grant also was first brought into notice. The orders for the expedition against Fort Henry and Fort Donelson were given late in January, 1862, by General Halleck to General Grant, who immediately started up the Tennessee River with 17,000 men on transports convoyed by Flag-Officer Foote with four armored and three wooden gunboats. More ships would have been brought but for want of men, and all the crews in Cairo were brought but one. The plan was for a combined attack by land and water. Heavy rains, however, delayed the troops. They also swept down many torpedoes, which were towed ashore by the wooden gunboats. The flag-officer, having waited in vain for the army, about noon of February 6 attacked alone. As usual, he formed his ironclads in line abreast, advancing steadily as he fired till he was within six hundred yards of the fort. The wooden gunboats were in a second line astern on the right. After an action of an hour and a quarter the Confederate flag was hauled down, and the fort and garrison surrendered to the navy. The greater part of the men, however, escaped to Fort Donelson. Seven of the twelve active guns in the fort were disabled. The casualties on both sides were moderate, two-thirds of those in the ships being from scalding.

The flag-officer, against his judgment, but at the urgent request of Generals Halleck and Grant, made an attempt on Fort Donelson on February 14. As before, he formed his three ironclads in line abreast, with the three wooden gunboats in rear to fire over them, and advanced firing to within four hundred yards of the batteries. After a hot action of an hour and a half, two of his ironclads were disabled and drifted out of action, and the other boats were obliged to withdraw from the unequal contest. Three of the four pilots received mortal wounds. Here, as everywhere else on the river, this class of men, taken from their peaceful daily business, showed a gallantry and steadiness of courage surpassed by those of no other set of men in the war. The flag-officer was standing by his pilot when he was killed, and was himself wounded in the arm and leg by splinters. The latter wound never healed, and, aggravated by mental strain and the climate, forced him three months later to give up his command, and finally hastened his end. On the 16th Buckner surrendered the post to General Grant, after the responsibility had been shirked in turn by Floyd and Pillow.

These victories had a wide sweep: the Confederate line was broken. General Johnston at once turned southwards, to take up a new line extending from Fort Pillow or Memphis on the left through Corinth to Chattanooga, abandoning Nashville. General Pope, advancing on the right bank of the Mississippi River, took New Madrid, and went to work on a canal by which transports could come into the river south of Island No. 10, which was strongly held. Attack, in fact, was hopeless from the north, and the situation was very analogous to that at Vicksburg the next year. Early in April the canal was passable, and troops could cross the river if the navy could protect them. For this it was necessary that some gunboats should run the batteries. It must be remembered that this was then an untried experiment. It was some weeks before Captain Farragut had begun his brilliant career by passing the lower forts at New Orleans. Moreover, he was able by the size of his fleet to distract and scatter the fire of the guns on land, and he had the advantage of attacking up-stream. Foote referred the question to his commanders, and all but one said the attempt was hopeless. He overruled their opinion, and assigned the venture to Commander Walke, the only one who showed confidence in the scheme. It was one of the most gallant decisions of the war, most gallantly carried out. The *Carondelet*, unaided, braved the concentrated force of the long line of guns. Every precaution had been taken to save her from harm. Her vulnerable parts were covered with lumber, cordwood, and chain cables; her escape-steam was turned into the wheel-house to conceal its puffing; the pilot-house was wrapped eighteen inches thick with a hawser; a hay-barge was made fast to her quarter to protect the magazine; the guns were run in and the ports closed; no lights were allowed to show. All her men, fully armed, stood ready to repel boarders, only two men being on deck. Soon after 10 P. M. of April 4, just as a violent thunder-storm broke, she swung from her moorings and started down-

stream. The night was very dark; the flashes of lightning and of the enemy's guns just sufficed for the pilot to keep the channel. Before 1 A. M. she was safe at New Madrid. On the night of the 6th the *Pittsburg* also ran the batteries and joined the *Carondelet*. Early on the 7th they engaged the enemy's battery furthest down the river, and silenced it in three-quarters of an hour. The other batteries made little resistance. This success was signalled to the General, and the army at once began to cross. The enemy evacuated his works and tried to escape, but his road was cut off. That night at 10 the island and garrison surrendered to the navy, and 7,000 men and three general officers laid down their arms.

After the fall of Island No. 10 the army and navy at once advanced on Fort Pillow, some thirty miles down the river. The army was soon called off to reinforce General Halleck at Corinth, and the action of the fleet was confined to mortar and long-range firing. Foote's wound had now become dangerous, and on the 9th of May he was obliged to go North, transferring his command to Captain Charles H. Davis. A novel force of fourteen river steamboats converted into rams had been raised by the Confederates for the defence of the river, and eight of these were lying under the guns at Fort Pillow. (Six of them, with most of the Confederate gunboats, had been sent down the river to assist in the resistance to Farragut.) Early on the 10th of May the eight rams made a dashing attack on our seven gunboats. A spirited but confused action ensued, which was not altogether to the credit of our arms. Our boats were slow in supporting each other, and three of the seven did not get into action at all. Two of the four that did were sunk. Three of the enemy's rams were disabled, but drifted back to Fort Pillow, out of our reach. After General Beauregard evacuated Corinth the whole of his line had to be withdrawn. Fort Pillow was evacuated June 4, and the fleet at once moved down and took possession. The next day it proceeded to Memphis. The day after its arrival (the 6th) the Confederate rams, eight in number as before, moved out to meet it. The Union fleet consisted of five gunboats and two of Colonel Ellet's rams, which took a prominent part in the mêlée that ensued. This was spirited and tumultuous. Four vessels were quickly disabled or sunk by ramming, and two more blown up. When four of the Confederate boats had been lost, the other four ran down the river, hotly pursued by our boats for ten miles. The shore was thronged with people watching the exciting sight. Only one of the four, the *Van Dorn*, made her escape. The six rams on the lower river had perished when New Orleans fell, so this was the end of the Confederate River Defence Fleet. Memphis surrendered the same day. Captain Davis spent a few days opening the White River, and then went down the Mississippi with four gunboats and six mortar-boats. Early on the 1st of July Farragut's high seagoing spars were sighted above Vicksburg, and the two fleets met. The river was open, except for Vicksburg, but a year more of labor and conflict were needed to clear it entirely.

The advance from the mouth of the river had been no less prosperous and more brilliant. A week after the capture of Fort Donelson Captain Farragut had taken command of his station at Ship Island; a month later he had become suddenly famous by his passage of the river forts. In this he had lost one ship only, the *Varuna*. She was a fast boat, bought from the merchant service. Advancing imprudently beyond support, she was rammed on both sides by the Confederates, ran her bow into the east bank, and sank to her top-gallant forecastle. The Confederate ram *Manassas* was destroyed by the guns of the *Mississippi*. She took fire, floated down the river, exploded, and sank. The top of her unwieldy casemate and smokestack just awash on a mud-lump in one of the passes, and the masts of the *Varuna* above the forts, were for weeks the principal monuments to vessels passing up the river of the great deeds lately done there. All of the Confederate boats were destroyed or taken, and New Orleans, with all its defences and approaches, and even Pensacola, at once fell into our hands. In all this the army had little share, except to garrison the points surrendered to the navy. Most of the fleet was then sent up the river. Baton Rouge and Natchez surrendered when summoned. The Confederates were at work fortifying Grand Gulf, but Port Hudson was not yet occupied: Vicksburg alone held out. Farragut, against his judgment, in obedience to orders from Washington, determined to pass it, which he did on the 28th of June. This passage of Vicksburg added to his fame and discharged him of his orders, but was barren of results. It was evident that the place could only be taken and held by land forces. On the 1st of July, as we have seen, he was joined by Captain Davis, with a portion of the fleet from Cairo.

The next winter, in the arduous and protracted operations which ended in the capture of Vicksburg, the peculiar river warfare showed its extreme phase. This service was unique and striking. The solitude of the vast forests; the loud echoes of the guns; the extreme crookedness of the streams, requiring often the aid of lines ashore to pull the head round the bends; the frequent picking up of men overboard in this amphibious work; the excitement of looking for a shot from each commanding hillock in the straight reaches; the rather vague habit of shelling the woods on suspicion; and the wild activity on board following a beat to quarters, compared with the solemn stillness of the forest, made a life as different as possible from the common notion of a sailor's routine. While Admiral Porter was putting General Grant in position to take Vicksburg, Admiral Farragut had made his famous passage by Port Hudson in the *Hartford* with the *Albatross*, and closed the Red River permanently to the Confederacy. Vicksburg surrendered on the 4th of July, and Port Hudson on the 9th. This opened the Mississippi to the Gulf, and a steamer leaving St. Louis on the 8th reached New Orleans on the 16th without molestation. Attacks from guerillas along the banks, however, continued till the end of the war.

In August, 1864, Admiral Farragut fought the last and greatest action of his life in Mobile Bay. This is described in all its particulars with the fulness and accuracy that characterize the book. We notice only one trifling error. In the description of the monitors, the pilot-house is said to be above the turret, and concentric with it. We think our memory cannot be at fault in saying this was not the case with the *Chickasaw* and *Winnebago* at least. Their pilot-houses were detached, and just abaft the forward turret. But the obstructed channel; the lines of torpedoes; the formidable *Tennessee*, with her consorts; the tragic fate of the *Tecumseh;* the hesitation of the *Brooklyn;* the confusion in the line corrected by the prompt action of the resolute Admiral—even the succession of events and the exact time of each in the excited tourney with the *Tennessee*—are described at length. Perfect accuracy of recital is hardly possible concerning times of such excitement and movement. Our author says when the *Brooklyn* reported "Torpedoes ahead" the Admiral paused a moment, then ordered his ship and his consort ahead, and made the signal "Close order." Another version, to which we incline as more characteristic, is, that when the *Brooklyn* backed, the *Hartford* passed close under her quarter. When Captain Alden reported "A heavy line of torpedoes across the channel," the Admiral returned, "Damn the torpedoes! Jouett, full speed. Four bells, Captain Drayton," and led the fleet in in utter disregard of the safe course he had carefully prescribed to avoid the torpedoes. Commander T. A. M. Craven, of the *Tecumseh*, in spite of these instructions, had turned his course to the westward of a red buoy among the torpedoes, to his instant destruction. Mr. John Collins, his pilot, was in the house with him, and both sprang for the ladder, over which lay their one chance for life. At once the officer, true to the duties of his rank and his instinct of honor, drew back and said calmly, "After you, pilot." The pilot barely escaped, and lived to tell the story and secure to its hero a fame for honor and bravery second to no other in that famous fleet.

There was another incident in this action worthy of the relations subsisting between Sir Gervaise Oakes and Admiral Bluewater in 'The Two Admirals.' Commander Mullany was in a ship not suited for this engagement, and his opportunities for distinction had been less than those enjoyed and improved by Commander Stevens of the *Oneida*. The latter, therefore, gave up the *Oneida* to his friend, and himself took the monitor *Winnebago*. The *Oneida* brought up the rear of the column, and suffered relatively more than any other ship from the fire of the fort, when it was no longer controlled by the broadsides of the large ships. One of her boilers was exploded, and her steering-gear shot away, and she was slowly carried by the fort by her consort, the *Galena*. In this crippled condition she was raked by the *Tennessee*, and Captain Mullany had his wish at the cost of an arm. The *Tennessee* then turned to ram her. Commander Stevens had attracted much admiration by taking the *Winnebago* past the fort, coolly walking about on her deck alone and unprotected. Just as the *Oneida* was expecting her *coup de grâce*, he interposed his ironclad between her and the *Tennessee* and saved her. The crew of the *Oneida*, whom he had left only a day or two before, leaped on the rail and cheered heartily their old commander and present deliverer.

THURLOW WEED'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

Autobiography of Thurlow Weed. Edited by his Daughter, Harriet A. Weed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883.

It was natural that the appearance of Mr. Weed's autobiography should have been awaited with a general interest and curiosity. It was not so much because of the self-developed career of the writer: countless other Americans might have pointed a moral or adorned a tale of self-made success much more effectively than even Thurlow Weed. But there was another aspect of his life which was completely overshadowing in its interest—his career as a party manager. Here was a man who for two generations had occupied a large share of public attention. He was seldom seen at work upon the surface of politics; he was believed, justly or unjustly, to be pretty constantly and busily at work beneath the surface, and this belief was fortified by the evident disposition of all who were "inside" of politics to consider him a potent factor for or against them. To one section of his countrymen he was always a mysterious power for evil; to another, a cautious and reliable counsellor, whose prognosis of a popular movement was almost infallible; to another, a zealous and successful promoter of every private enterprise that promised public good; to posterity *stat*

nominis umbra. He was a professional lobbyist, an unscrupulous trickster and partisan schemer, a malignant enemy of all who refused to bend to his will, a hard but honest fighter, a high-souled and clean-handed patriot, a venerable old man who had served his country well and loved it better: all these epithets have been applied to him by men who believed in their truth as they believed in their own existence. It was believed that fifty years of politics had made his breast the repository of most of the secrets not only of his own party, but of the opposition; and, when his autobiography was announced, it was natural that men should look for a laying bare of the long-buried Pompeii and Herculaneum of New York politics.

All such expectations are met by a flat disappointment. The autobiography has much of what was known before, but little of what we might have expected to find. What were the secrets by which Edwin Croswell, Silas Wright, Martin Van Buren, and their associates built up and maintained the Democratic organization in New York? How did the firm of Seward, Weed, and Fillmore hold the citadel of opposition to Democracy in western New York? How did the firm of Seward, Weed, and Greeley learn the secret of the Regency, and apply it to the overthrow of the Regency in New York? How was the firm of Seward, Weed, and Greeley dissolved, and what did the partners think of the new men who realized on its assets? Such questions find no answer in the pages before us. Instead, we have about 200 pages of early reminiscences, padded with lists of forgotten men of former times whom the writer has known or met in stage-coaches, in canal-boats, or at political conventions; about 300 pages of extracts from the Morgan trials, and from the contemporary anti-masonic literature which may be found catalogued in Gassett's volume; and about 200 pages of later reminiscences, all of them readable but not strikingly new.

There are some exceptions, which go just far enough to show what an interesting and valuable volume Mr. Weed missed making. His refusal to publish Webster's speech in favor of the United States Bank in 1830 (p. 372), and his reasons for believing that two sentences of Jackson's veto message would gain ten votes where Webster's speech would gain one, showed the political intuition which was already characteristic of the man. He gives (p. 374) double authority for the assertion that Secretary McLane and Nicholas Biddle had amicably agreed, in 1832, on modifications of the bank charter which would have relieved the Bank from all its political difficulties, but that Clay and Webster refused to agree to the changes, and insisted on war—a fact that must materially modify any honest judgment of the struggle between Jackson and the Bank. The manner in which he contrived, in 1838 (p. 444), by eliciting an unexpectedly violent speech from a Whig member of the Legislature, to obtain for the Democratic managers their solid party vote for the abolition of small bank bills, and thus to secure a complete Democratic defeat in the following election, is excellently told, and is a fair example of the contributions to our knowledge of the past in which it was hoped that this work would be prolific. Another such example is the story (p. 495) of his ingenious and successful method of "beguiling" the Secretary of State, John C. Spencer, into harmony with his associates in the canvassing board. A few others may be cited: the manner in which Weed influenced Taylor's letter-writing proclivities in 1848 (p. 573); the interview of Jefferson Davis, Stephens, Clingman, and other Southern Congressmen with Taylor in 1850, and their attempt to coerce him into vetoing the bill to admit California (p. 617); and Lincoln's offer, in 1861, through Thurlow Weed, of a Cabinet position to John A. Gilmer, of North Carolina.

But, in general, such examples are conspicuous only by their absence from the places where we might reasonably have expected to find them. The political history of 1850–60 is a complete blank, and that of the other years is almost a desert. What is true is not new, and what is new is not of any particular moment. The autobiography is as readable as the reminiscences of an old man of affairs usually are; but, as political reminiscences, and, above all, as the political reminiscences of Thurlow Weed, the volume is unquestionably a very great disappointment. In the author has passed away the last of the former New York politicians, a species whose ideas were as foreign to the coming methods of politics as those of the Moorish knights of Granada were to the engineering of Ferdinand's battering train. Their political campaigns were fought with a vigor of personal prowess, an intensity of personal interest, to which the business methods of after years must be comparative strangers; and it is a pity that they have left no record. They seem to have fought under a system of tacit conventionalisms, which they made it a point of honor not to break. They have kept faith with one another, and, to a great extent, with their adversaries as well; they have died and made no sign. We may suspect much; we may believe much; but we can now know very little of the inside management of the long battle between the New York Democracy and its various opponents. That is a chapter of political history which has long been closed; but the death and the autobiography of Thurlow Weed have sealed it.

Four Masters of Etching. By Frederick Wedmore. With Original Etchings by Haden, Jacquemart, Whistler, and Legros. London: The Fine Arts Society. 1883.

In his preliminary remarks Mr. Wedmore says: "Perhaps the two qualities which, as one gets a little *blasé* about the productions of art, continue the most to stir and stimulate and to quicken the sense of enjoyment are the quality of vigor and the quality of exquisiteness." He then goes on to remark that these qualities are united in the greatest artists only—such artists as Titian, Rembrandt, and Turner—while, with men of lesser genius, it is enough if we find either quality developed; the union of the two, in any fulness, demanding a temperament of exceptional variety. To this we cannot quite agree. In our view, the union of these two qualities is essential to all artistic power, whether great or small. To speak as if the quality of vigor alone might suffice for the production of any form of good art, is to ignore the fact that vigor is serviceable, and the results of its exercise are admirable, only in so far as it is coupled with accuracy and refinement, which constitute essentially what we understand by exquisiteness. And it is erroneous to suppose that the quality of exquisiteness can exist without precision, which implies vigor.

With regard to Mr. Haden's work, we think that Mr. Wedmore is not discriminating enough. A great many, if not the greater part, of Mr. Haden's etchings are excessively loose, sloppy, and wanting in specific character, and, though vigorous, certainly their vigor is not of that admirable kind which coexists with strict government of every line. The example entitled "Grim Spain" in this series is largely of this inferior class. We have before expressed our admiration for Mr. Haden's better work, and our regret that he does not always seem to do his best. To imply, as Mr. Wedmore does, that the general character of his work is exemplary in its quality of vigor is unwittingly to mislead.

With regard to Jacquemart, Mr. Wedmore's remarks are appreciative and interesting, as well as for the most part discriminating. We should, however, express ourselves in somewhat different terms if called upon to estimate Jacquemart's art. His fineness and delicate skill are, indeed, very admirable, but his conception and treatment of his subjects have never been wholly satisfactory to us. There are in general two ways of dealing with such objects as he commonly chose to portray: one in which the broad beauties of form, color, and light are felt and expressed with greater or less fulness of realization—as a flower is painted by Titian; the other in which the minor qualities of structure and texture are so unduly scrutinized that the more important qualities are missed—as still-life is often painted by artists of the Dutch school. The one is a noble, and the other an ignoble method. We do not mean to affirm that Jacquemart's treatment was altogether of the Dutch kind; but we feel that it had not enough of the nobler characteristics. There is in him a lack of the largest artistic feeling, and consequently we tire of his art as we do not of the art of Titian. In the chapter on Whistler are some good critical remarks, though the author does not seem to feel the invariable ugliness of Whistler's design, which goes far, even in his best etchings, to overbalance his subtle suggestiveness. We have never been able to admire much the etchings of Legros; but the portrait of Mr. Watts given in this series appears a good and expressive piece of work, notwithstanding some marked errors in proportion—as where the nearer eye, which is seen full, is drawn shorter than the one that is foreshortened. On the whole, it cannot be said that these etchings are of very high character. Those by Haden and Whistler certainly convey no adequate idea of the powers of these two artists respectively.

Local Government. By M. D. Chalmers, M.A. [English Citizen Series.] London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

The American Citizen's Manual. Part 1. Governments, The Electorate, The Civil Service. Part 2. Functions of Governments (State-Federal). [Questions of the Day Series V. Edited by Worthington C. Ford.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882.

Probably there is not in the world a more extraordinary piece of political patchwork than the local government of England. "The inhabitant of a borough lives in a fourfold area for purposes of local government—namely, in the borough, in a parish, in a union, and in a county—none having the same boundaries (unless by accident) with any of the others. He is, or may be, governed by a sixfold authority—the municipal council, the vestry, the school board, the burial board, the guardians, and the county quarter sessions. He is, or may be, subject to a borough rate, a general district rate, a poor rate, a burial rate, and a county rate." The inhabitant of a rural parish is subjected to equal anomalies. "There is a case of a farm of two hundred acres in Gloucestershire which, some few years ago, was in twelve parishes, and subject to about fifty rates." The inhabitant of one of our political divisions who pays all his taxes once a year in a lump sum has little idea of the vexation caused by the continual knocking at his door of a multitude of authorities who demand money for as many different purposes. That local self-government is possible at all under such a system is probably owing to the existence of a limited suffrage based upon pro-

perty. We hear a great deal in this country about extravagant expenditure caused by universal suffrage. It is well to note that local indebtedness in England, which, in 1875, was £92,000,000, had reached in 1881 a total of £144,000,000, or an increase of more than £8,000,000 a year. Perhaps one of the greatest of modern reforms in respect to local government consisted in the establishment of the Local Government Board of 1871, of which the president is a Cabinet minister, with a seat in Parliament. By such a power only could reform be achieved without revolution, and it will be most interesting to note the results of its labors in the next fifty years.

Mr. Ford's 'Manual' includes the national as well as local governments, and has a strong flavor of an American tendency to state facts less as they are than as they are assumed and perhaps ought to be. Thus one is inclined to smile on reading: "But the power does not rest ultimately with these [representative] bodies; they are clothed with certain functions by the people, who may at pleasure take them away or modify them, for the people alone are the real rulers"; and when we read, further, that "fulness of debate is secured by the rules which govern the procedure of either house," we may doubt whether that is exactly the conclusion to be drawn from following the proceedings of a session. Mr. Ford says: "Each house is very properly made the sole judge of the election returns and qualifications of its members, for there is no other branch of the Government to which this power could safely be trusted." But when he adds, on the same page, that "it is no infrequent event for a contested seat to be given to one whose only recommendation is that he is of the same politics with the dominant party in the houses, and without any regard to the legal aspects of the case," and when we consider what has been and is being accomplished in England for the purity of elections by referring contested cases to the law courts, the statement seems quite too broad. There are frequent instances of this tendency to glide gently over dangerous ground. Thus, after describing the method of caucus nominations, Mr. Ford mildly adds: "The members of the committees hold from year to year, and come naturally into some special knowledge of the politics and politicians of their districts, and are apt to obtain an undue influence and control of the political mechanism." The cause of this we take to be a desire to avoid the croaking spirit which points to our political weaknesses as a condemnation of popular government. We regard the true method to be, however, to expose these weaknesses, but to declare boldly, what we sincerely believe, that they are not necessary incidents of popular government, but only defects of organization, which can and ought to be amended. That clearness of insight is not wanting to Mr. Ford is proved by his quoting both Chancellor Kent and Daniel Webster to the effect that the legislature is the branch of government which is most apt to enlarge its own sphere of action by encroaching upon the functions of the executive and judicial branches, and by assuming powers which properly belong to these latter branches. Mr. Ford also points out that, notwithstanding the boasted separation of the branches, they do in fact overstep the boundaries, as the Senate in confirming appointments exercises an executive function, Congress in passing upon contested elections a judicial function, and the President, through his veto, a legislative function—a remark which upsets the main argument of those who oppose giving the cabinet officers seats in Congress, with a share in the guidance of legislation.

But the part of Mr. Ford's work with which we agree most heartily and regard as of most value is the chapter on "Offices and Office-holders," in which he points out the great superiority of the Federal organization over that of the States and municipalities, in that the former rests upon the appointment and responsibility of individuals, deriving directly from the President through the whole chain of administration, whereas local offices are filled almost wholly through election, either by the people or the legislatures. The defect of the Federal administration—which we believe to be otherwise as good as any in the world—is in the failure of public enforcement of responsibility by Congress and the Executive upon each other, whereas in the States and cities there is no such thing as responsibility and hardly such a thing as administration at all. It is curious to note, in following out this idea, how it results in the absorption of all power by the legislative branch, because the executive, with its incoherent and separately elected officials, being reduced to absolute impotence, the legislature really carries on the government by committees and commissions under its exclusive control.

How is reform to be accomplished? In urging the practical teaching of political science in our colleges and higher institutions of learning, we are met by the objection that advancement in public life does not depend upon qualification for it, and therefore there is no advantage in and no demand for special training. We reply that the welfare of this country depends upon the knowledge among the people of the real end and aim of all government, and of the advantages, the dangers, and the requirements of popular government in particular; and that for this purpose the thousands of students who are so fortunate as to obtain advanced education before entering upon active life should carry with them, while still full of energy and high purpose, a thorough understanding of problems like those considered in the books under review, instead of acquiring that knowledge—if indeed they ever acquire it—after advancing years and the cares of life have dulled the courage and hopefulness which are the essential conditions of any great achievement.

The Iroquois Book of Rites. Edited by Horatio Hale, M.A. Philadelphia: D. G. Brinton. 1883. 8vo, pp. 222, with a map.

THIS addition to Brinton's "Library of Aboriginal American Literature" may be said to open a field of Indian research new to ethnologists. Its author was the philologist of Wilkes's Exploring Expedition (1838-42), and discoverer of the Tutêlo language, upon which he has lately published an elaborate article in the Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia (March, 1883). The scope of Brinton's "Library" is to enrich and illustrate American ethnology by the oral literature and writings of the Indians themselves; and the Indian documents or texts to which the present volume owes its origin are the 'Ancient Rites of the Condoling Council,' written in the Mohawk, and the 'Book of the Younger Nations,' composed in the Onondaga, dialect of Iroquois. These precious relics of antiquity are concise in their wording and full of meaning, though they occupy, with their translations standing opposite, but thirty pages. The first and more important of these texts was shown to Mr. Hale in September, 1879, by the headmen when he visited the "Iroquois Confederacy," settled on a reservation near Brantford, Ontario. Upon closer examination, the book proved to be a document comprehending all the speeches which were from olden times, and are now, addressed by the representatives of the three elder "nations" (Canienga, "Flintmen," or Mohawk; Onondaga; Seneca) to the younger members of the Confederacy, whenever a chief belonging to the latter is lamented and a new one installed. It is probable that these orations were first set down in writing about the middle of the eighteenth century, when the ancient rites and traditions still flourished, although the duplicate copy exhibited to Mr. Hale was not older than the year 1832. The members of the general council of the Iroquois, which met at Onondaga before the partial emigration of this race to Canada, were by no means proportionate to the population of the tribes they represented; but this was of little consequence, for to arrive at a decision unanimity of the "nations" was necessary. This was the same council before which the "condoling speeches" were delivered; and the ceremonial observed on such occasions was of a quaint and archaic description. It was by no means easy for the author to obtain reliable interpretations of the texts, for only the oldest men in the tribes are able to give a satisfactory account of the manifold obsolete terms contained in them. The Onondaga text is a curious counterpart and natural complement of the Mohawk or Canienga text; it gives us the exhortations which are addressed by the younger nations to the elder when a chief of the latter is mourned, and is written in a different kind of orthography.

It would have been far from easy to comprehend the texts and translations appended but for Mr. Hale's laborious endeavors to elucidate them historically, ethnologically, and grammatically. The additions made by him are almost as valuable as the texts themselves, although one may refuse credence to some of his theories. The Introduction contains chapters on the history of the Huron-Iroquois tribes; the Iroquois league in the State of New York, its laws and founders, clans and classes; the modes and rites of condolence and installation of newly-elected chiefs in the Iroquois Confederacy; the Iroquois character and policy, as well as the general features of their language. Appendices follow the text, enlarging upon tribal and town names of Indian origin, upon the Hiawatha myths, etc. After a full glossary, conscientiously explaining and parsing the Indian terms of both texts, the volume concludes with a copious alphabetic index of its contents.

Socialism and Communism in their Practical Application. By the Rev. M. Kaufmann, M.A. London. 1883. Pp. 264.

THE author of this excellent little book is not unknown to the student of social philosophy. His more pretentious works ('Socialism' and 'Utopia') present, perhaps, the best introduction to the conceptions of those writers who oppose excessive individualism of which the English reader can avail himself; the former of these, indeed, is based on the exhaustive treatise of Dr. A. E. F. Schäffle, 'Kapitalismus und Socialismus,' and is properly to be regarded as an exposition of that writer's opinions.

In the treatise now before us, which is published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, Mr. Kaufmann has undertaken a somewhat different task. His purpose, as stated by himself, is "to examine some of the most important experiments, made from time to time by social reformers, to realize in actual life their theories of social improvement." In following out this plan he passes in rapid review communistic movements from the time of Christ to the present day. He describes religious and humanitarian endeavors for social regeneration upon the basis of common property as undertaken among the disciples of the early Christian Church, among the monastic orders of the pre-

reformatory mystics, among the native converts under Jesuit rule in South America, among the Protestant Separatists seeking religious and civil liberty in the United States, and among the anti-religious secularists. In reality this treatise is an edited note-book. Its author has studied with care a certain line of experiments, extending through eighteen centuries of time, that have taken place in the laboratory of society, and presents here what appear to him to be their teachings.

Perhaps the most important fact to which a study of these experiments in social life leads, is, that whatever degree of success may have attended any attempt at communal living has been due to the subordination of the purely industrial motive, which in the world at large is the mainspring of all activity, to the realization of some high moral ideal. This ideal, it is true, may vary in form, but it is found ever to rest on what is termed the religious element in human nature. Whatever name these societies may have assumed—Cathari, Apostolicals, Fraticelli, Béguines, Waldenses, Albigenses, Lollards, or Hussites—it is possible to discover in each case one underlying purpose, "to reëstablish social life on the pattern of Apostolic simplicity. There is the same blending of secular and sacred duties of humanity; there is the same protest against luxury in the Church and the same impatient revolt against social inequality in the world, and with them a willingness to suffer martyrdom in the cause and to undergo self-inflicted privations for the purpose of self-discipline."

From 1500 to the middle of the last century, there is found infused into the disciples of Communism the free spirit of the Reformation, and to a large degree, also, that feeling of individual right which gives character to our own times. The yet later experiments in communistic life are of two quite distinct types; the one resting on an excessive interpretation of Christian teachings, the other arising out of the revolutionary movements of the last century and resting on what may be broadly termed the religion of humanity. Among the former are the Shakers, the Harmonists, the Amana Society, and others like them; while as illustrations of the latter may be mentioned the Owenite settlements, Fourierist phalanstères, and Icarian communes. It is a peculiar fact that all of these last without exception regarded their societies as the leaven that was to transform the world. They have been by no means so successful as the purely Christian societies, and as a rule it may be said respecting them, that their success as a commune lasted only so long as the blessings of material prosperity were withheld. The human sentiment of mine and thine seems to have been too strong for any ideal not shrouded in mysticism. The fact is well brought out in this book that the essential of communistic success is "the spirit of pietism and self-surrender," and the author very properly concludes that it is absurd to expect success for those communistic schemes in which material enjoyment and self-indulgence are made the *summum bonum* of existence. Another point of interest pertains to the societies of the Middle Ages, which for the most part were monastic in their character. The conditions for their successful continuance were provided by the egoistic society in which they were situated. "Without the existence of a larger outer world, which to a certain extent ministered to the wants of these recluses, their societies, admirably organized and governed as they were, could not have stood the test of time." For modern communists, therefore, who purpose remodelling the world according to this plan, the fact that these societies endured for so many years can offer no very direct encouragement.

While commending this book as presenting in an admirable manner certain facts that should be known, it is yet subject to one severe criticism. Its title does not properly represent its contents. It should be Communism rather than 'Socialism and Communism.' These two words represent distinct movements, movements which differ in philosophic conception, in aggressive methods, and in the ideal toward which they strive. They are in harmony only so far as they are opposed to excessive individualism, and clear thinking requires that they be kept entirely distinct.

Ancient Greek Female Costume. Illustrated by 112 plates and numerous smaller illustrations, with explanatory letterpress by G. Moyr Smith. London: Sampson Low & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford.

THAT modern artistic taste is not content with modern garb is clear; how to get at a reform is not so clear. Yet unless a radical reform is made we shall never have either a rational or an artistic costume, and the consequences will be extravagance and constant mutation of style on one hand, and on the other a complete divorce of all our daily impressions from any perception of the beautiful. A man might as well hope to retain his delicacy of touch while daily handling hot iron and washing his hands in alum solution as to think of preserving a sense of beauty while he has "stove-pipe" hats, dress-coats, and the various angularities and furbelows of woman's dress thrust into his eyes continually; and as to making an art from it, not even a Watteau could succeed in getting such a result out of the garb of to-day.

The root of the modern want of perception of the beautiful is, in a way, moral—not ecclesiastical or devotional, however, but in a larger sense. The production of a beautiful costume is the work of time and selection; and only where it has become hereditary, national, or otherwise continuous from generation to generation, can this process of selection and survival of the fittest go on. Every change must be weighed and approved by the general sense, and what doesn't "wear" is thus surely and continuously rejected. This is the way in which the picturesque national costumes have all been evolved; and the temper by which they are preserved from such innovations as our modern fashion-plate figure is one purely conservative and reverential, while the civilized passion for variety demoralizes the æsthetic sense, and substitutes a false and morbid passion for change and novelty of sensation for the pure and tranquil enjoyment of what is really beautiful. The chief motives in modern dress are vanity, vulgar emulation, ostentation of wealth; the chief incentive being a jaded condition of the æsthetic sense comparable to that condition of the gustatory in which it is blunted to common sensation, and requires artificial and extravagant stimulants to make it feel anything. Doubtless, a woman may be a model of all the higher virtues and moralities and wear the most depraved products of a French mantua-maker's diseased fancy, but on condition only of her not being responsible for the fashion herself: the woman who is volunteering in the van of the rush after the last fashion can hardly be a good wife, mother, or citizen.

Books like this of Mr. Smith, which from its preface declares itself directed rather to æsthetical than archæological education, must wait to produce their effect until the æsthetical perception is formed, or reformed. No reform in dress, or true taste in it, is to be hoped for until people perceive that novelty, so far from being a desideratum in that province, is really an impediment to the evolution of the beautiful. Still, such works as this have their value in keeping before the eye types of dress that are really beautiful, and recognized as such by the continuous judgment of humanity; and if Mr. Smith, instead of giving us almost entirely costumes of Greek goddesses, which may be assumed to have a certain ritualistic form, had gone to the Tanagra statuettes and given us a series of actual costumes worn by Greek women in real life, he would have rendered us a service much greater than he has done. The maxim, "Beauty when unadorned is adorned the most," must be taken with large qualifications; but it is true that a certain simplicity in dress is the highest quality in dressing well and tastefully, and for this we must always go to Greek usages, especially as preserved for us in the figurines of Tanagra, Attica, and Myrina, of which a large collection might be formed of real educational value. Mr. Smith gives 149 plates to illustrate his work, of which forty-six represent what may be considered more or less lay costume—some of them repetitions without great importance, and mostly taken from Hope ('Costumes of the Ancients') and Müller ('Denkmäler'); in fact, the book is little else than an epitome of these books, as far as they treat of female costume. The engravings are always slight, and sometimes trivial, but perhaps sufficient for their purpose. The essay is full of authoritative references and explanations, and may be accepted as a fair handbook on the subject. If the author had known better the stuffs still in use for dress in remote and primitive districts, he would have treated some parts of his subject more intelligently, as when he alludes to the stuff in one of his plates (104) as "seamed by the sculptor into minute lines which resemble in effect the lines in knitted worsted-work" (p. 17), whereas it closely resembles the stuff still woven in some parts of the East, especially in the mountains of Crete, which is evidently the same as that which the ancient sculptors represented. The author's political discursion is singular. That "ancient Greece in its prime was much larger than the modern kingdom," every schoolboy knows; but that it (if a political entity is meant) ever "possessed" Crete, Cyprus, or Magna Græcia and Sicily, is a confusion of meanings which would not have been aggravated if Marseilles, Trieste, Ragusa, etc., had been included. "Greece" in this sense never was a state, and cannot be compared with modern Greece. The notion that "some of the ornaments of Mykenæ at least were part of the Trojan spoils gathered at the sacking of Ilion," makes it clear that Mr. Smith's archæology is in a very embryonic condition. No scientific authority will sustain him in this simple minded belief, and "Priam's treasure" is as effectually relegated to the category of myths as Ulysses's Hephæstean armor.

On the whole, it seems clear that Mr. Smith has no special qualification for editing such a work, and the fact, which he frankly admits, that "it was only comparatively recently that he discovered that such a book as Hope's 'Costumes of the Ancients' existed," shows that his researches must have been very superficial.

Mysteries of Time and Space. By Richard A. Proctor. R. Worthington. 1883.

HARDLY worth the name of a book, we have here another collection of Mr. Proctor's essays merely. In rare parts they are good, but, like so many of their predecessors, are conspicuous for their prolixity, and, as a whole, worth only the slenderest commendation. In what he says of the prophecies he quotes regarding "The World's End," Mr. Proctor affords the most fitting characterization of much of his own essay-writing—"mere rubbish." The most compel-

ling, and at the same time repelling, feature of the volume is its omniprevalent pugnacity. Of a world of scientific worthies—Tait, Darwin, Spencer, and others—not one escapes his vulgar carping. If not positively unbecoming, it is surely in questionable taste for a writer of popular papers—not to say one who has his knowledge chiefly at second-hand—to consider himself called to pass upon the theories and researches of very distinguished investigators; but Mr. Proctor does this, not only with a rambling unconsciousness of his own follies, but with an unblushing self-assertion which transcends boldness and approximates to downright impertinence. This infelicitous habit of composition holds, we believe, in every essay but one or two of the present collection, and these, doubtless, would have been written in the same vein except that they relate to matters so trashily speculative that nobody had ever before ventured any opinion on the subject.

The past twenty years have witnessed a constantly growing demand for popular scientific literature. For a good while Mr. Proctor met this demand, so far as astronomy was concerned, in a very commendable manner. But his later writings indicate an exhaustion of his stock of popular scientific fact; and our kindly word to him is, to retire into the privacy of further study to recuperate his energies for subsequent literary endeavors.

The Papers and Biography of Lion Gardiner, 1599–1663. With an Appendix. Edited, with Notes Critical and Illustrative, by Curtiss C. Gardiner. St. Louis. 1883.

It is with regret that we pronounce this handsome volume to be a failure, because such family records generally claim so moderate a rank. But it points out a defect which gentlemen of leisure are apt to overlook—namely, that a useless book is worse than nothing. In the present case, out of the hundred pages of the book, only two have any value—namely, those which give a list of the proprietors of Gardiner's Island, and the pedigree of the author's own line. The other contents are merely reprints of well-known documents, not sufficient to constitute a biography. Besides these, the editor has appended some whimsical notes, which only reveal his lack of special information.

It is greatly to be regretted that any descendant of the well-known engineer and soldier, Lion Gardiner, having the means and the desire to print a memorial, should have lacked the happy inspiration of getting some competent person to collect and arrange the material for him. The theme is an interesting one, and, in the hands of a local antiquary, it would doubtless have been productive. What is expected nowadays in such a book is exact details and careful arrangement. It is certain that the history of the manor of Gardiner's Island, and a sketch of its successive proprietors, their connections and offshoots, would be a welcome addition to American genealogy. It is seldom that the possessor of family papers, traditions, and memorials is also competent to give them a suitable form. But to avail of the services of a compiler is no more unnecessary or unreasonable than to secure a printer.

Historic Romance. Strange Stories, Characters, Scenes, Mysteries, Memorable Events, in the History of Old England. By William Andrews, F.R.H.S. London: Hamilton, Adams & Co. 1883.

This is the fourth volume which Mr. Andrews has compiled in the interest of such as seek amusement from facts and incidents more or less out of the beaten track; and even to gather from it that his hand has lost nothing of its cunning, is to conclude that he has once more been successful in his special line. Now that he has grappled with Gog and Magog, the two British giants who were slain by Brutus of Troy in the uncommonly dim historic twilight of B. C. 1008 or thereabouts, no one who marvels at the grotesque effigies of them which doubtfully adorn the London Guildhall need any longer allege that he must marvel in ignorance. Gretna Green and its stolen marriages, also, those who are curious about them cannot, thanks to his researches, rank henceforth among matters imperfectly understood. Incredible as it may sound, one of the sham clergymen of Gretna Green, Robert Elliot by name, is said to have transformed into man and wife no fewer than 3,872 couples between the years 1811 and 1839. The chapters entitled "English Life and Manners in the Time of Shakespeare," "Fools and Jesters of the English Sovereigns," and "Echoes of the Last Century," may perhaps be specified as particularly meritorious, though hardly perceptibly inferior to them is the account of the matrimonial and miscellaneous exploits and speculations of the famous Bess Hardwick, a woman of quite as masterful a spirit as the Bess, her contemporary, who filled a throne. But the entire volume is very good of its kind. In fact, it is just the sort of thing to lounge over agreeably under the trees in the afternoons of summer and autumn holidays.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Dictionary of Quotations from English and American Poets. Based upon Bohn's edition, revised, corrected, and enlarged. Thomas Y. Crowell.
Adams, G. B. Mediæval Civilization. D. Appleton & Co.
Autobiography of Charles Biddle, Vice-President of the Supreme Executive Council of Pennsylvania, 1745–1821. Philadelphia: E. Claxton & Co. $3.
Baker, W. M. The New Timothy. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Balzani, U. Italy. [Early Chronicles of Europe.] E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Besant, W. The Life and Achievements of Edward Henry Palmer. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Beyond the Sunrise. J. W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Blackmore, R. D. Lorna Doone. Harper & Bros.
Brehms' Thierleben. Chromo edition. Parts 95–98. B. Westermann & Co.
Bulkley, Prof. C. H. A. Plato's Best Thoughts. Compiled from Prof. Jowett's Translation of the Dialogues of Plato. New ed. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Bush, J. S. More Words about the Bible. J. W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Chambers, Dr. G. F. Practical and Conversational Dictionary of the English, French, and German Languages in Parallel Columns. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Comstock, D. Y. The First Latin Book. Introductory to Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War. Boston: John Allen. $1.
Conflict in Nature and Life: a Study of Antagonism in the Constitution of Things. D. Appleton & Co.
Cooke, J. E. Virginia: a History of the People. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
De Kay, C. The Love Poems of Louis Barnaval. D. Appleton & Co.
Don't: a Manual of Mistakes and Improprieties more or less prevalent in Conduct and Speech. D. Appleton & Co.
Dreyspring, A. The Cumulative Method for Learning German. D. Appleton & Co.
Drummond, R. H. Natural Law in the Spiritual World. James Pott. $2.
Ely, R. T. French and German Socialism in Modern Times. Harper & Brothers.
Emerson, R. W. Nature, Addresses, and Lectures. New and revised ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 75.
Emerson, R. W. Essays. First Series. New and revised edition. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 75.
Gonse, L. Eugène Fromentin, Painter and Writer. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Harris, Prof. S. H. The Philosophical Basis of Theism. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 50.
Harte, Bret. In the Carquinez Woods. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Hopkins, Rev. M. The Scriptural Idea of Man: Six Lectures at Princeton. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Irving, W. Life of Washington. 2 parts. Centennial edition. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 30 cents each.
Irving, W. Sketch-Book. J. W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Jackson, Rev. G. A. The Post-Nicene Greek Fathers. D. Appleton & Co.
John Keese, Wit and Littérateur: a Biographical Memoir. D. Appleton & Co.
Müller, M. India: What Can it Teach Us? J. W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Muir, M. M. P. Heroes of Science: Chemists. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Oliphant, Mrs. Sheridan. Harper & Bros.
Penn, A. The Home Library. With illustrations. D. Appleton & Co.
Riddle, A. G. Hart and his Bear. Washington: W. H. Morrison.
Scott, Sir W. The Bride of Lammermoor. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 15 cents.
Smalley, E. V. History of the Northern Pacific Railroad. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Wilson, Rev. W. D. The Foundations of Religious Belief. [Paddock Lectures, 1883.] D. Appleton & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 20, 1883.

The Week.

THE crops are now practically out of danger from any great loss. It seems tolerably certain that the cotton crop, though it may be a million bales short of the great crop of last year, will still be larger than the average of the past five or six years. The corn crop, notwithstanding the recent damage by frosts, can scarcely fail to be above the average of five years. The wheat crop, though probably 15 per cent. short of last year's, will be above the average, as will also be the yield of all other grains. In spite of all this there is still a stagnation of capital. Money continues superabundant for loans on collateral security at the abnormally low rate (for this season of the year) of 2 and 2½ per cent. per annum, and of 4½ and 5 per cent. per annum for sixty-day and four-months' loans, while the rates for discounts of mercantile paper have hardened, and are now 6 and 7 per cent. per annum for first-class single names. At the same time many of the dividend-paying stocks which have paid dividends regularly for ten or fifteen years are selling at prices upon which their dividends pay from 8 to 9 per cent. The great difference between the rate of 2 per cent. per annum on call loans—for which so much money is offered—and the 8 or 9 per cent. which the dividend-paying stocks would realize for the investor, shows that a feeling of distrust is still prevalent, and that capital is held out of investment, though the reasons for such distrust have to a large extent passed away. The first arrival of gold from Europe this season was 1,250,000 francs from Paris on Tuesday, the 18th. With a fair European demand for the large surplus of all our crops, the imports of gold this autumn are likely to be large.

Mr. Albert Fink gave the Senate Labor Committee on Monday an interesting account of the working of the railroad-pool system. He is at the head of a bureau representing the five East and West trunk lines—the New York Central, the Erie, the Pennsylvania, the Baltimore and Ohio, and the Grand Trunk, with their Western connections. The object of the pool is to arrange a uniform rate of tariff. He said that this did not interfere with competition, but it did interfere with railroad wars; in other words, with such competition in rates as threatened ruin to the weaker lines. For the purpose of avoiding this, agents of the different roads were scattered about the country, and all the intelligence that could be obtained was gathered and reported to the managers of these roads, who, with this information before them, established a schedule of tariffs. The object was to establish a rate that was not so high that business would be lost, nor so low that there would be a pecuniary loss. When the rates were placed very low on through-business it was common to put up the rates on local business, but as the railroads wanted both it could not possibly be for their interest to sacrifice one to the other. Further than this, railroad rates were to a certain extent regulated by the competition of the water lines, it being much easier, as Mr. Fink said, to put an extra steamboat or a dozen canal-boats on a route than to build a new railroad. But the main regulator of the rates we take from his testimony to be the self-interest of the companies, which must always try to make the transportation tax light enough to encourage the development of business.

In other words, this Trunk Line pool is a vast combination of the leading lines of the country, for the purpose of dividing among the roads that compose it, on a fair basis as concerns themselves, the total aggregate of all the business on which they live. The prime object of it is to prevent railroad wars, and that it does so, at least to a certain extent, seems to be conceded. Now, says Mr. Fink, this is not only a desirable thing for the railroads, but for the public at large. There can be nothing worse about a tax, whether on transportation or anything else, than that it should be fluctuating or uncertain. As it enters into the prices of all articles of commerce, violent fluctuations in it, such as are produced by railroad wars, make it impossible to tell in advance what prices are going or ought to be, and interfere with and often paralyze industrial activity. Therefore pools are to this extent a boon to the community. On the other hand, it is obvious that they concentrate enormous power over trade and commerce in the hands of a few individuals who, as they are human, may be governed not only by enlightened self-interest, but by greed, envy, jealousy, a desire for revenge, and so on. The transfer of the whole railroad business of the country to the Government would not obviate this difficulty. We should have, instead of a "pool," a bureau, and the members of a bureau are subject to other sinister influences quite as baneful as those of a pool. What the Government through its various agencies can do is to watch the operations of pools, make the rates they establish public, and prevent injustice, extortion, and discrimination, when it is proved (according to the usual rules of evidence) to exist.

The President has determined to appoint a Commission to investigate and report upon the charges made by European governments against the American hog. He has called upon the Chamber of Commerce to name one Commissioner, and it has named Professor Chandler—a very good selection. One is to be appointed by the Chicago Board of Trade, one by the President himself, and two by the Bureau of Agriculture. The matter has been already fully investigated, and there is nobody in the United States who believes that American pork is more dangerous to human life than the pork of Germany or the pork of France. Moreover, it is well known that our hog is excluded from European markets, though avowedly for sanitary reasons, really in order to protect the European animal, or rather the land-owner who raises him. The investigation will serve to strengthen the national faith in our hog, and deepen our distrust of European duplicity and hypocrisy; but even a mathematical demonstration that our pork is the best in the world will not help us, for what complaint can we make against any country for adopting a protective policy? Even should Bismarck be driven to the wall and forced to confess that he slandered the American hog, he will always maintain that if he practised deceit he did it in a good cause, and one that is recognized as good by our Government.

The Civil-Service Act provides that no Senator of the United States shall "*directly* or *indirectly* solicit or receive, or be in any manner *concerned in soliciting or receiving*, any assessment, subscription, or contribution for any political purpose whatever," from any employee in the civil service. Any violation of this section is punishable by fine and imprisonment, or both. The recent proceedings of Senator Mahone under this act are thus described by the Washington *Star:*

"General Mahone, a Senator, over his own signature, notifies men in Government service of his displeasure at their conduct. Their offence consists in the fact that they 'take no interest' in the Virginia Campaign Association, the objects of which are 'to promote, as well as it may properly, the success of the party on whose recommendation you [the Government employee addressed] have been given recognition.' Here is a direct reminder to the Government clerk that he is under political obligation for the place he holds. The association which Senator Mahone admonishes Virginia clerks to ally themselves with, supplements his circular with one of its own, warning the delinquent that unless his dues are paid up he will be 'summarily dealt with.' It is not the absence of Virginians from meetings that arouses the regret of the Senator and moves the association to action, it is the dues that are wanted."

This has not been contradicted, and unless it can be it appears to us that General Mahone has rendered himself liable to prosecution under the act. An immediate investigation of the case seems to be called for.

The resolutions adopted by the New Jersey Democrats on Thursday are far ahead of all the previous efforts of platform makers. If what they demand could be procured, the happiness of the American people would be so complete as to command the envy of the rest of the world. They wish to have the people taxed only so much as is absolutely indispensable for the frugal conduct of public affairs, with "not one cent for surplus, and no unnecessary taxation." The money not needed for the expenses of the Government "should remain in the pockets of the people." All internal taxation should be abolished; the dignity of American labor should be defended; such a tariff for revenue should be arranged as would be "limited to the necessary expenditure of the Government, and so adjusted as to give protection and encouragement to home-production, industry, and labor without producing or fostering monopolies"; there should be an "equalization of taxes," no "hindrance to legitimate enterprise," no "encouragement of monopolies," and all "government in the

interest of the whole people." When we add that a system of civil-service reform is demanded which will be so "genuine and deep-reaching" that only "honest, capable, and courageous public servants" will be put in office and will "faithfully administer their trusts," any one can see that the platform leaves little to be desired.

The framer of the New Jersey resolutions evidently proceeded on the curious idea that all the demands he was making were fiercely opposed by the Republicans, and that by putting them into the platform he would arouse the enthusiasm of the Convention. Instead of that being the case, the delegates paid no attention whatever to them when they were read, and went home in ignorance of what they had declared for. A similar indifference was manifested toward the speakers who dwelt upon the importance of "turning the rascals out." Senator McPherson's assertions that "loyalty to the Republican party means immunity from crime," and that the "people are awakening from their lethargy," were received with visible signs of weariness; and when the permanent Chairman attempted to give the delegates a second instalment of the same kind of information, they fairly howled him into silence by proposing "three cheers for the blatherer," and requesting him to "cut it short." They had gone to the Convention to nominate a candidate for Governor, and they were not in a mood to waste time upon the stereotyped accompaniments of that duty. Their conduct is instructive as showing that the party platform and party tirades of the period have lost their hold upon the politicians as well as upon the voters. The resolutions no longer mean anything to anybody, and rarely have any effect in the subsequent canvass.

The press has again been giving Mr. Wendell Phillips trouble by making the extraordinary charge that he has "changed his views" with regard to General Butler's reëlection. This statement is, he declares, a mistake. He has not changed his views; he wants Butler reëlected, mainly that he may lift from the State "the Republican incubus which weighs so heavily upon it." He declares that the Republicans are "soulless carrion masquerading in the grave clothes of their predecessors," and that he distrusts and despises them for it and hopes that they will be handsomely beaten by the gallant Ben. This letter, for some unexplained reason, attracts universal attention in Massachusetts, and is spoken of as if it were the utterance of some leading statesman "defining his position" on the issues of the day. There is certainly nothing in it to show that Mr. Phillips is changed in any way.

There was a little household murder at Trinity, Texas, on Tuesday, which afforded the town a pleasant day's excitement. Major Hurlock, a mill-owner, and a man of those strong natural affections which enlist the sympathy of the reader at once, had occasion to beat one of his employees, Roseman by name, who had accidentally hurt his child. Calling his eldest son to his assistance, the pair set upon Roseman, knocked him down, and were giving him some very effective punishment when he drew his revolver, disposed of young Hurlock by shooting him through the head, and wounded the Major. Feeling that all this might have disagreeable consequences, Roseman went up stairs and barricaded himself in; but on being asked by the "lady of the house"—presumably Mrs. Hurlock—to leave the premises, he very obligingly but imprudently did so. The mill-hands had now gathered on the spot, and as he retreated, they opened fire upon him, and after riddling him with "goose shot," easily secured him, whereupon the gallant Major, wounded as he was, again set upon and beat him, until the bystanders stopped the sport. Such incidents as these in the development of manufactures in Texas show that factory life in the new South promises to be very different from what it is in older parts of the country. There is a fine opening in Trinity for desperadoes and ruffians who desire to help in building up the State.

The only substitute for the duel that has ever been successfully introduced among civilized people has been that of arbitration by a disinterested friend, followed by a decision as to the merits of the case, and a reconciliation, if possible, of the parties. A most praiseworthy attempt has been made in Kentucky to introduce this sort of adjustment of difficulties, and apparently, too, among the very class that used to be most given to duels. The following is the history of the affair:

"Col. J. Stoddard Johnston has published a 'decision' in some of the Kentucky newspapers to the following effect: 'Certain personal differences having arisen between the Hon. J. C. S. Blackburn and the Hon. Ben S. Robbins, growing out of the Congressional canvass in the Seventh District about a year ago, and the same being submitted to me upon my solicitation, I hereby announce the following settlement of the same: Mr. Robbins having published a card animadverting upon Mr. Blackburn for words uttered by him in a speech which he regarded as reflecting upon him, suspends the same for a statement. The words at which offence was taken are declared not to have been intended as a personal reflection upon Mr. Robbins or an arraignment of his integrity, but as a discussion of his political action. Mr. Robbins therefore withdraws his card, and Mr. Blackburn withdraws any commentary he may have made upon the same, or expressions derogatory of Mr. Robbins. The cause of estrangement being declared to be removed, I decide that the difference between the gentlemen is honorably adjusted, and that they shall meet each other as friends.'"

How much better this is than if Mr. Blackburn had had to "slay" Mr. Robbins, or Mr. Robbins to fill Mr. Blackburn with "buckshot."

The first colony of immigrants from Germany to America landed at Philadelphia on October 6, 1683, and soon afterward settled at Germantown, which is now a portion of that city. Most of them were natives of the Rhine country, who left Germany to seek greater freedom of action in both religious and secular matters. The new settlement was made under the leadership of Francis Daniel Pastorius, who arrived in Philadelphia in August of the same year, and whose virtues Whittier has sung in his poem of "The Pennsylvania Pilgrim." He laid out the town in May, 1684, and obtained a charter for it in May, 1691. It is now proposed by the Germans in America to celebrate the bi-centenary of the original settlement, which occurs next month, with appropriate exercises, not only at Germantown but throughout the United States, as the beginning of the great movement of German immigration to this country. This proposal has drawn attention to the numerical strength of our German population, and many conflicting estimates are made of its dimensions. Unfortunately there are no accurate figures to base a calculation upon. The census returns afford the means for only an approximate estimate, and that which appears to be the most reasonable places the German-American element at about 9,000,000. The statistics of immigration have been kept only since 1847, and since that date, reckoning up to the 1st of August of the present year, the total number of Germans arriving at all the ports of the country has been a little over 3,000,000. Including in our American-German population all persons of German parentage, as well as all those born in Germany, the estimate of 9,000,000 is probably not too large.

The reduction in price of the New York *Times* from four cents to two cents per copy is the first decided symptom in American journalism of a movement which had its beginning in the penny press of London a dozen years ago. The abolition of the stamp duty and the cheapening of the cost of white paper made it possible for publishers in Great Britain to sell a newspaper of large size and of a high standard of ability at a price the equivalent of two cents in our money. The battle between the high-priced and the low-priced papers in London has been decided, as was inevitable if the low-priced ones should survive the perils of infancy, in favor of the latter. All the high-priced newspapers of London except the *Times* have been driven one by one to follow the example of the *Daily Telegraph* by reducing their price to one penny. The *Times* has held out so far, but at such cost in the way of circulation that it has latterly adopted the expedient of publishing a small sheet, called the *Summary*, at the price of a half-penny, in order to meet the intolerable competition of the *Telegraph*, *Standard*, and *Daily News*. The *Summary* is a condensation of the news and editorials of the *Times*, published at one-sixth of the price of the *Times* itself; and it remains to be seen whether it will have the effect intended by its inventors of driving the penny papers out of the field, or whether it will complete the work which the penny press has begun of driving the *Times* out of the field. Such contests are always slow in producing their final results. It would not be surprising if the result in this case were a reduction in the price of the *Times* to one penny, and the suppression of its subordinate, the *Summary*.

The course of English journalism has been watched with the deepest interest by all publishers of newspapers in America, and the conviction has been gaining ground that they must sooner or later follow suit. The *Sun* took up the same line of battle in New York when it began to give its readers, in condensed

but methodical and intelligible shape, all the news of the day, together with careful editorial treatment, for the price of two cents. Its success forced the *Herald* a few years ago to reduce its price from four cents to three. Since that time a new crop of cheap papers has come up — the *Morning Journal*, the *Star*, and *Truth* (one cent), and the *World* has lowered its price, first to three and latterly to two cents. The *World*, being a member of the Associated Press, was enabled to publish all the important news of the day at a price one-third less than that of the *Herald*, and at one-half the price charged by the *Times* and the *Tribune*. It was not, we presume, the competition of the *World* that decided the *Times* to reduce its price, but rather the general drift of journalism in England and America.

The sudden appearance of ten gorgeously-attired ambassadors from Corea "in our midst" appears to have caused considerable astonishment and bewilderment. The reporters who are detailed to meet distinguished visitors to our shores and describe minutely for the public edification their personal appearance, clothing, and manner of conversation, were wholly unable to cope successfully with the task imposed upon them on Monday. In the first place they were confronted with a national costume which completely paralyzed their practised powers of description. In the second place the ambassadors spoke a language which only two men outside the boundaries of Corea have ever been able to learn. Humiliating as it may be to American journalism, the confession must be made that neither of these two is employed by any of our esteemed contemporaries. As a consequence, the reception of the visitors by the reporters was much less brilliant than such affairs usually are. No "views" could be extracted from the ambassadors on any subject, and it is a positive fact that nobody in this great city knows what those distinguished observers think of our country and its institutions. This unprecedented failure in journalism has naturally bewildered the public, and there is much curiosity to know what the ambassadors are here for and why they wear such peculiar clothes. The object of the visit is mainly a friendly one. A treaty between Corea and the United States was signed about a year ago. The American ambassador who went to Corea to secure it was the second foreigner whom the King had ever beheld. The impression which a live American made upon his Majesty, who is kept so secluded that he is not even allowed to appear in public among his own people, was so favorable that a treaty was granted, and an incipient desire to have Corea thrown open to the outside world was much strengthened. A craving to behold more foreigners spread among the Corean people, and the women became so possessed with it that, although they are as jealously secluded as royalty, they could be seen by strangers peering from behind doors and stockades, trees and shrubbery. The present visit is an outcome of this popular curiosity to know more of the outside world, and especially more of American civilization. The ambassadors are high officials at the Corean Court, and other distinguished persons, who are fully capable of carrying back intelligent accounts of their observations.

It is evident that the recent victory of the French troops, under General Bouet, over the Black Flags between Hanoi and Sontai was as barren as it was dearly bought. That the French carried the enemy's works only after three days' hard fighting, at so short a distance from their own base in the delta of the Red River, shows what a task the reduction of the interior of Tonquin must prove to be, even should China be awed into the acceptance of an arrangement allaying all fears of an intervention on her part. General Bouet found it necessary to withdraw his forces to Hanoi immediately after the battle, in which no portion of the enemy (who are said to have numbered 4,000) was captured, though the works were taken by the bayonet. A despatch from Hong Kong of the 17th announces Bouet's arrival there, which is "believed to mean his removal from active command." The Black Flags again threaten the French outposts around Hanoi, and all aggressive warlike preparations on the part of the French are suspended until the arrival of reinforcements from Europe. At a recent Cabinet Council at Paris M. Challemel-Lacour is reported to have expressed his satisfaction with the course of his negotiations with the Chinese Ambassador. According to other reports, however, the Pekin Government is quite stiff in the assertion of its rights of suzerainty over Tonquin. M. Waddington, the French Ambassador to the British Court, is mainly active in the negotiations with the Marquis Tseng, and there are rumors of dissensions in the Cabinet of M. Ferry which may lead to the retirement of M. Challemel-Lacour from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The latter statesman has left Paris "for a few days' rest." Mediation, on the part of England or the United States, or both, is frequently talked about. Popular opinion in France is said to be strongly in favor of peace.

The latest despatches from China show that the Canton riot was the result of the hatred of the mob for the "foreign devils," and the natural sequel of the previous trouble arising from the shooting of a Chinaman by one of the foreign tide-waiters belonging to the imperial Customs. Threatening notices were, it was then stated, posted in the city with a view to intimidate foreigners, and this without doubt prepared the roughs of the place for aggressive measures, which they were not loth to adopt upon the occurrence of another personal affray—this time reported to have been caused by a Portuguese watchman killing a Chinaman. There are no wharves in Canton of any consequence, excepting the steamboat wharves, which are near the customs inspection shed, and within sight of the Custom-house; Mr. Woodruff, an American, being "Commissioner of Customs" at the port of Canton, and Mr. Holwill, also an American, his assistant in charge. From these wharves the Hong Kong steamers owned by British merchants or corporations leave twice a day, morning and evening. Their crews comprise Portuguese quartermasters, guards, deck-hands, etc. As Portugal has rarely a flag flying at Canton, it is more than likely that some of these Hong Kong steamers' crews are implicated in the last affair, in which case the contents of the buildings said to have been thrown on the wharves and burned or looted must have been foreign packages under Customs examination, with the personal effects of some of the Customs employees.

The foreign merchants reside on an island called Shamien, a concession to France and England, and occupied as such for the purposes of business. There are no wharves at Shamien—the place is stone-faced, with landing-steps, also of stone, for goods and passengers. It is connected with the main land or river front of Canton by two bridges, protected by iron gates, and no Chinese are allowed to make it a thoroughfare. The gates are only opened to foreigners or Chinese officials, and it is in no way a place which roughs could easily approach or attack, though the eastern gate is at no great distance from the Customs. There are no Englishmen attached to the Custom-house at Canton. Owing to some official squabble which a former commissioner—an Englishman—got into with a high Chinese mandarin, Inspector-General Hart, who is at the head of the department at Peking, ruled that Americans, French, and other nationalities should be represented to the exclusion of British subjects at that port.

No new outbreaks have taken place in Agram, or in any other large city of Croatia, since the restoration of the Hungarian escutcheons. The wealthier classes of the Croatian population seem to appreciate the danger to order, industry, and the general welfare of the country which lurked in the tumultuous movements begun in the name of patriotism, and soon after directed against Jews and landowners. The Hungarian Premier, Tisza, a week ago personally repaired to the Croatian capital, where he summoned a number of notables to an interview. The discussions were stormy, but, after lively recriminations on the part of the Croats, ended with their making loyal promises. In the rural districts, however, the disorders continue. In some parts, especially in the districts south of the Kulpa, formerly included in the Military Frontier, they show a violent agrarian character, and sanguinary conflicts have taken place between the rebellious peasantry and the military near Petrinia, on that river, and at Kostainica, on the Bosnian border. In the Zagorie district, between Agram and Styria, which was the scene of the first armed resistance to the troops, order has been restored. A disturbance in the eastern portion of Slavonia was easily quelled. The Hungarian Government evidently regards the repeated outbreaks with lively anxiety, and is bending all its energies toward suppressing them. It was, perhaps, very fortunate for it that the originally anti-Magyar agitation so speedily degenerated into a disorder threatening to the leading Slavic nationalists themselves, and proving the political immaturity of the rural populations of the Croato-Slavonian kingdom.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, September 12, to TUESDAY, September 18, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE second attempt to relieve the expedition sent out in 1881, under Lieutenant Greely, to establish a station at Lady Franklin Bay, has resulted in failure. The relief steamer *Yantic* returned to St. John's, Newfoundland, last Thursday, bringing word that her associate steamer, the *Proteus*, had been crushed in the ice, at the entrance of Smith's Sound, on July 23. When it was found that the *Proteus* must sink, all hands set to work throwing on the ice clothing, provisions, and other stores. The greater part of this property was lost, but enough was saved to insure the comfort of the officers and crew during their retreat south. They first directed their course to Cape York, with the thought that either the *Yantic* or the Swedish steamer *Sophia* might be there. On reaching the Cape there was no sign of either vessel. Proceeding further south, Lieutenant Caldwell, with one boat and six men, set out across Melville Bay, hoping to find the *Yantic*. Lieutenant Garlington, with the other boat and the rest of the crew of the *Proteus*, took a more circuitous route along the shore. Both boats reached Upernavik, and were there picked up by the *Yantic* and brought to St. John's. Great fear is now expressed that it will be impossible to get provisions to Lieutenant Greely and his men in time to save them from starvation. It is hoped that Lieutenant Greely will make his way south to some of the points at which provisions were left. Commander Wildes of the *Yantic* telegraphs to the Secretary of the Navy that it is useless to charter another foreign ship to go north, as the crew of the *Proteus* behaved shamefully at the time of the wreck, adding: "My plan is to buy a suitable sealer, take the crew from volunteers from the crews of the *Yantic* and *Powhatan*, now in this harbor, paying them extra compensation, Lieutenant J. H. Caldwell to command the ship; two ensigns and one engineer to be taken from those who may volunteer. From same ship also employ competent ice pilot here. The ship must be under United States laws and subject to military discipline." The Government has decided not to send out another relief expedition this year.

The Corean Embassy to this country arrived in this city from Washington on Monday evening, and were formally received by President Arthur at the Fifth Avenue Hotel on Tuesday forenoon.

The President has decided to name a commission of experts to make a searching examination of all the conditions of hog-raising and packing industries in the United States, and to follow out in their inquiry the course of this food staple from the fields and farms to the wharf where it is shipped, or the shop where it is offered for domestic sale.

Secretary Folger has issued a call for $15,000,000 3 per cent. bonds.

The total amount of money in circulation in this country on September 12 was $1,575,104,647. A per capita distribution would give each person $30 39.

The commission appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury to investigate charges that, under the treaty of 1875 between the United States and the Sandwich Islands, sugars not entitled to exemption from duties thereunder had been imported from those islands into the United States, has made its report. It does not find the charges sustained. It does find that the sugar output of the Island cannot exceed 100,000 tons per annum; that the industry is in the hands of German and English citizens or Hawaiians, and that the treaty has not created a sugar monopoly on the Pacific coast and increased the price to the consumer.

Postmaster-General Gresham says that he is studying carefully the whole question of a postal telegraph, and he confesses that thus far he has not reached any decision on the subject.

Naval Officer Nevin, of Philadelphia, has been informed by the Treasury Department that he cannot promote employees receiving less than $900 a year to clerkships which fall under the provisions of the new civil-service rules.

A letter by the New York Civil-Service Commission, explaining their classification of the civil service of the State, says: "The Commission decided to reorganize in the classification the great special departments of the public service by bringing into a single class the clerks wherever employed, into another the experts not attached to any great administrative institutions, and into another the non-experts not in such institutions. The last four classes represent all those other than the deputies and clerks employed on the public works and in the corrective and charitable institutions."

The Republican primary meetings in this city, held last Friday night under the new rule, which allows all Republicans to vote, brought out a few voters who do not usually attend such meetings. The vote, however, was light, and the delegates were mostly of the Stalwart class.

The New York County Democrats in this city have rejected the invitation to confer with Tammany and Irving Halls about arrangements for sending a united delegation to the State Convention. They insist that all the Democratic electors of the city shall attend the primary meetings held under the resolutions of the State Committee.

The New Jersey Democratic Convention last Thursday nominated Leon Abbett for Governor. The nomination is very distasteful to many Democrats in the State. The platform declares that the people shall only be taxed so much as is absolutely indispensable for the frugal conduct of their public affairs; favors the entire abolition of the system of internal taxation, and "a tariff for revenue limited to the necessary expenditure of the Government, and so adjusted as to give protection and encouragement to home productive industry, without producing or fostering monopolies"; and denounces "the sham methods of the Civil-Service Commission in its pretended examination of candidates for places."

The New Jersey Republican Convention on Tuesday nominated Judge Jonathan Dixon, of the State Supreme Court, for Governor. The platform congratulates the country upon the successful application of the principles of genuine civil-service reform in the national Administration, and favors the adoption of the system in all branches of the State Government; favors a protective tariff, and says: "We hold it to be one of the most imperative demands of the time that our system of State taxation should be so exactly equitable as to reach all corporations as well as all individuals."

Mr. Henry L. Pierce has written a letter declining positively to be the Republican candidate for Governor in Massachusetts. He thinks that some of his past political acts, and his known views on pending subjects, may prevent that united support of him which another candidate would receive. Representative Robinson will now doubtless receive the nomination.

Wendell Phillips has written a letter, denying the report that he is now opposed to Butler's reëlection. He says: "I distrust and despise the Republicans as hypocrites and time-servers, as double-dealers, as soulless carrion masquerading in the clothes of their honored predecessors." He adds: "I think Butler certainly ought to be reëlected; probably he will be reëlected."

Ex-Governor Hendricks addressed a large political meeting in Iowa on September 11. He denounced prohibition, said Mr. Tilden was not a candidate for President, and that in the adjustment of the tariff it becomes a question of infinite detail what shall be the charge upon each article taxed, and that "inequalities of burdens and monopolies should be prevented, and care taken that the industries of the country and the interests of labor suffer no harm."

The people of southern Dakota have been holding a Constitutional Convention in preparation for their admission as a State. This has caused much jealousy among the people of the northern part of the Territory, and they have passed resolutions denouncing the independent course of their neighbors. The District Court of the Territory has decided that the capital must remain at Yankton.

One of the principal witnesses before the Senate Committee on Education and Labor during the past week has been John C. Calhoun, a grandson of the famous South Carolinian, now a resident of Arkansas. He gave his opinion on the condition of the negro in the South, and told how colored laborers are employed and paid. He said that the relations between the small farmers and the larger landowners who employ them are friendly, and that there is little danger of strikes. He finds that the tariff bears very heavily upon the small landowners in that region, and that the race feeling is dying out.

The New York Railroad Commissioners have passed a resolution requiring all the railroad companies in the State to make quarterly financial reports.

The railroads between Chicago and Louisville are engaged in a war of passenger rates.

There has been a serious fight between ten prospectors and a band of Bannock Indians in Idaho. One Indian was killed and three were wounded, and of the miners three were wounded so badly that they were not expected to live.

Eight hostile Apaches attacked two men at a ranche at Antelope Springs, Arizona, last Sunday, and killed one of the ranchmen. The Indians are supposed to be some of those whom General Crook did not bring in from the mountains of Mexico. Their act has called out severe local criticisms of General Crook's peace policy.

There was a severe hurricane along the Atlantic coast last week. The Signal Bureau sent out timely warning, and no serious disasters occurred. The steamer *City of Atlanta*, from Charleston to this port, encountered the gale and sprung a leak, the water putting out her fires. She drifted for eighteen hours, when she was picked up and towed into Smithville, N. C.

The Italian steamship *Indipendente*, from Palermo, went ashore on the Long Island coast, near Freeport, last Thursday morning. She had a cargo of sulphur, lemons, and oranges, and there were on board 160 persons. The passengers were all landed safely, and the vessel was pulled off on Saturday.

H. Warner made a balloon ascension at Pittsburgh, Pa., last Thursday, going up hanging to a trapeze bar. When at a great elevation the gas began to escape. He climbed up into the basket, when suddenly the balloon partly collapsed, the envelope forming a parachute. This checked the descent, and in falling to the ground he was only stunned. His escape is considered a very remarkable one.

Hugh J. Hastings, editor and proprietor of the *Commercial Advertiser*, of this city, died on September 13.

Mr. Junius Brutus Booth, a well-known actor, brother of Edwin Booth, died at Manchester, Mass., on Monday evening.

FOREIGN.

The exciting event of the week in connection with the Tonquin difficulty has been the

news of a battle between the French forces and the Black Flags, between Hanoi and Sontai. French accounts say that on September 1 the French forces from Hanoi advanced to within twelve miles of Sontai, where the enemy was found in casemate forts, upon which the fire of the French had no effect. After three days' hard fighting the French troops, aided by a heavy fire from the fleet under Admiral Bouet, carried the enemy's works at the point of the bayonet, capturing two towns and two Black Flag standards. The French loss was two officers and fourteen men killed, and three officers and forty men wounded. The Chinese claim a victory. The French took thirty prisoners, who were beheaded forthwith. The result shows that very large reinforcements will be needed to clear Tonquin of the Black Flags, as an earthwork of no great strength kept the French, supported by gunboats, three days at bay. Warlike operations have been suspended until the arrival of reinforcements from France. The Black Flags are threatening the French outposts. Two transports now loading with troops for Tonquin at Marseilles have been ordered to hasten their departure, as General Bouet makes urgent demands for aid. The severity of the blockade of Tonquin has been so far relaxed as to allow vessels to proceed to their destination after being searched for articles contraband of war.

The Paris *Soir* gives the following as the heads of the proposals by the Marquis Tseng, the Chinese Ambassador, to M. Challemel-Lacour: That France shall cease sending reinforcements to Tonquin; that China will recognize the treaty of Hué, but will retain the right of investiture of the Anamese sovereigns; that the French protectorate shall be under Chinese control and under the direction of military mandarins; that China shall be reimbursed for all expenses incurred in the repression of the Black Flags. Tseng has expressed disappointment at the absence of any official proposals on the part of the French Government for the settlement of the question. He has said that China is determined to concede nothing concerning the suzerainty over Anam, as she does not wish France to possess territory adjoining the Chinese frontier. There is said to be a lack of harmony in the French Cabinet.

Much anxiety continues to be felt at Canton. It is considered probable that in case of another attack on the foreign Concession the Chinese troops on the gunboats there will make common cause with their countrymen. A hundred British soldiers are kept in Hong Kong ready for action in case of an emergency. The Chinese at Foo-Choo are restless and hostile to the Europeans. A British gunboat has been ordered to anchor opposite the Concession. The Chinese have posted placards on the walls of Canton, applauding the action of the populace and calling upon them to kill the Europeans at the next opportunity.

Germany, it is announced, will in no circumstances act as arbitrator between France and China. The report about a submission of the matter to England and America is positively denied.

The Paris *Union*, the organ of the French Legitimists, has ceased publication. Its farewell address says that the paper's mission ended with the death of the Comte de Chambord. It salutes the Comte de Paris as the head of the house of France, and hopes that he will restore to Christians the traditional monarchy. The cessation implies that the Legitimists will not support the Comte de Paris unless he claims the throne on the most absolute clerical principles, which is known to be impossible.

Captain Delaunay, a French infantry officer, who predicted four years ago that there would be an earthquake in Java, giving the date two days within its actual occurrence, predicts a worse disaster in 1886. The French Academy of Science has decided that this prophecy and its sequence were merely an extraordinary coincidence.

Baron von Manteuffel, military commander of Alsace-Lorraine, has issued a decree proclaiming that the use of the German language by the judicial and municipal authorities of Metz and Thionville shall be compulsory after January 1, 1884, as the use of the French language had been made to further an agitation for the restoration of Alsace-Lorraine to France.

A Paris correspondent telegraphs that there is reason to believe that the recent accessions to the Austro-German alliance will soon result in Germany issuing a proposal for a general congress of all the European Powers, with a view of determining upon a general disarmament.

The *North German Gazette* (Prince Bismarck's organ) denies that the Powers are irritated against Russia because of the recent events in Bulgaria. It says: "It is the dominant wish at Berlin, Vienna, and Rome to live at peace with Russia. None of the Powers desires war or anything else from Russia. No complaint is heard from any quarter, even from the Porte. The alleged irritation is purely imaginary, and due to the stories of sensation-mongers."

The *Journal de St. Pétersbourg* declares that should Prince Alexander, of Bulgaria, fail in the task appointed him, the peace of the East, and perhaps of Europe, will be imperilled.

It is said that the Czarina lately detected one of the imperial chamberlains in the act of placing Nihilistic documents in her apartments, and that he, fearing the consequences, committed suicide. New arrests have been made of officers of the Guards and officers of the Russian navy suspected of being engaged in Nihilist operations.

The Berlin *Germania*, an Ultramontane organ, says: "The Pope, acting in harmony with the Prussian bishops, has, without assenting in principle to the legislative enactments in regard to the education of the clergy, consented to grant dispensation for the past, and for this once only. If the May laws continue in force, a like spirit of toleration cannot be further exercised. Political sagacity should counsel the Government not to disappoint the confidence of the Pope, of which he has now given proof."

The disturbances in Croatia have not been settled. Herr Tisza, the Hungarian Prime Minister, has had a stormy interview at Agram with several Croatian notables whom he had summoned to an audience. The notables, after excitedly detailing the wrongs under which, they claimed, Croatia had suffered, promised to fulfil certain conditions proposed on behalf of the Hungarian Government, the details of which have not been announced. The *Pesther Lloyd* says that all indications point to the belief that the authors of the disorders are only the pioneers of a projected South Slavic agitation, which is to be directed, not against Hungary alone, but against the Austrian Empire generally. The military have again been compelled to fire into a mob with fatal effect.

The celebration at Wittenberg last Thursday of the quatercentenary of Martin Luther's birth was a great success. The doorway of the Augustine Monastery was flanked by Venetian masts. Colossal busts of Luther and Melancthon had been placed on the balcony of the Town Hall and on stands throughout the city. The Emperor's bust in front of the Town Hall was decorated with flowers. Portraits of Luther and mottoes from his sayings and writings were displayed in many windows. The number of visitors was estimated at 50,000. On arriving at Wittenberg the Crown Prince Frederick William, with Prince Albrecht and Herr von Gossler, Minister of Ecclesiastical Affairs, drove direct to the Stadtkirche and attended divine service. Over 1,000 clergymen filled the church. After the reading of the liturgy Superintendent-General Schultz delivered the festival sermon, taking his text from St. Matthew xxi. 42, 43. The royal party then proceeded to the Schlosskirche, where the Crown Prince placed a splendid laurel wreath upon Luther's grave. A general Catholic convention was held at Düsseldorf on the same day. The Ultramontane Herr Windthorst has proposed that an association of Catholics of all nations be formed, and that religious meetings to pray for Catholic unification be held on November 10 next, the anniversary of Luther's birthday.

A panic was caused in the theatre at Carlsbad on September 11 by a false alarm of fire. The doors were found locked. Many of the audience made their escape from the windows. Several persons were injured.

The International Literary Conference, which represents the principal countries of Europe, in session at Berne, has adopted a copyright convention to be submitted to the International Congress, which will be convened at Amsterdam on September 25.

The Congress of Commerce and Industry, holding its annual session at Amsterdam, has adopted a resolution declaring that the principal cause of the depreciation of silver is the decrease of its coinage in Europe, and expressing a wish for the adoption of a common double standard throughout Europe and America.

At a trades-unions congress in Birmingham, England, a resolution of Joseph Arch was adopted, declaring that, considering the large amount of waste land in the kingdom which is capable of cultivation, radical changes in the land system of the country are required in order that the land may be put under productive cultivation for the benefit of the community, thereby offering a check to excessive emigration. An amendment calling upon the Government to declare such lands Government property was rejected.

Mr. Parnell has paid off a mortgage on his estate amounting to £13,000 from the proceeds of the Parnell testimonial fund.

Mr. Davitt's recent speech in Ireland has provoked a chorus of disapproval in England. The Tory papers demand the revocation of his ticket-of-leave on the ground that his speeches contain rank sedition. Two more immense Home Rule meetings have been held in Ireland.

James McDermott, recently of Brooklyn, who was arrested on his arrival in England, has been discharged for lack of evidence.

O'Donnell, the murderer of Carey, the Irish informer, was landed at Southampton on Tuesday morning, and taken at once to Millbank Jail. He will be arraigned next Tuesday. Extraordinary precautions were used to prevent any attempt at rescue. It is said that Mrs. Carey has given important letters to the authorities.

A meeting of the supporters of Mr. Bradlaugh has resolved that at the next session of Parliament the House of Commons shall be given no rest until Mr. Bradlaugh is admitted to his seat or his legal disqualification finally determined.

The British Admiral, Sir Richard Collinson, who spent three winters in the Arctic region in search for Sir John Franklin, is dead. Also Dutton Cook, a well-known English writer on dramatic and art subjects, and Victor Alexander Puiseux, a famous French mathematician.

The directors of the Suez Canal Company have decided that after January 1, 1884, all vessels passing through the canal in ballast shall be entitled to a reduction of 2½ francs per ton. The company will also in future pay the cost of floating and restarting vessels that may run aground in the canal.

The Exchange Bank of Montreal has suspended, but is redeeming its notes, and its depositors will probably be paid in full.

STALWART EXULTATION.

THERE is something very extraordinary, and in fact almost inexplicable, about the exultation which the Stalwarts feel, and take no pains to conceal, over the fact that very few Republicans who were not Stalwarts came to the New York primaries last week—not more than a sixth according to the lowest estimate; not more than a fourth according to the highest. A full explanation of the general lack of interest in the primaries this year would involve a pretty complete review of the history of the city for the last fifty years, and of the causes which have led to the general abandonment of the primaries by the masses of both parties, and their conversion into clubs and even oath-bound close corporations of men who make a living out of politics. These causes have been at work in both parties, and have produced the same effects among the Democrats as among the Republicans. A year or two since, the more intelligent and public-spirited Democrats went to work to reorganize the Democratic primaries, by means of a very shrewd and elaborate plan. They did not content themselves with insisting that the Tammanyites should let them come to the primaries, but they invented a quasi-military reënrolment of all faithful and upright Democrats, which was designed to produce that feeling of public or, at any rate, party spirit, the absence of which is always complained of as the cause of the degeneration of the primaries. At first this scheme promised well; but it has not restored harmony to the party, nor has it made the Democratic primaries genuine representative institutions, nor has it done away with halls, or bosses, or the Machine.

Now, however different the two parties are in other respects, so far as regards the condition of the nominating machinery they closely resemble each other—that is to say, this machinery is in both in the hands of those who are "inside," and to it the great masses of the party are total strangers. Therefore it was only fair to expect that the work of reforming the primaries in both would be attended with much the same difficulties. The Republican primaries would to this day have remained in the curious condition to which Stalwart management brought them, had not the crushing defeat of the Machine ticket last year convinced the managers that the independent vote must be conciliated, or else they must face the alternative of remaining in control of nominations only to lose elections. The result of this desire to conciliate their opponents, and to make the nominations reflect the feeling of the whole party, rather than that of a mere faction, has led to the primaries being thrown open, and now they have been held, and yet the general control of them has remained in the hands of the Stalwarts as before.

Upon this the Stalwarts have begun to set up a great outcry at the demonstration they think it affords of the hollowness of the pretensions of the reformers, and are almost ready to dance for joy at the thought that they have not succeeded in getting the masses of the party to come to the primaries. When we reflect upon the work in which the Stalwarts are engaged, this is very singular behavior. What the Stalwarts want to do, as sensible, practical American politicians, is not to demonstrate the insincerity of those who insist that primaries ought to be open, and then stay at home when they are held; but to get some one to help them carry the load of responsibility under which they have lately been staggering. The Stalwarts are now simply a set of politicians who have been endeavoring to retain their hold upon the management of the party by a careful manipulation of patronage. They do not represent any ideas or opinions—except that Grant ought to have had a third term, and that Conkling is a great statesman, which are not now questions of any practical interest—and do not want to. What they want are the offices, and they are quite willing that the ideas and opinions over which elections are to be fought should be provided for them by the idealists and doctrinaires and reformers and other devotees of what they believe to be political humbug and cant. Provided they can keep control of the Machine, and nominate the next candidate for President, they are willing to profess to believe almost anything, even to throw up their hats for civil-service reform, and to let the party platform be drawn up by Mr. G. W. Curtis.

But the offices they must have, and they know from a very bitter experience that they will not get them unless they can make nominations which will not drive the independent Republican vote over to the Democrats. It was in the hope that they could entice the Independents into the fold, and get them to share in the work of keeping them in control, that they so liberally threw open the doors of the primaries; and if the Independents had gone to them in great numbers, and the result had been a State delegation representing the whole party, it would have been a great triumph. But they secured nothing of this sort. The class which it was for their interest to draw in refused to come, and therefore they find themselves left, just where they were before, in control of the Machine, but with the character of the Machine wholly unchanged. Singular as it may seem, this result appears to give them great pleasure, and they exult with the simplicity of savages over the refusal of the Independents to come to the primaries, as if it were in their own interest. The result furnishes really a very good reason for their feeling profound regret. In their delight they seem entirely to forget that the Independents retain precisely the same power at the polls that they have always had. They are not committed to anything; but hold in reserve the same power to defeat the Stalwart slate at the polls that they have had all along, and the exercise of which is surely though slowly disintegrating the Stalwart forces. As a collection of "leaders" their behavior is very funny, for, if there is one thing certain with regard to the next Presidential election, it is that the chance of any Stalwart's keeping his place at the public crib lies in his and his fellows being able to induce the party at large to work under them. Their delight, therefore, in the continued dissatisfaction with their management, manifested in the general distrust of their primaries, is as a matter of practical politics rather grotesque.

ROYAL SUCCESSION IN FRANCE.

THE Comte de Chambord had scarcely breathed his last at Frohsdorf when the various organs of monarchical opinion in Paris began to discuss the question of succession in a very serious tone. Almost all agreed that the Comte de Paris was to be in a certain sense his successor. The open questions were: Has he inherited a crown or a claim—a crown which belonged to the "Roy" by inalienable right, or a claim to be recognized and sanctioned by the French nation? Is Philippe Comte de Paris to be hailed as Philip VII. or as a future Louis Philippe II.? The organ of the Orleans Princes, the *Soleil*, remarked in an oracular way: "The Comte de Chambord was the last representative of the direct issue of Louis XIV.; but the race of Henry IV., the House of France, does not disappear with him. The elder line is extinct, the younger survives." The *Gazette de France*, *Clairon*, and *Gaulois* exclaimed in unison, "Le Roi est mort, vive le Roi!"—which meant direct legitimate succession. The ultra-Legitimist *Union* waited in silence for declarations of the Comte de Paris and of the spokesmen of the strictest shades of its party, and the *Univers*, the organ of extreme ultramontanism, declared its exclusive allegiance to the Church and France—that is to say, its opposition to any pretender who would not follow the lead of the Clericals. This declaration was violently assailed by the Duc de Broglie's *Français*, and the *Univers* was read out of the Royalist camp. The *Gaulois* christened Chambord's heir Philip VII.; *Figaro* objected to this name as an emblem of reaction.

Not many days after the death of the last French Bourbon, placards, signed by Deputy Pieyre and two others, were found posted in Paris and elsewhere, calling upon the nation to rally round "the new sovereign," Louis Philippe II., "the direct heir of Henry V." They were torn down by passers-by and the police. At the same time the *Soleil* published a declaration signed by M. Édouard Hervé, which had all the appearance of emanating from the Comte de Paris's most intimate circle. The latter's visit to Frohsdorf in August, 1873, it asserted, had restored the unity of the royal families; his second visit, in July, 1883, had restored the unity of the monarchical party. This restored unity was a great gain, but more was needed. It was not enough to have one royal family, one monarchical party. This family and this party must go before the country, and ask to be accepted by it. No government could be founded apart from the national will. The country must be appealed to, the cause of monarchy pleaded before it, and thus won. Monarchy was not yet restored: it was only restorable. This declaration was followed by another from the same pen referring to the placards, which stated: "On that day only will there be a king when the nation shall have accepted monarchy. The Comte de Paris is the representative of the right of inheritance, but he must also be the representative

of the right of the people. Thus his legitimacy will be twofold. In a country like Great Britain, where monarchy exists, the tacit consent of the nation is sufficient. In a country in which monarchy has been overthrown, a manifestation of the people's will is needed to reëstablish it. As long as this manifestation is wanting there is an heir to the throne, but there is no king."

This double exposition of liberal Orleanist views was received as a manifesto by the Comte de Paris, who had gone to Frohsdorf to participate in the "Royal" funeral. He was obviously to be a pretender, but a legal pretender. His supporters were to pave his way to the throne by victories won at the polls; and a legal revision of the Constitution, such as the Radicals also demanded, was to crown their triumph. A general plébiscite might follow, giving a final sanction. The allusion to an appeal to the people, the favorite ultimate resort of the Bonapartists, frightened and almost dismayed Paul de Cassagnac, who made haste to warn his party, through the *Pays*, that Imperialism was in more imminent peril now than ever before. For a moment, however, he seemed to counsel submission to the strongest enemy of the Republic, whether Bonapartist or Orleanist, urging Prince Napoleon to give the Clericals guarantees of his return to religious sentiments and of true allegiance to the Concordat, and the Comte de Paris to cast off with contempt the liberalism of his family and declare war on all pernicious liberties. This veering around of the Bonapartist bully appeared to some like a trap set for the Comte de Paris, whose abjuring of liberalism would undoubtedly become as fatal to his pretendership as was, ten years before, the declaration in favor of the white flag to the claims of Chambord. But the Orleanists were not to be caught in this way. Prince Jerome Napoleon, too, was vainly conjured by Cassagnac to come forward with a saving act; neither the *Pays*'s return to himself and ignoring of his son, Prince Victor, nor its shrieks of despair in view of the threatened Orleanist plébiscite, could induce him to exchange his attitude of silent observer of the doings of the Royalists and their princely chiefs. The *Soleil* reiterated its opinions, and the *Français* and *Gazette de France* made them their own.

A sudden ray of hope for despondent Imperialism came from Frohsdorf. There the Orleans Princes had been received with cordial distinction, and their chief, the Comte de Paris, with royal honors. They, too, did their duty as behooved pious Christian cousins of "Henry V.," kneeling and praying at the side of his catafalque. In spite of all this, however, the devout widow of the last "son of St. Louis," who probably never shared the charitable feeling of the deceased in regard to his cousins' standing within the Catholic fold, and was now led by the advice of her spiritual guides, at once announced her resolution to assign the posts of honor at the funeral according to the degrees of relationship—that is to say, the Comte de Paris, the recognized head of the House of France, was to follow the Royal bier at Görz after Don Carlos, the ex-Grand Duke of Tuscany, the ex-Duke of Parma, and the latter's brother, the Comte de Bardi. The slighted grandson of Louis Philippe immediately left Frohsdorf. Thus there was a feud in the Royalist camp. Confusion rapidly followed fusion, as Rochefort expressed it in the *Intransigeant*. But the exultation of the Imperialists did not last long. The action of the pretender's widow was condemned by all the leaders of Legitimists and Orleanists assembled at Frohsdorf; and at Görz, on the day of the funeral, several groups of French Legitimists, including such names as Larochefoucauld-Bisaccia and Charette, held meetings and adopted resolutions in favor of the Comte de Paris as successor of the Comte de Chambord. Thus the confusion again gave way to complete fusion. Another mark of acknowledgment of the legitimacy of the Orleanist aspirations was found by the *Soleil* in the Emperor Francis Joseph's visit to the Comte de Paris during the latter's stay at Vienna, even before the Comte had made his appearance at the Burg.

THE ART REMAINS OF ATHENS.—II.

In front of the Central Museum is a bit of open field, with grass and mallows and asphodels growing and blossoming freely, and herein are ranged in rows many marbles of secondary or tertiary importance—parts of sarcophagi, broken slabs bearing inscriptions, and many gravestones of different forms. Besides these, half-a-dozen large and fine-sculptured slabs lie about in the sunshine or are propped against the guardian's little house, awaiting promotion. Clearly it is meant that they shall be taken into the Museum building, but things move slowly. Meantime it is not thought that the weather will hurt them, for the finest of these tombs are definitively set up out of doors, two miles away, at a point where outside the gate of Athens began the sacred way leading to Eleusis. Here excavations, made by the Archæological Society of Greece twenty years ago, and some more recent, have resulted in the discovery of many sculptured tombstones of all sizes and degrees of importance. Those that are set up as nearly as possible in their old places (and, of course, generally near where they were found) form a gathering of extraordinary interest. They are better here than inside a museum, just as the sculptures of a great building are better in their places in its walls, than elsewhere. To protect the larger and more showy of them against the missiles of the idle, they are boxed around with woodwork and wire gratings, but an old woman, expectant of a few lepta, unlocks these.

Immediately in front of the spectator, as he enters the enclosure, is the largest tomb-relief yet found (Sybel, 3312), with an inscription on its base, in fair, large, unusually neat capitals, setting forth that Dexileos of the Thoric province and son of Lysanias, was one of the five Athenians of knightly rank who fell at Corinth. The war and the Athenian expedition of 394–3 were the scene of Dexileos's last exploits. In the Museum we have already seen the crowning member of the huge state monument commemorating these slain soldiers: here we have his family's tribute to one of them. This magnificent monument is worked out of a thick slab of marble about ten feet high and five wide. At top a very simple pediment-shaped coronal and at bottom a plain square base are left projecting, while the whole width of the slab between is sunk, without pilasters or frame of any sort, leaving the figures in high relief on a panel five feet by six. A scene in the battle is represented, a mounted warrior trampling down a fallen foe. As the figures fill the panel completely, touching top as well as bottom, they are nearly of life-size; for the horse, besides being of the same breed as those of the Parthenon frieze, is slightly emergent from the field, offering his breast to the spectator, and is therefore foreshortened. Holes in the marble show where the lance and helm (or wreath) of the cavalier, the sword of the fallen man, and the reins and head-stall of the horse were all supplied in bronze; and, as the hair of the cavalier is very simply massed, it must have been hidden by the missing head-dress. The fallen man is nude except for a little drapery gathered around his left arm, within the shield which, thrown behind him, partly surrounds his figure with its disk. But the mounted man is dressed in his girded chiton, perhaps over-elaborately draped, while his mantle floats behind him and fills that part of the background with carefully-arranged decorative folds. It is evident that we cannot form a clear conception of the effect of the work when the many metal objects were added. Were they all gilded? and was the whole relief painted? As we have it now, in spite of its great and unintended simplicity, the elaborate and refined modelling satisfies the eye and fills the marble full of interest and artistic value. Another splendid monument is here (Sybel, 3343), a great alto-relief of two ladies, Demetria and Pamphile. Usually these memorial reliefs represent other persons in company with the dead, servants who attend them—children, parents, spouses—and very puzzling their presence and actions are; but in the example before us no one is present but the two ladies, one of whom sits in a rich chair with (as usual) a foot-stool, the other standing by her. The special charm in this fine design is the realistic drapery—a beauty common to many of them, to be sure, but in this case the dress is more elaborate than usual, with full mantles and veils for the head, and is most skilfully disposed, the art, one thinks, having concealed the art more than in the last instance.

It should be well understood how different are these sepulchral monuments, with their life-size figures, high relief, and naturalistic treatment, from the Greek sculpture of which the treatises have more to say and which are better known to students. It is because even recent books on the subject of Greek sculpture allow too little space to their consideration, that it seems important to call the attention of art-students to their peculiarity and value. The archæologists, and especially the German monograph-makers, are not open to any such reproach: the sepulchral monuments of all sorts are in the way of receiving their due from those patient students.

In the depositories upon the Acropolis the sculptured slabs are of a different character. There are no memorials of the dead there, but votive tablets, commemorative records, and architectural reliefs proper. As one goes up the winding way and passes the gateway in the Turkish fortification (soon to be entirely removed, if promises are kept), a small and low-roofed house of rough stone is found in a corner. The old soldier at the gate unlocks it, and one finds a bare interior, with floor of shifting sand and two little traps for windows, through which, however, is had that unequalled view of sea and mountains identified with the memory of Athens for all those who have once seen it. On shelves about the room are the smaller fragments—the smallest behind wire doors; the larger pieces rest upon the floor and are propped against the walls, while two low screens support the less-injured and more valuable reliefs. There are about thirty of them, all but three or four votive tablets to the god of medicine and the

goddess of health. The largest are, or were when intact, three feet six inches in width and rather less in height. The subject of most is uniform: Asklepios is seated as a bearded man, Hygieia, standing with hand and arm raised, leans slightly upon a pillar of the roof, and the human worshippers, made smaller as befits their inferiority, bring animals for the sacrifice and offerings for the shrine. The variety of grouping and composition is, of course, endless. Against one end of the screen leans the stone (Sybel, 3999) erected in testimony of the treaty of the year 375 between Athens and Corcyra—an upright slab once some four feet high, now broken off below. The terms of the treaty are sculptured on one face in crowded lines of inscription, and above this is a rough but interesting bas-relief about sixteen inches high by twenty wide. A draped woman stands for Corcyra; a bearded man seated on a stone must be for Athens (the *Demos* perhaps, as Sybel suggests), and Pallas Athene, fully armed, presides over the alliance. Another memorial is of the treaty between the Athenians and Arcadians (Sybel, 3989, treaty of 362 B. C.), and this is even more interesting than the last, as the inscription is beautiful in itself, and the sculpture, in flat relief in a sunk panel, very delicately designed: Zeus enthroned, and Pallas standing with spear and shield but without the ægis, are accompanied by a goddess who evidently appears for Arcadia; but it is not easy to name her. Another small bas-relief represents our *Demos* again as a bearded man clasping the hand of Athene (or, putting something into her hand ?). The long inscription that follows, partly broken away, has to do with the treasury of the goddess, and was, perhaps, a schedule or inventory.

There are 800 different pieces in this hut, of which 100 or more are still of value as works of art. Out-of doors, piled against the rock that rises above this court, and against the Turkish walls, are larger fragments, but few of them of importance. Some sculptures of the Byzantine epoch take the eye more than anything else here. Upon the table-land above, on top of the rock, and to the east and south of the Parthenon, is a one-story house which was built in the time of King Otto and Queen Amalia, especially to contain the objects discovered upon the Acropolis itself. It is still used for that purpose. It is of considerable size, perhaps 150 feet long, and contains ten halls and chambers, all as bare and plain as possible, and floored only with sand or loose pebbles, but sufficiently lighted (except one room), dry, and a safe enough place of storage. Here, however, the lack of guardianship is even more marked than at the Central Museum. As this collection is opened to the public only three times a week and for short hours, an especial guard is thought less necessary, and one sees instances of reckless mischief on the part of idle visitors. But, as for the contents of this unpretending repository, they are so varied and so precious that but a feeble attempt can be made to describe them.

The largest room contains casts of the Elgin sculptures in London, but mingled with them are marbles from the Parthenon; and especially noticeable are the panels or slabs of the cella-frieze, of which Athens preserves a number. Lord Elgin took to London nearly all that was not wholly ruined of the sculpture of the pediments and of the metopes, but of the frieze he left as much as he took, partly in the temple itself, partly hidden under Turkish buildings long since removed, and rubbish now cleared away. The explosion of the Turkish powder-magazine blew to pieces the centre of the temple, leaving the two ends less completely ruined: the west end, especially, still carries its capitals and architraves in place, and there the whole frieze remains, except a bit at the northwest corner, namely, twelve large slabs, and one small one in the west end itself, and parts of three others adjoining, on the south side. In the Museum, besides very many fragments, there are a dozen or more large slabs, and of these seven from the north side and one from the east end are in sufficiently good order to delight us still as most exquisite works of art.

The slab from the east end has sculptured upon it a group of the gods, seated, receiving the procession of their worshippers that comes flowing up the north side and southward along the eastern end: fortunately this slab is in peculiarly fine condition. Of the slabs from the north frieze, two have oxen and sheep for the sacrifice with their attendants, and these come near the head of the procession; then an exquisite group of youths bearing amphoræ; then a number of the elders of the people, though here some wantonness or bigotry has shattered the heads; then a magnificent scene of chariots and men in vigorous action; and finally two sets of the gallantly prancing, high-actioned horses, ridden bare-backed by stately, unarmed, slightly-draped youths—the procession of horsemen, in short, which is the most familiar part of the famous frieze. The west end frieze, which still remains in its place, is entirely occupied with horses and men who are preparing to join the procession of the north face.

To speak of the value of these sculptures would be like recommending a copy of Shakspere and one of Dante to a person forming a library. And yet, so many persons form their conceptions of Greek sculpture from casts, often inaccurate, generally soiled and injured, and always cold and hard in the surface and color, which but poorly represent the living marble, that it is right to call attention to the wonderful beauty of the originals. I wish that our people could see more of fine sculpture; or, more accurately, that they could see *some little* fine sculpture, without leaving home. The art is more simple than painting; to care for it and to get intense pleasure from it requires less technical training; many minds and eyes are so constituted as to enjoy pure form even more than the combination of qualities which great paintings contain; and yet it cannot be denied that sculpture is generally assumed to be a comparatively uninteresting art. Still, I can imagine no path to the wonderful pleasure that is to be found in loving art for its own sake so direct as the loving study of shattered antique sculpture.

Room V., at the end of the building, contains many different things. On the shelves and on the floor are slabs from the famous parapet of the Temple of the Wingless Victory. The temple itself, having been thrown down hastily by the Turks to make room for fortifications, was set up again during King Otto's reign, and of the sculptured frieze about half is in its place, though much shattered. The other half is in London, and terracotta copies replace it in the rebuilt temple. But no attempt was made to restore the parapet, made of large slabs of marble forty inches high, which prevented falling from the dizzy point where the temple is perched. This is most richly sculptured in a style curiously different from that of the Parthenon frieze, although later by only a quarter of a century. It is sad to find how little of it remains. No idea of the complete frieze nor of the sequence of its subjects can now be formed—even Herr Kekulé's careful analysis falling short of that. A few figures of winged Victories, posed in attitudes of active motion, and exquisitely draped, remain for our study. This Room V. contains also a few reliefs from the Erechtheion, and fragments of large and fine votive sculptures, and, in a glass case, small objects of clay and bronze, as well as recently discovered *colored* sculptures, of which a few words below. The next room (VI.) has several sculptured bases for statues, sculptured with designs of unusual character, as where (Sybel, 6154) five athletes are found scraping themselves with strigils, with various contortions; and (Sybel, 6149) another with six figures of dancing women of great variety of attitude and gesture. Here, too, is a valuable archæological document (Sybel, 6148), a flat relief of a trireme, from which study may suffice to evolve further explanation of a troublesome subject. In Rooms VII., VIII., IX., and X. are inscriptions, and in Room I. some most important pieces of archaic sculpture, large statues as well as reliefs, among which is the remarkable statue (Sybel, 5005) of a manly figure bearing a calf (or bullock ?—it has rather the form of the full-grown creature, and we may well assume the bearer to be divinely gigantic), called Hermes Moschophoros, and also Theseus, and by various other names.

Even as we study this museum, or choose among its fourteen hundred objects those which it is most important to study, digging is going on outside, and new discoveries are being added to the contents of the building. Since first the Turkish houses were swept off the Acropolis, exploration has gone on intermittently, but now it is proposed to go down to the living rock everywhere, and to bring to light whatever of value successive ages have deposited among the earth and rubbish of successive fillings-up and gradings.* Rejected drums for columns and rough boulders seem to have been thrown in together to bring up the ground to the desired level of the pavement eastward of the Parthenon, but among these have been found a number of pieces of painted sculpture of altogether exceptional importance.

The discussion of the practice of the Greeks in painting their buildings and sculptures, though always going on, is always very languid, from lack of material with which to build theories. The total number of pieces of worked stone partly colored is small; usually the traces of color are faint and slight; usually, too, the color passes away rapidly, leaving almost invisible permanent markings, if any. It is therefore to be regretted if, as seems to be the case, no means have been taken to record the discoveries of painted marbles under the surface-soil upon the Acropolis. The bright red lips and darker red hair of a discovered bust fade and pass into a feeble orange during the few weeks following its discovery; the blue falls in powder; the green, of which there is much on the dress, may perhaps prove somewhat more permanent; but the rapid and complete disappearance of most of the colors is shown by this, that there are so many pieces here upon which there are patterns traced, apparently in *white*, and many more where the design is partly in faded red and partly in white. Now this white, showing vivid and opaque like chalk, in contrast with the mellow color of the remaining surface of the marble, is merely the white marble which has been protected during centuries by the coating of paint which has fallen off since it has been brought to light.

In a very archaic relief in coarse Pirræus stone, the flesh of the charioteer has been colored red, the beard and hair black, the reins red. In another archaic relief the whole background is red, but no trace of color can be seen on the seated figure. A fragment of a relief bears the head and neck of a most vigorous serpent, vivid green; but in the inequalities of the stone are seen crumbling touches of cobalt blue, which cause the question to be asked, Can it be that

* The work was stopped again in April, 1883, owing to some disagreement among authorities, but it will hardly be abandoned altogether.

this was all blue, but turned green? On one marble fragment the head and bust of a female statue of archaic character, but of great beauty, are irregular blotches of red which have been interpreted to be remains of a general covering color—to mean that at least the whole garment on which they occur was red. I think this belief to be erroneous. The patches of red seem to be rather accidentally gathered, as if by contact with another fragment, perhaps the charioteer mentioned above. But at least one case occurs in which the whole surface of a garment has been colored *green*. This is a most curious and valuable statuette of rather less than half the scale of life, discovered not long ago among rubbish and earth of the filling east of the Parthenon. The eyes and hair are colored; also the ear-rings and a fillet around the head. The outer garment, very elaborately disposed in folds, is decorated with a diaper pattern, of which the unit is a simple rosette in black and red, and this garment has most elaborate borders, which follow all its edges, and are painted skilfully enough in and out of the numerous folds worked in the marble; but the ground is the uncolored marble itself. The chiton, or undergarment, is exposed at the upper part of the breast and the whole left shoulder and arm. This has a curious, stiff-looking collar, decorated with a fret in red, and from the collar a broad band is carried along the shoulder and down the outside of the left arm, and decorated in red and black. All the rest of the chiton has been colored emerald green over its whole surface, the color still showing in all the crevices and recesses, for the surface had been left by the sculptor in little zigzag ridges, to imitate the crapy, crinkly stuff. This is a wonderful find, and it and two others here give us more that is new about Greek coloring of sculpture than any recent discoveries of which I have heard. Unhappily, before these words can be read in print the colors will have faded, and, when another winter brings the students to Athens, little trace of them will be left.

RUSSELL STURGIS.

CHAMBORD AND MONARCHY IN FRANCE.

PARIS, September 1.

THE universal emotion caused by the illness and death of the Comte de Chambord shows that he had a greater place in the heart of the French people than could be imagined. He was to some, though unseen and personally unknown, an object of affection, to some an object of aversion. His importance can only be felt now that he is no more. He acted as a hidden yet powerful spring on all the political forces of the country, and his withdrawal creates a general perturbation. His figure has to some extent become legendary; he was a type, and a type which has become almost a miracle in our age. All the actual sovereigns of Europe believe in their rights, but they look upon these rights as historical rights. There is one thing which time only can create—viz., a dynasty; but where is the sovereign who has not been obliged to reconcile dynastic with popular rights? In England, it is impossible to forget Charles I. and the Revolution of 1688; King Alfonso of Spain has seen his royal title contested by Don Carlos; the King of the Belgians is the creature of a popular revolution. Conspiracies and assassinations have had a strange part in the history of Russia. The Emperor of Germany likes to speak of Providence, but he has singularly aided Providence: he is covered with the spoils of war, and his Empire is only of recent date. The King of Italy was, not long ago, the King of Piedmont; he has not respected the divine right of the other sovereigns who ruled in Italy—in Naples, in Parma, in Modena. The Emperor of Austria, who, more than any other ruler in Europe, may presently be tempted to confound his traditional rights with divine right, has received terrible lessons from war and from revolution, and he has finally assumed the position of a constitutional ruler. Wherever we look, we see sovereigns who, while they assert some rights founded on tradition or history, accept the modern principles of constitutional government. Their function seems to consist merely in giving continuity to the executive power, and to taking it out of the strife of vulgar every-day politics. In this sense, they play a national part, as a nation has a continuous life which is independent of the accidents of party.

The Comte de Chambord alone took another view of the royal office. He had completely inspired himself with the doctrine of divine right; his ideal was a sacerdotal monarchy, in which the king was, so to speak, the priest of God. You will find this theory set forth in a great work of Bossuet's: 'La Politique tirée de l'Écriture sainte.' In the eyes of Bossuet, the sovereign was the man chosen by God to guard the people against all errors. The only order now on the breast of the Comte de Chambord in the chapel where he lies exposed is the order of the Holy Spirit. The Count sincerely believed in the doctrine of the holy mission of kings; the doctrine of popular sovereignty seemed to him as great an error as the doctrine of the unlimited perfectibility of man would appear to a strong Calvinist, to a believer in the total depravity of human nature. Constitutionalism is a sort of compromise between traditional right and popular government; it is a very necessary compromise, as the work of the past ought never to be suppressed with violence. But constitutionalism seemed to the Comte de Chambord a mere hypocrisy; he was not willing to accept a constitution imposed on him by any popular assembly. It was for him, he thought, to frame the articles of the constitution, and he never disguised his belief that the last word in any dangerous crisis must always remain with the king. This was in reality the cause of the failure of the monarchical attempts of 1871; the apparent cause was a letter written by the Comte de Chambord on the question of the flag, when he said that he would never come back to France if not under the white flag. But flags are only symbols; the white flag was in his eyes the emblem of an unpolluted royal power, of the principles which were the contradiction of all the principles of 1789. What was the tricolor flag to him? It had made the "tour du monde," as Lafayette prophesied that it would, but it was a flag of rebellion and sedition; it did not speak to him of the hundred victories won by the French armies at the end of the last century and in the 19th century; it reminded him of the fate of Louis XVI. and of Charles X. The divorce between the Comte de Chambord and modern France was complete, and he preferred not to reign rather than to belie his conscience.

After the war of 1870, when France was prostrated at the feet of Germany, there was an instinctive return toward the old monarchy. The Legitimists, who had been almost forgotten during the Second Empire, took an honorable part in the defence of the country, and, in the first moment of her distress, France turned to them. The monarchical movement was so intense that the Comte de Paris felt obliged to go to Frohsdorf. His patriotism was superior to his pride; he told the Comte de Chambord that if France wished to return to the monarchical form of government, he would not stand in his way; he would not accept a crown if it was offered to him. This conduct was very much blamed by the old Orleanists, who, during the reign of Louis Philippe, had found themselves in constant opposition to the Legitimists; they felt as if the Comte de Paris abandoned the traditions of 1830, as if he were a traitor to the principles which Louis Philippe had represented on the throne. It is certain, nevertheless, that the Legitimist party was so strong in the Constituant Assembly that the Orleanists alone could never have carried a separate policy against the combined efforts of the Legitimists and of the Republicans. The only chance of the monarchy at that time seemed to be in what was called the fusion; this chance was destroyed on one side by the Comte de Chambord, when he rejected the tricolor flag, and on the other side by M. Thiers, when he joined more and more openly the Republican side. The Constituant Assembly had given him almost unlimited power; he was its trustee. He promised, in a famous speech, to be completely impartial between the various parties; his part, he said at Bordeaux, was not to give a Constitution to France, but to heal its wounds, to make peace with the conqueror, to reorganize the army and the administration. He did not long remain impartial; when he saw that the chances of the monarchical solution were becoming stronger, he lent all his force to the Republicans. He had found them in an abyss of despair and defeat; he gave them the benefit of his immense popularity, of his prestige, of the services which he had rendered to the country. One of the great mistakes of the monarchical party lay in the fact that they would not proclaim a monarchy at once, because they dreaded for the new monarchy the unpopularity of the treaty of Frankfort; they hesitated, again, when the Commune was in arms, and when Paris had to be taken by siege: was it for a Bourbon King to fire on his "bonne ville de Paris"? was it for him to give away to the enemy French provinces which his ancestors had given to France? Certainly it was. France was grateful to Thiers because, in her hour of agony, he did not hesitate, and pause, and wait till the unpleasant things to be done had to be done. The function of a government, its highest function, is precisely in these services rendered to a nation; in politics, he who puts on the napkin eats the dinner. The poor monarchists wished their king to be as pure as a dove; there was not to be a spot of blood on the ermine of his mantle. History is not a sentimental novel; it requires determined people, who are willing to work when the work is necessary.

I have always been convinced that the instinctive movement which drew the people toward the monarchy cooled from the moment when they perceived that there was no ardent, no immediate, no instinctive response. The restoration was treated as a bargain when it ceased to be a sentiment. Many years have passed since; new generations have sprung up on the political field, and it is very difficult to say how they will now be affected by the death of the Comte de Chambord. When the Constituant Assembly, feeling in the end that the restoration of the Comte de Chambord had become an absolute impossibility, drew up a sort of Constitution, it made laws which are called Constitutional Laws, in virtue of which a total revision of the existing machinery of government can be made. M. Dufaure was Minister of the Interior at the time; and he distinctly asserted that the revision had no limits; if there is a majority in favor of a revision in both Chambers (and the majority need not be more than one), the two Chambers meet in Congress, and this Congress assumes de facto constituant rights; it can even alter the form of government and substitute the Monarchy for

the Republic. The monarchists of the Constituant Assembly would not have voted for the Constitutional Laws without this clause of total revision: they established the Republic as a sort of cover under which they could wait for the Monarchy. But such calculations often prove incorrect. The Republic has committed many mistakes: it has, without provocation, assumed a hostile attitude toward the Church; it has laid an indiscreet hand on time-honored institutions; it has created an uneasy feeling in Europe by its colonial policy; it has been more the government of a party than a national government. But it has, on the other hand, the almost overpowering force which belongs in France to all established governments: it has enlisted many interests, many ambitions, it has magnificent prizes for any man who merely proclaims himself the enemy of what it fears or hates; it has an acquired velocity which cannot be checked, except by unforeseen and tremendous forces. Since the death of the Comte de Chambord, monarchy is again becoming a possibility; but who can tell if this possibility is a probability, or can ever become one? The future of France is dark, and so is the future of Europe. The Third French Republic, which has thus far made *bon ménage* with kings and emperors, may be drawn into a policy of propagandism and of revolution; and there are symptoms already which tend to show that the calculations of those who have favored the establishment of a republic in France have not been quite sound. You can give a rope to a man in the hope that he will hang himself; but if he does not hang himself? The Republic needs to be cautious, and moderate, and, in many senses, conservative; it also needs statesmen and not politicians. It has the advantage of possession; it can only lose it by great faults and by unpardonable mistakes.

THE MIRACLE OF LORETO.

ALASSIO, August 15.

THE Italian Government has put a good deal of money into the effort to make Ancona an important seaport. The town, too, has brushed itself up for business, and with its new harbor—a station for the main steamer lines to the Levant and the further East—it stands ready and waiting for its great commercial future. But commerce is coy, and during a great part of the year Ancona lies broiling under the sun on its semicircle of hills, reflected in a sea like molten glass, whereon the rare steamer spends its few hours

> "As idle as a painted ship
> Upon a painted ocean."

For all that, Ancona is not a dull place; it has a cheerful air, and the streets have the swarming activity of the south. It has also plenty of objects of interest. On the highest point in the city stands the cathedral—an attempt, as at Pisa, to fuse the Italian art of the twelfth century with that of Byzantium. In the streets that scramble up and down the hillsides are two or three rich church façades of good architecture. The Loggia de' Mercanti, at present the least noisy of exchanges, has one of the finest fronts produced by the Middle Ages in Italy. Enter here: the frescoes of Tibaldi and the view of the bay from the balcony are things to be seen. There is, moreover, at one end of the town an arch of the time of Trajan, and a rococo papal arch at the other end. The list could be made longer, but the great sight of all—one, it is said, that yearly draws more than half a million visitors—takes us away from the city.

Some sixteen miles of the richest corn and vine land, adorned everywhere with the fine old trees that are commoner on the Adriatic coast than in most parts of Italy, stretch away southward from Ancona to where Loreto crowns the brow of a steep hill. The domes and the prominence of the huge episcopal palace give the city the air of an enormous fortified convent. Its aspect seen from below is as imposing as its fame. The road winds slowly up the hill, makes a few turns through an ordinary enough Italian town, and brings you face to face with what may fairly be counted as one of the wonders of Europe. You come out upon a broad piazza, two sides of which are taken up by the noble arcades of the Palazzo Apostolico, while the third is filled by the front of the church built over the *Santa Casa*—the house in which the Blessed Virgin was born and wherein the youth of our Saviour was passed. There is nothing remarkable about the outside architecture of the church, but a fine bronze statue of Sixtus V. sits at the head of the flight of steps before it, and three doors of bronze of great beauty (showing of what even second-rate men were capable in the noble days of Italian art), open to the aisles within.

I may as well say at once that Loreto makes such extraordinary claims upon belief, presents contrasts so astounding, aspects so dissimilar and irreconcilable, tends so strongly either to revolt or to subjugate the reason, that there is no question here of a sufficient account of the place: I merely borrow a few scraps of so-called history from the 'Relazione Storica delle Prodigiose Traslazioni della Santa Casa di Nazarette ora venerata in Loreto,' and supplement these with my own notes made on the spot.

It was the Empress Helena, mother of Constantine the Great, who discovered the *Santa Casa*, as well as the true cross, in her famous pilgrimage to the sacred places of Palestine. She identified the house at Nazareth partly by its narrowness and meagre appointments, but chiefly by a certain holy dread that it inspired. She caused a basilica to be built over it, and inscribed upon the façade: "Hæc est ara, in qua primo jactum est humanæ salutis fundamentum." The basilica was visited and revered by uncounted thousands, until its destruction in the final conquest of Palestine by the Saracens. The sacred house, however, was not allowed to perish with its enclosing shrine. In the night of the 10th of May, 1291, it was borne by angels to a spot in Dalmatia between Tersatto and Fiume, where its divine origin was immediately recognized (1) by a statue of the Virgin and child and a painted crucifix, both done by St. Luke; (2) by an altar at which St. Peter had said Mass; (3) by various relics of the Holy Family and of more recent piety; (4) by the same nameless dread that had convinced the Empress Helena; and (5) by the fact that, unsupported by any foundation, it still stood firm and level on uneven ground. The identity of the house was finally established by a commission, which went to Palestine and found by careful measurements that the original foundations tallied exactly with the dimensions of the structure in Dalmatia.

It is said that Tersatto attracted large numbers of pilgrims, and that the value of their pious offerings was great; yet after about three years it was concluded, we are not told by whom, that the house might be even better placed. On the night of the 10th of December, 1294, the angels again took up their sacred burden and deposited it in a wood not far from the present Loreto. The wonders and verifications of Tersatto were repeated, but the site was even worse chosen than before. The riches of the pilgrims attracted robbers, who murdered and pillaged with impunity under the protecting boughs of the wood. A third miraculous translation to the top of a neighboring hill resulted in a deadly feud between two brothers, joint owners of the land, and was followed by a fourth translation, which, till now, has proved final. The angels must have been sadly tempted to make a fifth removal when the French soldiery in 1797 stripped the sacred house of the plates of gold with which it had been lined, and despoiled the treasury of inestimable riches. But the wisdom of their reserve has been well proved, as the generosity of the faithful in this century has already made up in great measure for the losses of the past.

The fact that this extraordinary demand upon faith has been increasingly met during six hundred years, sufficiently shows the superiority of belief to reason in human nature. The knees of pilgrims have hollowed the marble base that surrounds the holy shrine, their kisses have polished the bricks of the walls that witnessed the denunciation. Nor are they alone the obscure and ignorant who come here to worship. The greatest saints of the Church—popes, sovereigns, the noble and the good—have knelt and wept upon the stones that modern unbelief regards, perhaps, with a cheap sneer. Fine ladies left here their diamonds, the rich made offerings of gold and precious stones, until a treasury of immense value was accumulated, which, dissipated in 1797, has in our century grown again to wonderful proportions. Upon the room and the cases which contain these gifts the Cardinal Anton Maria Gallo spent more than a quarter of a million dollars. The superb church, with its beautiful bronzes, its altar-pieces of mosaic, its rare marbles—indeed, the growth of the entire city of Loreto—must also be accounted as tributes to the shrine.

But richest of all the gifts is the setting of the Holy House itself, which stands immediately under the great dome of the church. Within, where behind ever-burning lamps the statue of the Virgin stands covered from head to foot with a blaze of diamonds and precious stones, the sacred walls are exposed in all their primitive rudeness. But outside, the whole is sheathed in finest marble, every available inch of which is sculptured by the most cunning hands of the *cinquecento* period. The design was Bramante's, the execution by Sansovino, Tribolo, Rafaelle da Montelupo, and others enumerated in the 'Lives' of Giorgio Vasari. The reliefs are among the finest achievements of the Renaissance in the way of story-telling in marble. I know of nothing to be compared to them except the similar works, in part by the same men, in the Chapel of St. Anthony at Padua. Granting the objection that some of the motives, even some compositions, are borrowed from the paintings of Raphael and Michael Angelo, the execution, the feeling for beauty, characteristic of the times, mark these as masterpieces. This from the artistic point of view; but there is another point of view which here especially must be taken. Sacred history and tradition supply the subjects of the reliefs, the statues are of the prophets and sibyls, but the spirit that shaped the whole was that neo-paganism to which Olympus was much nearer and more real than Calvary. The names of Jeremiah, David, Isaiah, Amos, are given to beautiful statues which suggest, however, no thought answering to the names. Disbelief, or rather belief in alien ideals, informs every graceful line, and gives an air of unreality to each character, each sacred scene represented. And such is the force of art that the ideal which shaped the false prophets becomes here the real thing, and the story of Nazareth retires gradually back into the regions of myth and fable.

The art of the Renaissance has been so often characterized as pagan that the sentence has become one of the commonplaces of art criticism; but at Loreto, as I believe in no other place in Europe or the world, is the opposition of its spirit to that of Christianity forced into a vividness of relief that is appalling. Within the

shrine the rude walls, the narrowness of poverty suggest the sublime ideal of self-renunciation that is the essence of Christian life. In such a house the Saviour might have dwelt, and the claim of the Church, that this is the most sacred spot in Europe, does not shock the devout soul. Even the diamonds that glitter on the statue of the Virgin do not offend; they witness to the power of faith in a way that may be mistaken, but is at least understandable. Three steps, however, bring one out under the dome, and there the fair casket of the shrine rises before you, embodying in every relief and statue the joy of human life, and mocking the self-abasement and ecstasy awakened within.

The revulsion is complete, and it is unhappily strengthened by other circumstances. The prominence of the boxes marked *Elemosina* forces the conclusion that the faith that comes there is expected to show itself at once in works. In justice, I may say that no more direct appeal to your pocket is made, except by the dwellers in Loreto. Nowhere have I seen beggars more ferociously determined. They follow you into the church, they frantically rush between you and the picture, the bronze or marble you would look at, with a manner that strongly suggests "Your money or your life." So, too, the dealers in rosaries, scapularies, sacred images, who importune you at every step till you recall in wrath the proverb, "The nearer the church the further from God." The baleful influence of piety extends for miles over the country. The children leave their play and run shrieking, wailing, chanting after your carriage, always with the name of the Virgin on their lips, and the promise of a prayer if the soldo be extorted. This is the more noticeable as beggary is rare elsewhere on the Adriatic coast (except at Ravenna), and it gradually dies away as you lose sight of the towers of Loreto.

After the church, the palace is the only thing to be seen. The façade consists of two stories of open, arched galleries, the upper rather squat in effect, the lower (by Bramante) of simple and noble proportions. Within, there is only to be remarked—aside from the wonderful views that open from every window over the country between Loreto and the sea—the collection of pharmacy majolicas, one of the most important in Italy (a gift of the last Duke of Urbino), and the tapestries after the Hampton Court cartoons of Raphael. These the local guide said were by Rubens, "Celebre pittor francese," as he explained.

There were no American names on the hotel register that we turned over while waiting for dinner, except two or three with the title *sacerdos* appended, and one Italianized enough to sign himself *prete*. For good or for ill, Loreto seems unknown to our country-people; that fact is the excuse for the fulness of detail in which I have indulged in this letter.

Correspondence.

THE DEGREE OF PH.D. AT THE BONN UNIVERSITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Note in to-day's *Nation* (p. 229) concerning the frequency with which the degree of Ph.D. *honoris causa* had been granted by the University at Bonn, seemed so completely at variance with my observation during a long residence at that University that I immediately turned to Dreyfus-Brisac's 'Étude.' The table given by him (p. 122) fully confirms the statements made by the Philological Association as to the infrequency of honorary degrees in philosophy at the best German universities. During the sixteen years covered by this table (1861-77, *not* "the last sixteen years") this degree had been conferred 316 times upon examination and only 32 times as an honor. Of these latter, 18 belong to the academic year 1867-68, when, as Dreyfus-Brisac is careful to note, the semi-centennial celebration of the foundation of the University took place. On that occasion the University granted 55 of the 105 honorary degrees quoted by the Board of Regents of the University of Michigan as degrees in philosophy, but being in fact the entire number of honorary degrees during the sixteen years in question. The other large number, 760, is a similar mistake, it being the number of degrees in all the faculties for the same period. If a table could be made giving the names of those to whom these honorary degrees were granted, I have no doubt a still better showing would result. J. W. W.

Boston, Sept. 13, 1883.

THE GREEK QUESTION ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the late discussions upon the compulsory study of Greek in our universities, and consequently in many of our schools, is not the treatment of the subject too special? The question is not whether Greek or any other study shall be given up (we cannot afford to curtail knowledge in any direction), but whether education shall be placed on the broadest basis; whether, in short, any one study, be it literary or scientific, shall exclude or dictate terms to any other.

The present system of admission to college, based upon a prescribed examination in which the greatest prominence is given to the ancient languages, certainly reacts most unfavorably upon the preparatory schools. In conformity with this system, any boy who is intended to enter college is obliged to spend the best six years of his school-life in acquiring an intimate familiarity with the Latin and Greek grammars—a process certainly more stimulating to the memory than to the other faculties. Any one who doubts this statement need only refer to the printed programmes of some of our best schools, where boys are fitted for college. History, except as connected with the study of antiquity, physical geography, all information concerning the world about us, all development of the powers of observation, are omitted, while exercises in Latin and Greek, with mathematics, make up the bulk of the instruction, to which is added some slight modicum of English studies and a smattering of modern languages. This monotonous and restricted course of study is forced upon the schools by the universities. The doors of the latter are practically closed to the sons of all parents who do not accept their exclusive system. The consequence is a half-hearted adhesion to the universities, because, on the whole, one clings to the idea of an Alma Mater, or else, as an alternative, the boy is sent to get his general education in one or other of the technical schools.

It is vain to say, in answer to all this, that mental training is only to be acquired in the study of Latin and Greek. The common sense of any man who is in contact with the increased knowledge of the age and the problems it is called upon to solve, rejects the narrowness of this definition of education. Education and classical learning are no longer strict equivalents—the one overruns the other in countless directions; and nothing less than absolute equality in the choice of the requisites for admission to college, and freedom in the subsequent instruction, will satisfy the present demand for an intelligent development of all the faculties with reference to their greatest proficiency.

Two practical pleas are often urged by the advocates of the older and more exclusive system of education. The first is, that without the prescribed classical training a boy is not ready, when he comes to the university, to decide for himself between a purely literary career and any other, it being then too late for him to begin his Latin and Greek. But surely some idea of the literature and such familiarity with the languages themselves as will enable a young man of eighteen to decide whether he will pursue them further, may be given without a six-years' technical drill to the exclusion of other subjects. The second plea is, that the nomenclature of science demands, even in that field of knowledge, a careful training in the ancient languages. This latter statement is certainly misleading. A tenth of the time now devoted to Latin and Greek in our schools would give any student of nature a sufficient command over the nomenclature of his subject. The other nine tenths would perhaps be better employed in a study of the things themselves rather than of their names.

Shall we, therefore, give up the study of Latin and Greek? Surely not. Let them only bear a fair proportion in our systems of education. Let them yield the predominance which custom and tradition have given them, and which, in the present state of knowledge, threatens to make them an obstruction to progress. A. A.

THE BRITISH PARCELS POST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your amusing article on "British Enterprise," in the issue of August 16, it seems to me you are under a little misconception as to the nature of the progress made in the institution of the Parcels Post and as to the existing status.

At the time the new post went into operation, the railways carried on a parcels express almost identical with our express business, only a good deal cheaper, the rates for small articles for short distances being very similar to, or even less, than the Parcels Post's, so that it is still cheaper to send parcels for short distances by railway. The railways do not collect from houses, but they send parcels by passenger train, and deliver to within a mile of the railway stations (and further, I believe, in the larger towns), and they are responsible for the value of parcels up to £30, and insure on larger amounts for a small consideration.

The step in advance made by the Parcels Post consists in reducing the rates on long-distance despatch of parcels under seven pounds, and in extending the delivery to all points covered by the house delivery of letters, which is carried into much more rural districts than with us. You are probably aware that the closed-letter postage approximated our merchandise post by means of the sliding scale of increasing weights. Thus, while one ounce costs one penny, twelve ounces could be sent for fourpence, and larger amounts *pro rata*.

Apropos of railways, there is one consideration which should be taken into account in comparing English freight tariffs with our own, especially for short distances, and that is, that the railways deliver to the consignee at his residence or shop.

In your mention of Continental parcel posts, you ought not to have neglected little Switzerland, whose extraordinary facilities in that way were of the greatest convenience to me on foot tours, when I used to send my trunk to any desired point by post.

Too much cannot be said about the extraordinary backwardness of the Briton to reform his baggage arrangements. He has adopted or tried

most other American notions in railway management, and you occasionally see an admiring item in the papers about the amount of luggage despatched over American railways without loss; and yet his railway manager cannot seem to bring his mind to the use of "brasses," as the British tourist in America calls them.

Yours respectfully, W. HOWARD WHITE.

COMMERCIAL HOTEL, HARROGATE, ENGLAND, September 2, 1883.

THE STRAW AS A SIGN OF CONTRACT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You were good enough, some time ago, to notice with commendation my little essay on the straw as a sign of contract, in which, among other matters, I mentioned that men formerly stood with straws in their shoes as a sign that they were ready to be engaged as witnesses, and to testify whatever was required of them. Some doubt was cast upon this by a subsequent correspondent, who thought that the men of straw confined their operations to offering worthless bail, and did not make a profession of perjury. I am sorry that I cannot give the exact reference to this letter, but I think the above fairly represents the writer's argument. I therefore ask you to find space for the following quotation from the *Quarterly Review* of 1825:

"We have all heard of a race of men who used in former days to ply about our own courts of law, and who, from their manner of making known their occupation, were recognized by the name of Straw-shoes. An advocate or lawyer who wanted a convenient witness, knew by these signs where to meet with one, and the colloquy between the parties was brief. 'Don't you remember . . . ?' said the advocate. 'I'o be sure I do,' was the instantaneous reply. 'Then come into the court and swear it.' And Straw-shoes went into the court and swore it" (vol. xxxiii., p. 344).

This, I think, justifies the statement in my paper, which, with some additions and corrections supplied by writers in the *Nation* and elsewhere, will appear in a volume of 'Cheshire Gleanings' which I have now in the press.

WILLIAM E. A. AXON.

FERN BANK, HIGHER BROUGHTON, MANCHESTER, ENGLAND.

MR. JARVES AND MR. STILLMAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: That Mr. Jarves should retort on my letter with personal abuse neither surprises nor concerns me. We have both been long enough before the public to have our comparative positions well understood. In any question of veracity, those who know us both will have no difficulty in deciding which of us is to be believed, and I declare with all the solemnity the matter is worth, that Mr. Jarves's version of the Michael Angelo incident is utterly false. He brought the bust to my studio carefully wrapped up that no one should see it, and told me in so many words that he had found a bronze repoussé bust of Michael Angelo, which he believed to be original and unknown. I saw it to be an electrotype at once, and said so to him, at which he appeared a little stupefied, and said, "Do you really think it is electrotype?" I showed him the granulation of the interior surface, which he had never noticed or understood. If my affidavit will strengthen this statement, I am willing to make it. I afterward introduced the bust in a sketch I was making of him, because I knew that it pleased him to be associated with Michael Angelo, and for my purpose the electrotype was as good as an original. He had a Michael Angelo "craze" at the time, and had bought a poor brown-stone statue from some villa-garden near here, under the full persuasion that it was a Michael Angelo and was destined to make a noise in the world. All Florence knows this, and laughed at it, and later he dropped the subject. He has twice brought me bronzes he had purchased as antique which were gross counterfeits, and at his request I carried one to Marchese Strozzi, who is (what I am not) an expert in that branch of archæology, who confirmed my bad opinion. In fact, there is a term in use by some of the dealers in bric-à-brac—"roba di Jarves"—which means a particular kind of rubbish which they can pass off on nobody but Jarves. All these things are of common knowledge in Florence. His terracottas I believe to be "roba di Jarves," but I am not an expert, and Florentine counterfeits are too much even for the experts sometimes.

I have had no personal quarrel with Mr. Jarves, and will accept none. I believed him honest and well meaning, and stood by him in Florence mainly because I believed him maligned; but from the time when as editor of the *Crayon* I noticed his "art-hints," I never concealed my opinion that he was utterly incapable of forming a valid opinion on any work of art. I may be no better, but at least I have studied art diligently more than thirty years theoretically and practically, in order to qualify myself as an art critic, and I hold this to be my vocation, if I have one—hold it conscientiously and as a moral obligation, and never wittingly allow personal feelings to bias my judgments, and have always the courage of my opinions.

Those who know the art literature of America during the past twenty-five years, know the nature of my opinions and the extent of my qualifications, and as a believer in the *Nation* as by far the weightiest agent in art-culture we possess, as a contributor who values the privilege of being such beyond any other literary connection, I considered it a duty to protest against such careless criticism in its pages as that which talks of Mr. Jarves as an art critic; and this I did, not with any pleasure to myself, but with reluctance, and because, in the state of æsthetic cultivation we are in, long persistence in keeping one's self before the public as a writer on art matters makes even incompetent people authoritative. I shall protest at every opportunity against such abuses of the facility of printing. It is impossible for public taste to grow on such pabulum as Mr. Jarves offers it, and I consider it the duty of every man who reverences art to expose its worthlessness. One thing I wish Mr. Jarves to understand: that I do not class him with General di Cesnola or with Doctor Schliemann. The Doctor is a man who spends his fortune in the gratification of an archæological enthusiasm, and for this deserves respect; he has no qualities that I know of in common with the General and Mr. Jarves, nor do I see anything in common between the latter two. Will Mr. Jarves, by the way, quote what I have told the world as to Doctor Schliemann's being an "egregious charlatan"? As to General di Cesnola, I have heard Jarves express opinions of him as bad as any I ever have published. It seems not to be always true that *cœlum non animum mutant qui trans mare currunt*.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

FLORENCE, August 30, 1883.

Notes.

FORDS, HOWARD & HULBERT will issue shortly 'A Sylvan City: Quaint and Picturesque Corners of Philadelphia, Old and New'; 'Judith: A Chronicle of Old Virginia,' by Marion Harland; the 'Housekeeper's Year-book for 1884,' by Helen Campbell; and five volumes of 'Historical Lectures,' by Dr. John Lord.

Mr. Matthew Arnold's approaching visit to this country is to be commemorated by Macmillan & Co. in a very pleasing manner, viz., by a new and uniform edition of his prose writings in seven volumes. These will embrace Essays in Criticism; Study of Celtic Literature, On Translating Homer; Culture and Anarchy, Friendship's Garland; Mixed Essays, Irish Essays; Literature and Dogma; God and the Bible; St. Paul and Protestantism, Last Essays. The style will be elegant and companionable with the "Eversley Kingsley." It should be added that this edition is manufactured expressly for the American market, and is the first and only uniform edition. We hope that the success of it will warrant its completion with a volume (or volumes) of Mr. Arnold's poems, which have a steady appreciation in this country. The same publishers have in preparation a new edition of Mr. Henry James's 'French Poets and Novelists,' which has been for some time out of print.

Further announcements by Charles Scribner's Sons are: 'The Merry Adventures of Robin Hood, of Great Renown in Nottinghamshire,' done into prose and illustrated by Howard Pyle; 'Quotations in the New Testament'—from the O. T. and from other sources—by Prof. C. H. Toy, of Harvard College; a translation of Paul Janet's 'Theory of Morals'; 'The Agnosticism of Hume and Huxley'; a new volume in Doctor McCosh's "Philosophic Series," and 'The Cottage Kitchen,' by Marion Harland.

The following are among the fall announcements of Funk & Wagnalls: 'Wall Street in History,' by Mrs. Martha J. Lamb; Oehler's 'Theology of the Old Testament,' edited by Prof. Geo. E. Day, of Yale; 'The Thoughts of John Foster,' collated and arranged by the Rev. W. W. Everts; 'By-Ways of Literature,' by President Wheeler, of Allegheny College; and 'A Manual of Revivals,' by G. W. Hervey, M. A.

The new paper of the week is the (monthly) *American Journalist*, of St. Louis, intended as a means of professional intercourse, and "to aid the unknown, unseen stars of the press, who scintillate through the editorial and miscellaneous pages of the great newspapers, and whose sparklings give greater luminosity to the central light that controls the editorial pages." Portraits of some of these central lights adorn the first number.

Swinton's Story-Teller is the title of a new weekly periodical about to be edited by Mr. William Swinton. It will consist exclusively "of choicest *complete* tales—from four to six in each issue."

A valuable "Synopsis of Copyright Decisions," by Mr. W. M. Griswold, of the Copyright Office, appears in the *Publishers' Weekly* for September 8. The arrangement is alphabetical by topics, as abridgments, advertisements, announcement of copyright, etc. The Synopsis may also be had separately (New York: J. W. Christopher).

Mr. Charles E. Pratt gives a very readable sketch of Pierre Lallement, the inventor of the bicycle, in the October number of the *Wheelman*—the first of its third volume, by the way. A portrait of this still young Frenchman and numerous other excellent illustrations accompany the article, including a curious representation of the Draisine velocipede, which became a passing fashion in Boston fifty years ago.

The contents of the illustrated Catalogue of the Art Exhibition of the New England Manufacturers' and Mechanics' Institute (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.) do not warrant the great expectations excited by its luxurious get-up. The collection of autograph drawings, etchings, and photogravures fails, in other

words, to meet the aim of the managers "to show by it the status of the culture and intelligence of American Art in some of its most important phases as it exists to-day." It is by no means fairly representative, as a list of names omitted would show. Sometimes, we are told, the drawings submitted have been dropped "because the good of the artists was considered"; and even "the drawing of others known to be excellent was something deplorable from an art-catalogue standpoint." Short papers on various phases of American art follow the mostly uninteresting and mediocre series of designs.

The "Mound-builders" have acquired such a hold on the popular belief in their existence as a prehistoric people quite distinct from the red men known to us for the past four centuries, that no one can find fault with the length of Mr. Lucien Carr's essay on "The Mounds of the Mississippi Valley, historically considered," in vol. ii. of the Memoirs of the Kentucky Geological Survey. Entire candor, studious fairness, and a wish to leave no objection unanswered determine the form of this discussion to be principally negative. It proves untrue the assumptions that the red Indian was not an agriculturist; that he did not worship the sun; that he did not build mounds, or if he did, that these were different in kind and object from those of which the largest examples occur in the Mississippi Valley. The contrary is demonstrated with a particularity and a wealth of historical citation and reference which make this essay, as far as it goes, a very valuable and readable conspectus of Indian usages. The conclusion is irresistible, "that the mounds and enclosures of Ohio, like those in New York and the Gulf States, were the work of the red Indians of historic times, or of their immediate ancestors." There is much suggestiveness in the remark, incidental to the inquiry how far the male Indians "labored," that among Continental nations having large standing armies "it is no exaggeration to say that labor, using that word in its broadest sense, is left to the women far more completely than it ever was among the Indians."

The fall season opens with the usual number of new editions. That of Emerson's works (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) may justly first claim attention. Two volumes have thus far appeared; 'Nature, Addresses, and Lectures'; and 'Essays —First Series.' The first contains the epoch-making address before the Cambridge Divinity School in 1838, with sundry orations and addresses delivered between the years 1837 and 1844, and a very interesting early portrait engraved after a daguerreotype by S. A. Schott. The second volume contains the twelve essays beginning with History and ending with Art—which last, by the way, closes with a sentence that recalls the latest novelty on the Thames: "The boat at St. Petersburg which plies along the Lena by magnetism needs little to make it sublime." The workmanship of this elegantly simple edition is what we expect from the taste that presides over the publications of the Riverside Press.

Charles Scribner's Sons have likewise issued the first two volumes of their promised new edition of the works of Donald G. Mitchell—'Reveries of a Bachelor' and 'Seven Stories, with Basement and Attic.' Five more of the reprint will follow ('The Lorgnette' not among them), and then three or four will be made of fresh material, embracing a series of essays embodying results of studies in English history and literature, and observations of travel; in other words, the experience to be drawn upon is still largely foreign, as in the earlier writings, even if no longer in that consular vein worked also by Hawthorne and by Howells. In comparison with the Emerson volumes just noticed, these, in heavy drab-colored cloth covers, with rustic gilt letter-stamp, are neither so fair without nor so excellent of print within. The typography is nevertheless open and pleasing to the eye, especially in the 'Reveries.'

The same firm send us a new edition of Dr. Selah Merrill's 'East of the Jordan,' which is apparently unchanged in any particular, and remains an attractive and very readable book.

Henry Holt & Co. have become the publishers of Mrs. E. S. Miller's 'In the Kitchen,' which has now been for nearly a decade held in high household estimation. The author has added some receipts and, what is better, an index.

So long as the plates of the juvenile works of the late Jacob Abbott afford a passably legible impression, we shall doubtless see reprint after reprint from them. Their new proprietors, Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., put forth the six volumes of the Jonas Library, the same number of the Lucy Library, the fourteen volumes of the Rollo Books, and the eight volumes of American History—the latest and the most certain to be superseded. Those addressed particularly to the nursery age are in no danger of losing their hold on the young; the others are better adapted for reading aloud, whether to explain the long and hard words which the author was not careful to avoid, to enlarge upon his moralizing, or to point the contrast between old times and the present. For adults, indeed, the interest of these writings is largely historical and archæological, even to the woodcuts, which range from Bewick to Hammatt Billings and Darley. Very antiquated, too, seems the first volume of the American History (1860), which begins with disputing the Darwinian view of the origin of species, and ends with the dictum (ostensibly apropos of the Indians, but with a secret application to the blacks), that "the feeling of repulsion that exists between the different races of men is not necessarily a prejudice," but is in fact a Divine appointment. The story-books we should be sorry to see disappear from circulation, but some of the plates call loudly for repair.

Mr. Lowis D'A. Jackson, the author of several works designed to aid engineers and surveyors, has published (London: W. H. Allen & Co.) a volume of tables of five-figure logarithms of numbers from 1 to 99,999 and of the trigonometrical functions, sines, cosines, etc. The latter tables are constructed according to the French metrical system, the quadrant being divided into 100° instead of 90°. The peculiarity of these tables consists in the fact that the last figure of the logarithm is marked with an accent in such a manner as to give an indication of the value of the rejected part of the logarithm. It is well known that with ordinary logarithmic tables, in order to obtain results true to any given number of figures, we must use tables containing one more figure than the result desired. Thus, to be sure of the correctness of our calculations to five figures we must use six-place logarithms. Mr. Jackson maintains that his accented five-place logarithms, while avoiding all use of differences and proportional parts, will give results to five places with as much accuracy as six-place tables. His plan, for an explanation of which we must refer to the book itself, is very simple, and it appears to be practical. The only way to decide this point is by using the tables. The system is, however, so simple and so easily learned, that we should think it well worth the while of those who have to make much use of logarithms to give it a trial. The tables are very neatly printed, the mantissa of every logarithm being given in full to five places.

The series of 'Célébrités Contemporaines' (Paris: Quantin; New York: J. W. Bouton) continues, and a new brief biography appears every week. M. Jules Claretie contributes most of the more literary portraits, the latest being that of M. Ludovic Halévy, the inventor of *La Grande Duchesse de Gérolstein*, *Froufrou*, and *Criquette*. M. Claretie's own biography has been prepared by M. de Cherville. M. Ernest Daudet is now writing the sketches of MacMahon, Broglie, d'Aumale, and the Comte de Paris.

It is proposed that the Paris Société Historique et Cercle Saint-Simon shall publish from time to time inedited documents of French history in a uniform manner. Each issue will constitute a *feuillet mobile*, capable of being inserted in its proper place in any historical series, or given to the printer without inconvenience. Thus, the sheet will be about 10x6, sized to allow of writing upon it, printed only on one side, and in two columns, with the necessary information as to the origin of the document. Each *feuillet* will fetch two centimes, and each volume (of 250) five francs—a calculated profit for the Society of two francs.

M. Louis Cattreux, a Belgian lawyer, has just published a treatise on stage-right. In this 'Étude sur le droit de propriété des œuvres dramatiques et musicales' (Brussels: Larcher; New York: F. W. Christern) the writer discusses not merely the copyright of dramatic and musical works, but especially the right of performance and of execution—in short, the stage-right, which is wholly different from the merely literary copyright, and which indeed is capable of being altogether separated from it. Although M. Cattreux devotes himself more particularly to the legislation of France and of Belgium and to the agreements between these countries, his arguments are of interest and his list of cases is of importance to students of the question as it exists here, where the matter is far more complicated.

Polyglot fiction is on the increase. It is not so many years since it was thought a remarkable thing that Mrs. Stowe's 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' had been translated into a score of European and one or two Oriental languages. But now every year sees some novel attain several versions. The latest is Ernst Eckstein's 'Prusias,' a story of the last century of the Roman Republic, which will be published simultaneously in German, Dutch, English, Spanish, and Polish, in as many cities. His 'Die Claudier' also appeared in five different languages.

A new field for female industry is suggested by the achievement of Fräulein Camilla Ruzika Ostoić, a Viennese, who has presented to the Royal Academy of Austria a "Türkisch-deutsches Wörterbuch," with a transcription of the Turkish words. With it she sent also a transcription of the Turkish translation of the Gospel of Matthew and of the Turkish play "Ajjar-i-Hamza." Translation, which is already very extensively practised by women, certainly has every mark of a feminine trade: it is muscularly easy and it is ill paid.

As a number of the *Osservatore Cattolico* has been seized by the Italian Government for an article entitled "Il dito di Dio," on the Ischian earthquakes, we may assume that it has been following the good old theological practice of attributing to the misdeeds of the enemies of the Church a natural convulsion by which its opponents and its friends alike have suffered. The calamity at Ischia is a modern fall of the tower in Siloam. Every one knows the lesson which the founder of the Church draws from that fall; but the temptation to overwhelm one's opponents with the easy argument drawn from their misfortunes is too strong to be resisted.

—The *Atlantic* for October contains some interesting "Historic Notes of Life and Letters in Massachusetts," by the late R. W. Emerson. They were apparently written late in life, when expe-

rience, and the gentle humor which mellowed all his observations of life, enabled him to look back on Brook Farm, and Transcendentalism, and even on the orthodox materialism against which Transcendentalism was a protest, with the eye of a philosopher rather than a reformer. His account of Brook Farm will be read with interest by a good many well-known people, whose names no one would now associate with Socialism much more readily than they would with Communism, and yet who, some fifty years ago, burned with the generous flame kindled by Fourier and Owen, and longed to make mankind happy by reconducting it to what we now see would have been a sort of primitive barbarism. Hawthorne's view of Brook Farm Mr. Emerson rather resents, and yet there is very little essential difference between the picture of it presented in these pages and in those of the 'Blithedale Romance.' Hawthorne never looked at the movement with much interest beyond that of curiosity, while Emerson sympathized with it, and felt that the great events that filled the national scene toward the close of his life vindicated the impulses, if not the ideas, to which the Brook Farm experiment had been due. In an article on "Heredity" Mr. H. W. Holland attempts to trace some of the moral and social consequences which he thinks will flow from Mr. Galton's discoveries. He does not altogether distinctly state what he considers the "law" to be which is to revolutionize ethics; but, as we understand him, he sympathizes with the view of Mallock, that if the fundamental basis of development is the survival of the fittest in the struggle for existence, and consequently the extermination of the unfit, the weak, the lame, the halt, the blind, then altruism, which leads the strong to sacrifice themselves to the preservation of the weak, whether we call it Christian or philanthropic, is opposed to the eternal veracities, and consequently bosh. But Mr. Holland seems to overlook the fact that all progress hitherto made in civilization has been by the amelioration of this great law of nature in the interest of justice, mercy, charity, peace, and good-will, all of which are species of altruism. A law of nature may account for the prevalence of might, and show how it is that the weaker type goes to the wall and the stronger replaces it; but a system of ethics founded upon the right of the individual to point to this law as a justification for whatever wrong, violence, rapacity, or inhumanity he might commit, would be a very strange one. We do not say that Mr. Holland proposes to deduce such a consequence from it; but the drift of his argument is in this direction.

—The October *Harper's* contains as one of its leading illustrated articles an account of the "Blue Grass Trotters," by Mr. W. H. Bishop. The development of the trotter and his "record" is one of the extraordinary features of American life during the last thirty years; especially when we remember that the trotting horse comes from precisely the same source that the English thoroughbred does. What is the secret of our devotion to this gait? Mr. Bishop tries to account for it, but only, it seems to us, with partial success. He says that it "may be somewhat connected with the improvement of the roads of the country"; and that driving as a diversion is more easily learned and carried on than riding; and "while a thoroughbred must be almost necessarily devoted to racing, so that if he is not a good one he is good for little or nothing at all, a trotter, though he may not be among those who win laurels on the track, can still be both serviceable and ornamental on the road." In other words, one might expect to find racing highly developed in a country possessed of a large and wealthy leisure class, much given to riding; while trotting, on the other hand, would be a natural sport in a driving country, in which the breeding of running horses would not meet any popular "want." There is hardly a town in the northern part of the United States, with a population of 10,000 people, which has not its local "track"; and according to Mr. Bishop, the amount of capital which the trotting interest represents altogether is $200,000,000, exclusive, if we understand him, of the horses, the aggregate value of which must be very great. The moment we reflect upon what a track in a Northern town is, and especially upon what a Northern town itself is, we perceive how impossible any development of racing would have been. Of late years, with the growth of a rich leisure class, which is able to devote its money to the cultivation of exotic pursuits, the race-horse has come up, and so at the same time has hunting. But the trot is still, notwithstanding the victories of American horses in English races, the American gait.

—Dr. John S. Billings, in a recent pleasant discourse on "Medical Bibliography" before the Medical and Chirurgical Faculty of Maryland, gave "a few specimens of the inquiries made at the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office in Washington." These were—

"'for the literature of hydrophobia'; 'for all cases of epilepsy reported as cured by burns'; 'for a complete list of all books and papers written by Dr. John Jones'; 'for materials for the life of Dr. John Morgan'; 'for a list of the printed medical theses of the graduates of the University of Pennsylvania'; 'for materials for a history of the medical schools of Baltimore, including all catalogues, announcements, etc.'; 'for all accounts of epidemics occurring in Memphis'; 'for data relative to the diseases of Georgia'; 'How many editions have been published of the treatise of the school of Salernum?' 'Which is the best edition of Galen?' 'Who was the author of "Sechs Bücher auserlesene Arzenei," etc., published at Torgau in 1600?' 'Where can I find a paper "On the Voice" by Dr. H. H. Hayden, published in some journal or transactions forty or fifty years ago?' 'Where can I find a paper "On the Differences between Dead and Living Protoplasm," recently published, author's name not remembered?' 'What is a copy of Bagellardus's "De Egritudinibus infantium" worth?' 'What will you give for a perfect manuscript in good condition, written in 1429, being extracts from and commentaries on Almansor and Isaac, and making 160 leaves folio?'"

Dr. Billings did not use the fact of such inquiries, rational and irrational, as an argument for the preservation apart of the Surgeon-General's Library, as he might have done later on in his discourse when speaking to this point. But it is clear that if the collection were once merged in the National Library, the medical profession not only would lose their present interest in keeping it up by voluntary contributions, but would speedily cease to feel that it existed for them in the sense manifested by the above drafts upon the good-nature and patience of the librarian.

—The membership of the Dante Society (of Cambridge, Mass.) has increased but little during the past year. Its second annual report shows fifty adherents, three-fifths of whom are New Englanders by residence, and one-half live in Boston or Cambridge. Further West than Hannibal, Missouri, or further South than Washington, the Dante cult, apparently, does not thrive. The general neglect of the study of Italian in this country readily accounts for such a limited interest, though we must not overlook the consideration that our territorial vastness is a standing obstacle to literary and scholarly co-operation. However, the Dante Society has a "balance on hand," and a Dante library for the use of members (whether by loans at a distance does not appear), which the present owner means to deposit ultimately with the library of Harvard College, and which the Society is keeping up by additions. It has within a twelvemonth purchased a fifteenth-century MS. of the 'Divine Comedy,' with Latin annotations, and placed it beside the copy of the Laurentian MS. of Benvenuto da Imola's Comment on the 'Inferno' made for the Society at Mr. Longfellow's expense. To lend a permanent value to the present report, the Society has reprinted the well-known lives of Dante and Petrarch from the pen of Leonardo Aretino. It is a pity that this writer's simple and lucid style should have been marred here by following an archaic punctuation. The intrusion of the comma is particularly exasperating, as in "divisioni assai tra Guelfi, e Ghibellini"; "appellandoli, scelerati, e cattivi"; "l'ingegno grande, e alto non ha bisogno," etc. Nor is there any good reason for not paragraphing these lives.

—The eminent Danish critic, Georg Brandes, who recently returned to his native country to accept a professorship in the University of Copenhagen, continues to enrich the periodical literature of Germany with his brilliant essays. He contributes to late numbers of the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse* an article on the Russian novelist Dostoyevsky, who, at the time of his death, in January, 1881, was perhaps the most popular writer in Russia, though his name is scarcely known outside of his native country. Dostoyevsky's influence was as far-reaching as Turgeneff's; like him he remorselessly exposed the social diseases of Russia; but Dostoyevsky was essentially a philanthropist: he was "the poet of the helpless pariah." "What Wilberforce did for the negro in the English Parliament Dostoyevsky did in literature for the Russian proletariat." And, in contrast with Turgeneff's hopeless pessimism, Dostoyevsky possessed an almost fanatic belief in the power and future of Russia. Like so many of the best minds of his country, Dostoyevsky early suffered for his patriotism. Soon after the publication, in 1845, of his first novel, 'Poor Folks,' Dostoyevsky, then twenty-four years old, was accused, with twenty other students, of treasonable plottings, and, although their only crime consisted in sharing the prevailing dreams of Saint-Simon, Fourier, and Louis Blanc, he and all his companions were sentenced to death. They were being led to the place of execution when their sentence was commuted to deportation to Siberia. Dostoyevsky remained there until 1858, when he returned, permanently broken in health, but resolved to plead henceforth the cause of the oppressed. He wrote 'The Lowly and Humbled' and 'Notes from the House of the Dead,' but neither of these works achieved the success of his 'Crime and Punishment,' which, in the opinion of Brandes, is surpassed by no contemporary Russian work of fiction. It is the story of a young Russian student, ambitious, melancholy, and burning with desire to right the wrongs of society, yet bowed down by his own poverty and the distress of his old mother and noble sister. Slowly he matures the plan of murdering and robbing an old hag, a pawnbroker and vampire, whom he persuades himself it is a duty to society to kill. He coolly commits the deed, and never regrets it, although he was also compelled to kill the victim's innocent sister; but, unable to practise life-long deception, he surrenders himself finally to justice. The reasoning by which he justifies his crime throws a vivid light on the working of the Nihilistic mind of to-day; and the entire work, which throughout shows the hand of an "unrivalled master of pathological psychology," is "of the greatest importance as explaining the origin of modern Russia."

—Mr. Shapira, the Christian Hebrew of Jerusalem, has been cruelly dealt with in England. In Berlin, whither he first carried his Deuteronomy in Moabitish characters, the committee convened by Professor Lepsius to examine into the merits of its stained leather and archaic writing told the famous dealer in Moabitish pottery and sacred antiquities, after a few hours' waiting, that the manuscript which he offered for sale was a forgery—Professors Dillmann, Sachau, Schrader, and other famous Semitic scholars being responsible for the verdict. The British Museum kept him waiting for weeks, while Dr. Ginsburg, charged with the task of deciphering the strange text, transliterating it into square Hebrew characters, and translating it into English, was performing his labor with conscientious slowness. Meanwhile, before the decision was rendered, M. Clermont-Ganneau, of Moabite Stone fame, sent expressly by the French Ministry of Public Instruction to London to find out the value of the documents, did not hesitate to declare in the *Times*, after the brief and partial inspection allowed him, that the Deuteronomy in King Mesha's style of writing, alleged to be, like that monarch's monument, almost 3,000 years old, was written on the cut-off broad bottom margins of a modern synagogue roll. On what was this terrible declaration founded? On this: Mr. Clermont-Ganneau had discovered perpendicular creases, and fine lines drawn with a hard point on each side of them, crossing the horizontal lines of the Moabitish writing, without any relation to it, and corresponding respectively with the creases in the modern leather rolls of the Pentateuch, and with the projecting ends of the guiding lines drawn by writers of such rolls to keep the margins of the columns true. Next came Dr. Neubauer, pointing out false spellings, misapprehensions of the context, and misapplied Hebrew words—not many, for even the severest opponents of Mr. Shapira speak of the cleverness of "the forger," but just enough to make the anxious expectant of riches and immortality tremble. Worse followed. Unmistakable proofs were discovered that some of the blunders were owing to a confounding of Hebrew sounds; which could be explained only by the fact of the writer having learned his Hebrew in the pronunciation now common in Poland and Germany, and widely different from that of the ancient dwellers on the Jordan. The agony is now over. Dr. Ginsburg has reported, agreeing with Clermont-Ganneau, Neubauer, and the critics of Germany, and not a voice is raised in defence of the authenticity of the find. Both orthodox and rationalistic Biblical scholars are gainers by this definitive exposure of the forgery. The many deviations from the canonical text presented by the forged document will not discredit the authenticity of the Hebrew Scriptures as we have them, and the archaic Moabitish style of writing will not invalidate the view universally taken by liberal criticism, that the so-called Fifth Book of Moses was composed as late as the time of Jeremiah.

—M. Weber, the musical critic of the Paris *Temps*, discusses in a recent feuilleton the influence of music on animals and insane human beings. He agrees that serpents are charmed by music, that elephants receive pleasure from it, and dogs annoyance. He also believes that spiders like music, although the better opinion is that what attracts them is simply the vibration communicated to their web, which is mistaken for a fly's buzzing. Birds, he says, may be taught the sweetest melodies of Mozart, yet in their courtship make no use of their acquisition. This, however, is a side issue. The real question is: do the male birds make use of their natural song in order to charm the females? Darwin thinks they do, and bases on this his theory of sexual selection, which seems to be confirmed by the fact that it is only during the season of courtship that the birds sing. But it is quite possible that these songs have been developed simply as a means of discrimination of species, to enable the females to find their mates. We are inclined to take this view, and to doubt the existence of any specialized æsthetic emotion not dependent on association of ideas. As regards the influence of music on man in health and disease the most ridiculous theories have been advanced. A small library could be made of the books and articles in which music is regarded as a remedy for various diseases and infirmities. M. Weber is disposed to assign the "grand prix d'absurdité" to Porta, a physicist of the sixteenth century, who believed that various diseases might be cured if musical instruments were made of the wood of special medicinal plants which would communicate their healing qualities to the music produced by these instruments. The Parisian habit of attending the opera immediately after dinner might seem to argue the possession by music of digestive virtues. This may be the case with the light and frivolous music preferred by the Parisians, which has just enough merit to arrest the attention and prevent the mind from brooding over serious thoughts liable to interfere with digestion. The polyphonic music of Germany requires a greater effort and stimulates the brain in every fibre; hence, perhaps, the German habit of deferring supper till the opera is over. It is on the nervous system of man that music exercises an undoubted influence. Soldiers bear the fatigues of a march much more easily while listening to the strains of a brass band; and to any one suffering intense grief music acts as a marvellous tonic. Frequent experiments have been made to determine the curative value of music in lunatic asylums, and it seems to be agreed that although it may not effect an absolute cure, it is yet of the greatest value in many cases as a hygienic agent. It engrosses the attention and distracts it from the phantoms and fixed ideas which harass the patients in certain stages of their disease. M. Weber once, in a lunatic asylum, formed one of a quartette, the bassoon part of which was played by a patient whose malady did not prevent his remaining a good instrumentalist. It is said that in a hospital near Naples all the inmates are musical: every new-comer chooses his instrument and joins the band. In another hospital near Milan a visitor heard an orchestra of five flutes, six cornets, and five trombones—a combination that would have suited Berlioz in one of his most fantastic moods.

—In England and America the operetta is more successfully cultivated than the opera, and the two most gifted and popular composers in this *genre* at the present time are Strauss and Sullivan. Their biographies will be found close together in the new issue of Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians,' Parts 17, 18 (Macmillan & Co.), which cover no less than 240 pages, but only extend from Sketches to "Sumer Is Icumen In." Dr. Grove has not, it seems, been uniformly successful in keeping loquacious contributors within reasonable limits. The worst example of this excess was the long, ponderous, and perfectly gratuitous article on Schools of Composition in the last issue. The present contains a fifty-page article on Song, which might also have been condensed to half its dimensions. It was quite proper to consider such nations as Russia, Spain, Scandinavia, and Hungary besides the three great musical nations, Germany, France, and Italy; but too much space is devoted to the early periods. Nor can it be said that the characterization of the best modern masters is very incisive or pregnant. Another long article is by Dr. Parry, on Sonata, which, however, cannot be called too long, as it not only gives a clear and detailed history of this venerable and important form, but includes a dozen columns of admirable criticism of the different styles of the great masters who have made use of it, from Bach and Haydn to Chopin and Liszt. It is pointed out that the sonata now occupies a smaller and decreasing space in the domain of music, and that the solo sonata form is less esteemed by modern composers than the duo form. The neglect of the sonata by these composers is of course not due to a want of technical ability—which any hack-musician may acquire—but to the fact that their ideas are too poetic, concentrated, and intense to be forced into the prescribed artificial forms of a former generation. The allied but less organic form of the Suite is also considered at sufficient length. Of the biographic articles the most important are those on Spontini, by Spitta, the learned biographer of Bach, and on Spohr, by Paul David. The latter notes the curious fact "that Spohr, who, in the case of Beethoven and Weber, exhibited such inability to appreciate novelty—and who at bottom was a conservative of conservatives in music—should have been the very first musician of eminence to interest himself in Wagner's talent" by producing the "Flying Dutchman" in Cassel. The only apparent bond of sympathy between these two composers is their common fondness for unusual modulations and keys; but Spohr could not help admiring the dramatic vigor of Wagner's opera. The article on Stradella adduces strong evidence to prove that the well-known story of the assassins who were hired to kill him, but were so overcome by the charm of his music that they spared him, is a myth like many of its kind.

—Woodcuts are not very numerous in Grove's 'Dictionary,' but a few are added to the articles on Stradivari, Spinet, and Soundholes, the evolution of which and gradual adaptation to acoustic principles furnish an interesting illustration of the doctrines of Darwin. The writer on that insignificant but important little peg, the Sounding-Post, makes clear the reason why the French call it the "soul" and the Germans the "voice," for on its proper adjustment depend both the voice and the soul of the instrument. Under Sordini some curious information is given regarding the various devices made use of by composers—especially the two greatest instrumental writers, Wagner and Berlioz—to produce weird and unusual effects, as for instance by putting a rolled up handkerchief or a pear-shaped piece of wood into the bell of a brass instrument, by making singers hold their music before their mouths, singing with their backs to the audience or retiring to a room behind the orchestra, etc. The writer makes the important observation that the mutes used for 'cello and double-bass are rarely heavy enough. The double-bass mute used by him weighs more than a pound. At Bayreuth the tone of the whole invisible orchestra is veiled and ethereal-ized by its covered position. Finally we must mention the conclusion of Mr. Rockstro's interesting article (Sketches) on the different ways in which composers work. Three diverse modes of workmanship are well typified by Beethoven, Mozart, and Schubert. Mozart prepared a full mental copy of his work before he sat down to put it on paper. Beethoven began with a primordial germ, a sketch which he committed to paper and gradually enlarged and modified, occasionally a dozen times before he was satisfied. Schuber differed from both. He com-

mitted his ideas to paper under the influence of uncontrollable inspiration, as other people write a letter; and seldom did he make an erasure or correction. This is perhaps he highest form of genius, as we read of something similar in Goethe's case. But the result often shows a lack of concentration and too much "linked sweetness long drawn out."

LODGE'S WEBSTER.

Daniel Webster. By Henry Cabot Lodge. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883.

THIS latest product of Mr. Lodge's historical studies is doubtless to be regarded as one of the most important contributions to the valuable series of which it forms a part. The subject, though well worn, continues to be one of absorbing interest. It is evident that public opinion for some years past has been steadily crystallizing into definite form concerning Webster; and yet his genius was so great, and his part in affairs so conspicuous, that any word fitly spoken in regard to him is sure to receive a hearty welcome. It is not the claim of Mr. Lodge that any considerable amount of new evidence bearing on Webster's life is brought to the public in this volume. The purpose of the book is, on the one hand, simply to present an outline of Webster's career, and, on the other, to show the significance of that career in the constitutional development of the country.

In so far as it may be possible to separate from each other the two parts of this double purpose, it may be said that the first has been performed with eminent success. The great features of Webster's life are so well drawn as to leave little to be desired. The perspective is excellent. While the connecting narrative is not neglected, the author has very properly thrown into conspicuous relief the great events with which he has to deal. The reader has no difficulty in seeing that the real historical significance of Webster's career is to be sought in the argument on "The Dartmouth College Case," in the "Reply to Hayne," and in the "Seventh of March Speech." Mr. Lodge also presents very clearly the striking continuity of Webster's political theories. Attention is called to the fact that in his effusive oration on the green at Hanover, when he was a college student of eighteen, Webster sounded the key-note of all his subsequent career. "The grandeur of American nationality; fidelity to the Constitution as the bulwark of nationality; and the necessity and the nobility of the union of the States"—such were the leading thoughts of his discussion. Mr. Lodge goes so far as to say: "The enduring work which Mr. Webster did in the world, and his meaning and influence in American history, are all summed up in the principles enunciated in that boyish speech at Hanover." In this statement the author has probably indulged in no exaggeration.

In what is to be called the second part of his general purpose, Mr. Lodge has not, in our opinion, by any means been so successful. We may as well give out our whole thought at once, and say that he seems to us signally to have failed to grasp the true meaning of Webster's work. We cannot help thinking that his judgment has been warped, and his vision blinded, by his strong bias in the direction of State rights. In his presentation of the "Dartmouth College Case" he has, indeed, stated the facts and indicated the principles involved with commendable clearness; but when he comes to an analysis of Webster's argument, he virtually accuses the advocate of appealing to what were practically personal considerations, and, in attributing to those considerations the weight he does, he virtually, also, accuses Marshall of founding the decision of the Court on other than strictly constitutional grounds. Though Mr. Lodge does not say as much in express terms, he leaves the reader to infer that he regards the decision of the Court as constitutionally unsound. This may be a matter of opinion, in regard to which Mr. Lodge is fairly entitled to be exempt from historical criticism; but in this connection it is of historical importance as indicating an attitude of mind which, a little later in the volume, leads him into palpable error.

The leading thought of the discussion, indeed of the whole volume, is that Webster practically created a new doctrine of nationality. This thought crops out in the discussion of the "Dartmouth College Case," but it does not appear in full relief until the author comes to his analysis of the "Reply to Hayne." Here he takes the bold ground that up to the time of that discussion the doctrine of State sovereignty and the constitutional right of nullification and secession had generally been accepted. The peculiar merit of Webster's work, therefore, was to sweep those old historical doctrines away and to establish a new doctrine in their place. That we may do Mr. Lodge no injustice, we give his words. Of the "Reply to Hayne" he says:

"The weak places in his armor were historical in their nature. It was probably necessary, at all events, Mr. Webster felt it to be so, to urge that the Constitution at the outset was not a compact between the States, but a national instrument, and to distinguish the cases of Virginia and Kentucky in 1799 and of New England in 1814 from that of South Carolina in 1830. The former point he touched upon lightly, the latter he discussed eloquently, ingeniously, and at length. Unfortunately, the facts were against him in both instances. When the Constitution was adopted by the votes of States at Philadelphia, and accepted by the votes of States in popular conventions, it is safe to say that there was not a man in the country, from Washington and Hamilton on the one side to George Clinton and George Mason on the other, who regarded the new system as anything but an experiment entered upon by the States, and from which each and every State had the right peaceably to withdraw, a right which was very likely to be exercised" (pp. 176–77).

How Mr. Lodge can have fallen into such depths of forgetfulness as to write this passage it is difficult to conceive; but he goes on from bad to worse, and fairly takes one's breath away as he pens the following:

"When the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions appeared, they were not opposed on constitutional grounds, but on those of expediency and of hostility to the revolution which they were supposed to embody. . . . No one troubled himself about the constitutional aspect: it was a question of expediency, of moral and political right and wrong" (p. 177).

It must be admitted that if the sweeping statements of these two passages are historically correct, two conclusions will inevitably follow. In the first place, Mr. Webster will have to be regarded as the founder of a new theory of our national existence, and, secondly, the arguments on the general subject of secession, so far as they are to be drawn from the first forty years of our national history, are exclusively in favor of the South. But Mr. Lodge's declaration is not correct either in the letter or in the spirit. The simple fact is, that the stupendous importance of the "Reply to Hayne" was not in the novelty of its doctrines, but in the consummate art and the irresistible logical skill with which it embodied into compact and popular form the doctrines which from the first had been held by the most authoritative interpreters of the Constitution. Its merits were analogous to those of the Great Charter in English history. It contained little in the way of constitutional doctrine that could be called new, but it performed the priceless service of expounding the true doctrines to the nation and of carrying those doctrines with convincing power into the hearts of the people. Indeed, to one accustomed to observe the laws governing the evolution of public opinion, it must seem preposterous to suppose that Webster's "Reply" could have had any approach to the power and popularity it enjoyed if it had been made up simply of political and constitutional novelties. It is not new doctrines that have power to move a nation, unless it be in the way of resistance.

But what are the facts of our early history, so far as they have a bearing upon Mr. Lodge's position? A few words will be enough to show the nature of his error. Of all the framers of the Constitution, no one was better qualified by ability, by learning, and by position to speak authoritatively of the meaning of that instrument than Judge Wilson, of Pennsylvania. He had been a member of one of the most important committees in the Convention at Philadelphia; his opinions were so highly respected by Washington that he was appointed one of the earliest justices of the Supreme Court; and when the State of Pennsylvania held its convention to consider the Constitution, it was regarded as especially fortunate that Wilson was present to give the necessary exposition. The report of his speeches covers more than a hundred pages of Elliott's 'Debates.' In the course of his remarks he touched upon almost every important subject, not omitting that of "compact." He declared distinctly that a "contract" or "compact" could only be formed between two or more parties, that in the Convention there had been but one party, and that that party consisted simply of representatives of the people. The whole tenor of his argument went to show that the new government was, to use his words, "founded on the power of the people." He said of the introductory clause: "'We, the people, do ordain and establish,' etc., is not an unmeaning flourish. The expressions declare in a practical manner the principle of this Constitution. It is ordained and established by the people themselves; and we who give our votes for it are merely the proxies of our constituents." This was regarded as an authoritative exposition; for a copy of it was sent by Washington, with his approval, to the Convention in Virginia, and Marshall made use of it in his famous decision of McCulloch *v.* Maryland. In its argument it is especially suggestive of Webster, while its phrase, "made *for* the people as well as by them," reminds one of the most famous passage in Lincoln's Gettysburg speech.

A similar spirit was predominant in the convention in New York. At the moment when the opposition was most stubborn, and when it was well known that failure of the Constitution in New York meant general disaster to the Federal cause, Mr. Lansing offered his famous resolution to adopt the Constitution provisionally, "reserving to the State of New York the right to withdraw herself from the Union." Hamilton, apparently in despair of getting further concession, asked the opinion of Madison as to the practicability of such a ratification. The reply was that the Constitution "required an adoption *in toto* and for ever." As is well known, this also was the opinion of Hamilton.

Mr. Lodge's assertion, that the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions "were not opposed on constitutional grounds," appears in its true light when we look at the "answers" to those resolutions offered by the Legislatures of the several States. Such an inspection will show that they were condemned for constitutional reasons no less than for reasons of policy. The Legislature of Rhode Island passed a resolution that "for any State Legislature to assume that authority [the authority contemplated by the Virginia resolutions] would be an infraction of the Con-

stitution of the United States expressed in plain terms." Massachusetts said: "Should the respectable State of Virginia persist in the assumption of the right to declare the acts of the national Government unconstitutional; and should she oppose successfully her force and will to those of the nation, the Constitution would be reduced to a mere cipher." New York said that the resolutions contained "sentiments and doctrines no less repugnant to the Constitution of the United States and the principles of their union than destructive to the Federal Government." Vermont declared the doctrines of the resolutions "unconstitutional in their nature and dangerous in their tendency."

We have neither time nor space to carry this subject further. We had intended to make some observations on the author's judgment of the Seventh of March Speech, but we must forbear. We can only say that he shows clearly enough that Webster, from his previous declarations, had given his friends reason to hope for a positive and powerful utterance in behalf of the anti-slavery cause. But no one can judge Webster aright without keeping firmly in remembrance the fact that there had never been a time when his love of the Union was not far stronger than his hatred of slavery. We are not sure that Mr. Lodge holds that fact at its true value.

RECENT NOVELS.

Altiora Peto: A Novel. By Laurence Oliphant. Harpers.

The Romantic Adventures of a Milkmaid. By Thomas Hardy. Harpers.

A Sea Queen: A Novel. By W. Clark Russell. Harpers.

Yolande: A Novel. By William Black. Harpers.

By the Gate of the Sea: A Novel. By David Christie Murray. Harpers.

In the Carquinez Woods. By Bret Harte. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Thicker than Water. By James Payn. Harpers.

The Invisible Lodge. From the German of Jean Paul Frederic Richter, by Charles T. Brooks. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

The Miseries of Fo Hi, a Celestial Functionary. Translated from the French of Francisque Sarcey, by H. R. H. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.

Times of Battle and Rest. By Z. Topelius. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.

A Washington Winter. By Madeleine Vinton Dahlgren. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

A Newport Aquarelle. Boston: Roberts Bros.

THERE is very little that is original or new in 'Altiora Peto,' which is rather an extravaganza than a novel, in the proper sense of the word. The name of the English heroine is a pun; the two American heroines change names for the sake of deceiving the English heiress-hunters; the plot, or part of it, is aptly described by one of these young ladies as being like "The House that Jack Built"—*e. g.*, "This is the man that Stella hates. This is Stella, who makes love to the man that she hates. This is the man in love with Stella, who makes love to the man that she hates. This is the woman in love with the man in love with Stella, who makes love to the man that she hates. This is the girl who despises the woman in love with the man in love with Stella, who makes love to the man that she hates. This is the man in love with the girl who despises the woman in love with the man in love with Stella, who makes love to the man that she hates. This is the fool who is jealous of the man in love with the girl who despises the woman in love with the man in love with Stella, who makes love to the man that she hates." The tangled skein of the story is very skilfully unwound by Mr. Oliphant; and if the characters were more interesting, the book would be decidedly entertaining. But the characters are almost all a little worse for wear. Altiora is the freshest. She is the conscientious, thinking, reading girl of the day, who is puzzled by learning too early that the world is full of questions which nobody has been able to answer, and which stagger even her acute young mind, and numb her sensitive heart. She falls in love with a priggish young æsthete, a tolerably familiar type, but gets speedily cured by a second prig, who is not an æsthete. Then there are the two American girls, Stella Walton and Mattie Terrill, one of whom is a great heiress, and both of whom represent our glorious country by great freedom of manner and language, combined with that purity of heart which, in Mr. Oliphant's view of the world, the absence of conventionality tends to produce. They have with them a terrible old companion, or chaperon, named Hannah, who talks like something between a Maine Yankee and Buffalo Bill. Her conversation, masculine as it is, does not interfere with her having an excellent heart; and we suppose there is nothing in American etiquette, as at present established, to prevent the two girls going about Europe with old Hannah, calling men by their first names whom they have only just met, and so on. Nor is there anything intrinsically impossible in these impossible people getting into English society, at least when we understand that it is the society in which Lord Sark and his *chère amie*, Mrs. Clymer, the professional beauty, move; their *liaison* being a matter of general notoriety as well as an ordinary subject of conversation. Americans who feel sore over the way English writers misrepresent American girls, may derive a good deal of consolation from the way in which Mr. Oliphant treats English society. As depicted by him, it is a combination of Bohemia and Botany Bay. It is, of course, closely connected with the world of finance, Altiora herself being the victim of a stupendous fraud perpetrated by her financial guardians. We say the book is an extravaganza, partly because of the burlesque character of the situations; but the author calls it a novel, and perhaps it is as an international novel that it will have to be judged.

Mr. Hardy's milkmaid is a young person who has adventures not unlike those of a fairy story; but the termination of them is not very romantic. The mysterious nobleman whom she saves from suicide, and who afterward involves her in very unnecessary difficulties through his kindness, ought by rights to carry her off in the end; and the reader's sympathies are outraged by having him disappear into space, leaving the milkmaid to subject herself to the yoke of a prosaic and perfectly suitable marriage. We thought better things of the author of 'A Pair of Blue Eyes' and 'Two on a Tower.' It is almost uncivil to give *blasé* grown-up readers a glimpse of fairy-land, with all its characters and properties—the Prince, the poor but pretty maiden, the nocturnal rendezvous, the metamorphosis from Cinderella into the brilliant *débutante*—and then to put us off in the end with a humdrum daylight termination.

The 'Sea Queen' is, in certain features, the 'Wreck of the *Grosvenor*' over again. It is a tale of mutiny, disaster, wreck, and final rescue, in all of which a woman takes a leading and heroic part. A good deal of it is decidedly interesting, and the suspense in which the reader is kept over the mutiny is very well managed; and the vacillation of the men, the courage and anxiety of the captain, all have an air of reality which makes us suspect that Mr. Russell is drawing less upon his imagination than his memory. The later adventures of the captain and his wife, the discovery of the fever-stricken ship, and the reappearance of the mutineers, and their sudden conversion, have a little too much of the melodrama in them to be thoroughly good.

Mr. William Black, to judge by one or two of his last novels, has reached a very dangerous point in his career. He has begun to write stupid novels, and to foist them upon the public on the strength of the reputation acquired through his bright ones. 'Yolande' is insufferably dull—duller even than 'Sbandon Bells.' We frankly confess that we have not read every word of it by any means, but it is in the interest of Mr. Black that the reader should "skip" in reading it, or perhaps, to be more accurate, that he should not read it at all. Yolande herself is not a badly-drawn character, and the motive of all the complications of the story is well conceived. Much might have been done with an opium-eating mother of whose existence her daughter had been kept in ignorance; from her appearance in the early part of the story and her indefensible stone-throwing at her husband's windows, we were led to expect adventures of an exciting nature. But nothing follows; there are, for seventy pages, no consequences of importance. A gentle dulness pervades the tale throughout this vast expanse, unenlivened by anything but a tame love-affair. In other words, most of the story is occupied in reaching the crisis. It is this to which we strongly object. Authors who should write stories in Mr. Black's present manner, even if they gave a hint in the preface or through a table of contents as to where the story really began, would not succeed. Had he done this with 'Yolande,' however, the world would probably have spared itself a great deal of searching without any adequate results in the way of discovery. Mr. Black seems to have been run away with of late years by his passion for description and detail, and perhaps he may reply to the suggestion that what we want is a story, in the well-known words of the needy knife-grinder. But Mr. Black once had stories to tell. The market for his fiction, we are strongly inclined to suspect, will soon begin to suffer from "over-production."

Mr. Murray's last novel will hardly add to his fame. It shows close observation, a good deal of humor, and a certain knowledge of the world—all excellent qualities. Its principal defect is the very common one, that the characters are rather puppets of the author's than human beings with minds, hearts, and wills of their own. So rarely, however, does a novel-writer appear who is not open to this criticism, that Mr. Murray is hardly to be found fault with for the defect. The construction of the story is not very clear; much more might have been made out of the materials of the plot. There is promise in the beginning of a better novel. The history of young Tregarthen's army difficulty is very good.

Mr. Bret Harte's latest story recalls many of his earlier sketches of Western life. It is, to our minds, quite as good as some of the best of these; and if it has not been received by the public with the same enthusiasm, it is probably because the public taste has changed, and the market for such fiction is no longer what it was. Mr. Harte is undeniably a Californian product of the same tone of feeling which gave Dickens his opportunity in England. It is impossible to read any of his stories without being continually reminded of the English novelist. Mr. Harte has done for the Western desperado of either sex much what Dickens did for the bad characters of London. That is, he has idealized them,

made us like them, think well of them, and feel our common humanity in them. This both writers do by the same means—by making their fate turn upon the redeeming feature of their character: courage, truthfulness, womanly devotion, as the case may be. The fundamental objection to this, as a matter of literary art, is that, if it is done habitually, we cannot help reflecting that in real life the fate of such characters is determined, as a general rule, by their vicious or criminal rather than their virtuous tendencies, simply because these preponderate so heavily. The crisis in a burglar's life is more apt to be a commonplace sentence to the penitentiary than some act of heroism; and a career devoted to burglary or other crime tends in the long run to extinguish unselfish impulses. Dickens really reversed this law, and made us feel as if it was very doubtful whether a disreputable life was not most calculated to lead to true goodness. In the same way, Mr. Harte's characters are developed. The heroine of the 'Carquinez Woods' is a variety actress, of the lowest stamp, who, under the influence of love, displays all the qualities that most endear woman to us. We do not say that this is impossible, for even in a variety actress a deep affection may produce wonderful results; but the thing has been done too often. As a literary device it is understood and seen through, and will no longer serve for any writer's capital. If Mr. Harte will persist in relying upon it, he will find it in the end a poor support. We do not mean to say that the 'Carquinez Woods' is an uninteresting story. Far from it. It is in its way a powerful story, and its tragical finale shows true literary feeling; but we can but feel that the author is wasting his forces in the service of an outworn literary fashion, which was sadly overdone even by its great inventor.

Mr. James Payn's last story demonstrates, of course, that it is blood which is thicker than water, but the demonstration itself is not particularly interesting. The plot is very poorly constructed, and, unfortunately, the interest is concentrated at the beginning of the story instead of the end—a plan which no good novelist has ever adopted or recommended to others. Considered as a novel, 'Thicker than Water' is almost ridiculous. Its value consists in isolated chapters and sketches, and in the running comment of the author, which is always bright, and sometimes witty. Even his dialogue is sometimes very good. Society was agog, not so very long ago, over the marriage of an old and rich lady with a man young enough to be her son. 'Thicker than Water' seems to have been in part suggested by this affair, inasmuch as it opens with a proposal of marriage to such a young man by such an old lady. Those who are curious in matters of this kind, and have a strong stomach, may find a good deal of amusement in Mrs. Beckett's courtship of and final discomfiture by the skittish and faithless Dornay.

Henry Holt & Co. have now added to their edition of Mr. Brooks's admirable translations of Jean Paul's romances 'The Invisible Lodge,' which was the earliest in point of time, and which, in fact, decided for himself, if not for the world, the future of his reputation. It was written in his dark time, in that one room which he shared with his mother; he writing by the window in the corner, and she brewing, baking, scouring, or spinning. The hero is a fanciful conception of Jean Paul himself, a poetic rendering of his own spiritual life. Crowded with thought and sparkling with epigram, this romance, now ninety years old, seems out of place among modern novels. Not that it is old-fashioned—it is not of the sort that has fashions; but it is so rich and full. "In the moral desert with its sandy wastes, it is like a cluster of date-trees, with its greensward and well of water." There is no need to commend it to the real student of imaginative literature, and any reader who seeks more than mere amusement will find his account in the treasures of phantasy, of pathos, of humor it contains. A chance cut between the leaves gives us such philosophy as this:

"I would give ten metaphysical optimists for one moral one, who knows how to enjoy, not a single plant as the caterpillar does, but, like man, a whole flora of pleasures; who has not five senses only, but a thousand for everything. . . . There is a certain higher tolerance which is not the fruit of the Peace of Westphalia, nor of the Concord of 1705, but of a life filtered through many years and improvements. . . . Not merely with the best must we be pleased, but with the good and everything."

Or again:

"If a *maître de plaisirs* should draw up for a Prince a plan of decoration for an opera-house, to consist of a rising sun, a thousand Leipsic larks, twenty ringing bells, whole meadows and floras of silken flowers, the Prince would say it cost too much. But the master of pleasures should reply: It costs a walk—or a crown, say I, because such an entertainment requires not the Prince, but the man."

One conceit we must find room for. The translator adds to it this note: "An odd forerunner of our modern local quiz, that good Bostonians hope, when they die, to go to Paris (short for Paradise)." Observe that the date is 1792:

"It is singular that one should make higher stars, or indeed planets, and their daughterlands to be the flower-pots into which Death is to plant us, somewhat as the American hopes after death to go to Europe."

M. Sarcey gravely produces his story as straight from China, a manuscript found by a brave French officer in the sack of an imperial palace. That no two, learned in Chinese, could make it read alike matters little. It was only necessary to choose the most diverting version. But no one at all familiar with the actual life of France could miss the double point of the clever satire, and thoughtful Frenchmen themselves recognize the ills it deprecates. The desire of the *petite bourgeoisie* to better the condition of their sons by placing them in the official class, the *bureaucratie*, is so intense that it blinds them not only to the fact that not one in a thousand reaches the top, but to the deterioration of mind and character which too often follows inadequate employment in purely mechanical work. On the other hand, M. Sarcey exposes the evils that exist in official life in a "much-administered" country like France, where the multiplication of detail and the worship of routine become almost a passion—evils for which the exacting rigor of red-tape is as much responsible as the carelessness of indifferent officials.

Fo Hi, the grocer, is happy when he has seen his son through college and appointed "Supernumerary-Expectant Master-Surveyor of Stone Heaps," while he mourns that he must marry his daughters, one to his chief clerk, the other to a farmer. In the end, the life of Fo Hi, jr., about to be sacrificed to some imaginary affront to his chief, is saved by the intercession of the farmer, now high in the confidence of the Emperor, and soon to become the Minister of Agriculture. The tale of the woes of Fo Hi is long and sorrowful. Thus discourses Li-jou-lin, an old philosopher, upon the effect of the fine enthusiasm with which Fo Hi discharges his first duties:

"His superiors don't like his performances any better than his comrades. He is a young upstart, breaking the peace of the City of God. Is there anything finer or more marvellously ordered than a Government in which each one gives up a part of his work to his neighbor in a spirit of broad public charity? The Surveyor does not survey accurately out of regard for the feelings of the Controller, who in his turn is a little lax in his duties out of respect for the Auditor, who again permits himself a little carelessness in his work out of politeness to the Inspector, who takes good care not to supervise anything lest he should take the wind out of the Director-in-Chief's sails. And this dignitary, for his part, is both blind and deaf to everything out of thoughtfulness for the Minister."

Later, when Fo Hi, growing dull in the monotony of petty routine, insists, "I have a profession which does not leave me a single spare moment," Li-jou-lin replies:

"You are busy, but you do not work. To work is not merely to fill a few hours of life with some kind of occupation. . . . That only is work, in the true sense of the term, which has an end in view, and that end the highest which could be presented to human activity—the great end of making free both him who works and those who are born to him. To emancipate one's self and one's posterity from the miseries of servitude, that is the true and only work."

Too late Fo Hi himself wakens to the need of some personal and genuine interest. "It is absolutely necessary to have a passion and an object in life. . . . But the mischief of it is, that you can't take a passion as you can take a cold." But he could think of nothing which was to his taste, and at last said to himself: "Ah! the best thing undoubtedly would be a passion for one's profession." Yet so ingrain becomes the infatuation that, after all his failures and sorrows, his best wish for the little son of his prosperous sister is, "We will make an official of this little fellow," and thereupon produces for his guidance the Decalogue which his experience has taught him. The reader will find the story worth his study, and will gain from it new light as to the public functionary in China or in France—or in some other countries.

'Times of Battle and Rest' forms the "second cycle" of the "Surgeon's Stories." To call the book dry or dull would be unjust, but the Sweden of the seventeenth century is so remote, not only from ourselves, but from historical events that are of vivid interest to us, that the reader will need some personal motive to make it seem worth while. We have a doubt how far fiction can help in the genuine study of history, but nevertheless the book may be found of value as a description of the state of society in the north just before the days of the brilliant though disastrous career of Charles XII.

'A Washington Winter' and 'A Newport Aquarelle' are professedly society novels. They are really excellent examples of the work of the reporter in fiction. Page after page reads, even in its tameness, like the newspaper column in which Jenkins or his successor sets forth the doings of fashionable life. The stories might be left to the obscurity which is sure to overtake them, had there not been books no better in spirit than these, though a little less coarse and clumsy in execution, which have been taken in all seriousness. For this reason an emphatic word of protest is a duty. It is not to the purpose to say that Mrs. Dahlgren's figures are not like Americans: there are no such human beings under the sun. The story is a climax of supreme silliness. Within polite circles, anything more coarse without positive immorality could hardly be written.

'A Newport Aquarelle' has a veneer of refinement, like the reporter who wishes to commend himself to the givers of balls and dinners. Characters and incidents could no doubt be paralleled in the curiously mixed crowd which makes up Newport, but a picture, to be true, must give the best as well as the worst. The subject is no less hackneyed a one than the career of an English adventurer. He may be left to his deserved fate; nor need we trouble ourselves with the Bostonians, who are

described with an intimacy of knowledge and a pleasantness of spite which suggest that the writer may be to that manner born; but of the heroine something ought to be said.

Gladys Carleton at twenty puts an end to a three years' "understanding" with her cousin, during which time she has been growing "colder and harder and more thoroughly a woman of the world." With perfect beauty but slender fortune, she is taken abroad by her mother, where she is engaged first to a young English earl, then to a German millionaire. From the latter she runs away without a word of explanation. Returning to America, she has, at the date of the story, had twenty-five offers of marriage without counting the accepted one of the rascally Englishman. The reader is to receive her as the typical New York belle, and she is described by the men who see her in terms which are best forgotten. To have fallen a prey to the Englishman who mistakes her for her rich cousin, would have been, in the nature of things, a suitable catastrophe, but she is rescued by the still faithful cousin, who marries her out of hand. Through all this demoralizing career the author describes her as keeping a sweet, tender soul under the mask of worldliness, and making glad at last a man of the noblest character with a pure, unsullied love. This is as false as it is impossible; and such ignorance of the effect of life upon character, such want of moral logic, makes the evil of the book quite as much as its flattering presentation of the most degrading elements in society. As to literary merit, we have already said that the reporter furnishes both the pattern and the standard.

LENORMANT'S BEGINNINGS OF HISTORY.

The Beginnings of History, according to the Bible and the Traditions of Oriental Peoples. From the Creation of Man to the Deluge. By François Lenormant, Professor of Archæology at the National Library of France, etc., etc. Translated from the second French edition. With an Introduction by Francis Brown, Associate Professor in Biblical Theology, Union Theological Seminary. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THIS title is not short, indeed; but it ought, we think, to be longer by a line or two stating the name of the translator, Miss Mary Lockwood, of Washington, D. C., who, as the introduction tells us and as we find ourselves, "has discharged the laborious work of translation with fidelity and skill." The extraordinary care with which the transliteration of the multitudinous Semitic words—so as "to represent the sounds correctly to the English, as the author aimed to represent them to the French, ear"—the verification of the countless references, and occasional rectification, have been carried out (probably with the aid of Professor Brown), is quite refreshing amid the shocking exhibitions of editorial or translatorial levity and ignorance which we daily meet with in English reproductions. The introduction is brief and to the point, and its general estimate of M. Lenormant is, in our view, correct. "His versatility, energy, rapidity in work," are justly praised, while it is admitted that even "his warmest admirers will not claim . . . that he is always judicious. It is natural that so ardent and original [a] scholar should sometimes be incautious and hasty in his conclusions, and that so facile a worker should not always observe the greatest care in minute particulars." This agrees quite well with what we said ourselves some years ago in the columns of this journal (No. 678)—an opinion unaltered by impressions derived from the more recent products of M. Lenormant's untiring pen:

"He is a very diligent but easy-going critic. He is inclined to accept as true what great authorities announce with sufficient positiveness as a new discovery. He examines the latest results with serious but good natured inquisitiveness, applies the test of a criticism entirely free from captiousness, modifies his own former conclusions with the readiness of a disciple, and communicates the latest acquisitions with an obvious fondness for both learning and book making. . . . He enters perhaps too easily upon insecure paths through the mazes of antiquity, but he follows sound guides; and if at the end of his search he finds not truth, but conjectures, the results are still interesting."

In the work before us M. Lenormant moves on paths more insecure than any he has ever trodden, through mazes not of antiquity, but of hoarier tradition, and without sound guides—for there is no trustworthy guidance in this field of conjecture. Everything before him is shadowy, intricate, intangible, vapor-like; yet he moves on with breathless earnestness, as if the traces could all be followed, the similarities and identities all established, and highly important results obtained. His efforts are stupendous. No ancient worshippers of the Cabiri, for instance, could ever have evinced more zeal and enthusiasm in searching for the history and connections of those strange, mythical beings than he evinces in treating, in chapter iv., of Cain—the slayer of his brother and builder of the first city—as a Cabirus; of the fratricide of the Cabiri compared with the fratricide of the Corybantes; of the Cabiric Adam of Samothrace; of Prometheus and Ætnæus as Cabiri in Bœotia; of the Dioscuri as Cabiri in the zodiacal sign of the Twins; of the month of the Twins, or of Brick-making, in the Babylonian calendar; of the consecration of this month to the god Shin; of Shin and Adar, Agamedes and Trophonius, Romulus and Remus, brick-making and city-building, twins and fratricide. And equal erudition and ingenuity are displayed, in the other seven chapters, on "The Creation of Man," "The First Sin," "The Kerûbîm and the Revolving Sword," "The Shêthites and the Qaînites," "The Ten Antediluvian Patriarchs," "The Children of God and the Daughters of Men," and "The Deluge." The very first pages of our author's comparative study of "the Bible and the traditions of Oriental peoples" acquaint us not only with the Protogonos, Æon, and Genos of the Phœnician Sanchoniathon—who are identified with Adam, Eve, and Cain—and the Egyptian deities Râ-Har-em-akhuti, Sekhet, and Khnûm, but also with the "*Alpa camasca*, Animated earth" of the non-Oriental Peruvians, with cosmogonic notions, kindred to those of Genesis, preserved by the Dayaks of Borneo, the Tahiti islanders, and the North American Mandans.

M. Lenormant's seemingly pedantic eagerness to multiply references is well displayed in a note (pp. 109–10) attached to a purely incidental mention of the brazen serpent of Moses. On this subject, in no way coming within the scope of the work before us, no fewer than the following authorities are *obiter* referred to, with full indications of book, edition, volume, and page: Ewald, Köhler, Oehler, De Wette, Kuenen, Tiele, Baudissin, Kern, Funk, E. Meier, and Menken. And yet it is not the sanctity of the Biblical topics that induces this indefatigableness in search and presentation, for he treats Biblical and heathen legends *nullo discrimine*. The Adam of the Pentateuch and Sanchoniathon's Protogonos, Eden and Tin-tir ki, are to him of equal authenticity. More than that, he unhesitatingly joins hands with the critics who have proved that the two parallel genealogies of Genesis iv. and v.—one of which enumerates in succession Adam (man), Cain, Enoch, Irad, Mehujael, Methusael, and Lamech, and the other Enos (man), Cainan, Mahalaleel, Jared, Enoch, Methuselah, and Lamech—"were constructed artificially and contemporaneously, in order to establish an exact and constant parallelism between the two lines of descent from the criminal and accursed son and from the just and blessed son," etc. (p. 186), and were so "formed by a systematic duplicating of a single primitive list" (p. 203), "a mode of procedure" agreeing with the Semite fondness for "the invention of names for allegorical personages," etc. (p. 196). All his illustrations, in fact, tend to prove that the antediluvian legends of Genesis are derived from Babylonian sources, and, though he believes them to have been carried into Palestine, from Ur of the Chaldees, "by the family of Abrâhâm," he is not at all averse to admitting "the fact that the Pentateuch, under the definite form that we possess"—as he cautiously states in the Preface—"does not date back further than the return from the Captivity." He has an excellent excuse for apparently so awful a heterodoxy in these words of St. Jerome: "Sive Mosen dicere voluerit auctorem Pentateuchi, sive Esdram ejusdem instauratorem operis, non recuso."

Protected by this shield, M. Lenormant gives us in the Preface—with what special object we do not know—a long, and almost naïve, profession of orthodoxy, coupled with a vindication of free criticism. "I am a Christian," he says, "and just now, when my belief may be a cause for reprobation, I am more than ever desirous to proclaim it emphatically." He "firmly" believes "in the inspiration of the Sacred Books," and subscribes "with absolute submission to the doctrinal decisions of the Church in this respect." But this submission extends only to that which concerns "faith and practice," and "does not at all interfere with the entire liberty of the scholar, when the question comes up of deciding the character of . . . narratives," their originality, or the date and mode of their composition. This liberty he has used within the limits of "strict fidelity to Catholic orthodoxy," even when he may have appeared "most daring." And daring he surely must appear to many, after these protestations, when, for instance, speaking of Chaldaic divination, of phyllomancy among the Assyrians, and of the prophetic tree Samurah of the Arabs before the days of Islam, he adds (pp. 95–6) that the manifestation of the angel of Jehovah to Moses, in a burning bush in the desert of Horeb, "belongs to the same class of conceptions." Frightened by this temerity, he hastens to assure his readers, in a note, that "this implies no doubt cast upon the reality or miraculous character of the occurrence." And he explains this surprising assurance in a way which, we must say, will satisfy neither the orthodox nor rationalists. The former, he tells us in the Preface, it would give him "much pain to scandalize"; "as to the pure rationalists," it will disturb him but little "should they smile at these scruples, which do not affect them." All this is very curious reading in a book in which Bible stories and the fables of idolatrous nations are compared, dissected, analyzed, identified, and shown to be equally childish and worthless.

Methods of Social Reform, and Other Papers. By W. Stanley Jevons, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

THE appearance of this book will revive the regret so keenly felt at the untimely death of the author. Whatever else might be said of his writings, they were always bold, vigorous, and stirring. The thing that his hand found to do he did with his might. The animated style showed an alert and enthusiastic mind, and in his very latest productions there was a youthful

optimism suggestive of years of experience in the future rather than in the past. Even to those who knew him only through his published utterances there was something pathetic in the sudden quenching of such a life, and it is easy to imagine that the loss to his family and friends must have been of more than ordinary severity.

Mrs. Jevons has collected in this memorial volume seventeen of her husband's papers and addresses, most of which, as the title indicates, were devoted to those questions which seem nowadays to be of the greatest interest to the more thoughtful class of English readers. Many of the subjects chosen, however, are so closely connected with the daily business of modern communities that they are of equal interest to Americans. We too are coming to be concerned in the "Amusements of the People," "The Rationale of Free Public Libraries," and "The Use and Abuse of Museums." We can no longer feel that "Trades Societies: their Objects and Policy" are exclusively English matters, from concern with which our free institutions have happily delivered us. The regulation of labor in factories, the regulation of the trade in liquor, and competitive examinations, are all subjects upon which it is necessary for intelligent people to have some information, or at least opinion; and, whatever may be thought of the conclusions laid down in these essays, or of the reasoning by which they are reached, it is a refreshing stimulus to every one to be conducted through these fields of discussion. Professor Jevons delighted in nothing so much as in facts and statistics, and we find in these pages much information that it would be impossible to obtain except from the daily conversation of men like himself. Of course, the specialist will not look here for an exhaustive treatment of his theme, but the general reader will find a convenient résumé of the best current thought upon a variety of subjects concerning which he does not like to confess himself ignorant. Even those whose pursuits necessarily require them to be familiar with the matters here treated may derive an advantage from this general review of the field of social reform. Professor Jevons's style is always easy, and we may safely recommend this book as not heavier for vacation reading than most of the summer novels.

It is a severe test of any one's consistency to bring together his utterances upon a great variety of topics during some fifteen years of active life, especially if that life has been such as to call for frequent public utterance of opinion. But, making every allowance for the lack of opportunity for revision and for the circumstances under which the essays originally appeared, it still seems undeniable that Jevons had never succeeded in developing in his own mind any consistent theory of politics, or even of social reform. He urges in one essay the acquisition of the telegraphs by the state; in the next essay, written some years later, he shows that the experiment had been an ignominious financial failure; while, in a third, after an interval of four years, he comes forward with unshaken confidence to recommend the Government to undertake the business of distributing parcels, or what in this country is called the express business. In the somewhat noted article on "Experimental Legislation," it is very clearly pointed out that, as laws are now passed, it is impossible to determine with scientific accuracy what their results really are. The community which they affect is so large, and exposed to so many influences, that we cannot assign a particular result to any definite cause. It would seem natural to conclude that local self-government would relieve this difficulty, for one community would be continually trying its own experiments, on a scale and under circumstances that would enable others to profit by their results. Instead of this, we have the proposition that Parliament should undertake to conduct these experiments, selecting certain boroughs as subjects for experimental laws. We know that Parliament is omnipotent, but we are inclined to consider that the conduct of a scientific experiment is beyond its capacity. As Sir James Stephen says, we should as soon think of getting a committee of the whole House to paint a picture. Still, it is a mistake to condemn this essay on the ground that we have no right to experiment on human beings. Every new law is an experiment, and, as it is about as likely to be disastrous as beneficial, it is certainly merciful to confine its operation to a small portion of the community until it appears that the whole will be the better for it.

But when Professor Jevons comes to treat of the disputes between masters and workmen, this confidence in the power of Government disappears. He even disapproves of arbitration, upon the ground that it tends to interfere with free competition. We notice in his discussion of this subject that he has unconsciously assumed, like many of the orthodox school, that the laws of political economy are laws in the same sense as the Ten Commandments. The moral sense of mankind, however, is not shocked by a violation either of the law of gravitation or the law of rent, and it is hard to repress a smile at the following remark concerning boards of conciliation: "The tendency of all such arrangements would surely be to destroy the freedom of individual action; and any such tendency is directly contrary to the undoubted truths of economical science, which we must unflinchingly uphold at the peril of unmeasured evils."

The recent telegraph strike will naturally give the essays on the Government and the telegraph a peculiar interest. We apprehend that their effect will be to dampen the ardor of those who are eager to have our Government engage in mercantile ventures of this nature. *Omne ignotum pro magnifico* is the major premise of most people's reasoning about the institutions of other countries, and it is not impossible that even those who ought to know have allowed themselves to assume that the business management of the departments of the English Government is good. It is truly consoling to a patriotic American to learn that that Government not long since sold ten or twelve tons of soldiers' buttons, which had never been taken from their wrappers, as old metal; and that the shrewd individual who purchased a condemned vessel for $10,000, sold back to the Government $20,000 worth of stores which he found in his purchase. We have not followed the later history of the English experiment, but it appears from Mr. Jevons's paper, which was published in 1875, that the Government had then laid out about fifty million dollars instead of the fifteen that they proposed, and that they were not then earning a half of one per cent. We might fairly expect that if our Government should manage no worse than that of England, we should get off with an expenditure of a hundred million dollars, and an annual loss of three or four million. It is well not to forget, too, that the Government pays no losses or damages arising from its negligence, and that it forbids all private competition.

Professor Jevons's fame is well established. It rests upon his admirable scientific treatises, and could not be increased by this publication. Yet we trust that this volume may further the pious intentions of his widow by arousing the interest of those who are unacquainted with his other works, and leading them to extend their knowledge. Those who have profited by his labors, and whose sympathies were excited by his death, will be glad to pay his memory the tribute of adding this book to their libraries.

A Bird's-eye View of Our Civil War. By Theo. A. Dodge, U. S. A. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

COLONEL DODGE'S history of the campaign of Chancellorsville was so admirable that we took up this later product of his pen with eagerness. It is impossible, however, to repress a feeling of disappointment upon reading it. It has many excellent characteristics: the style is simple and clear, the tone elevated and fair, the conception of military operations comprehensive, and the criticisms upon them judicious. The book is evidently as much the work of an experienced soldier as of a well-informed author. The diagrams that illustrate the text are good for their purpose, and, together with the maps, add greatly to the value of the book.

One of the defects grows, perhaps, out of the nature of the undertaking. The attempt to give in a moderate volume a sketch of the civil war which shall enter as much into particulars as this one does, is apt to result in a *syllabus* which, if accurate, may be of great use to the historical student, but will hardly serve to give the youthful or uninformed reader a clear and impressive picture. The young reader is apt to rise from the perusal of such a book with so great a load of names, dates, numbers, and localities, that his conception of the whole is quickly confused and soon fades entirely away.

More serious defects, however, are the many evidences of haste and inaccuracy. The undertaking, it is true, is a large one; but the data for the history of the war are very full, and of late years have been accessible. These data seem, in a number of instances, to have been very imperfectly used by Colonel Dodge. For instance, on page 54, Franklin is said to have gone up York River to make a demonstration from the White House (May 7, 1862), but made none because there was no enemy in that vicinity. Franklin was really within a mile or two of the Confederate line of retreat when he was driven back to Eltham's Landing. Again, on page 67, of the battle of Glendale or Frazier's Farm (June 30), it is said: "Our line stoutly resisted the attack of the enemy, which fell particularly upon McCall. But once during the day was a break effected by the Confederates, and Kearney promptly filled the gap." One would hardly infer from this that McCall was captured and his division largely scattered, and that on this day McClellan more narrowly escaped overthrow than on any other of the famous "seven days." Many persons will be surprised to learn from page 78 that Pope "had the advantage of the fighting" on August 29, 1862; and, from page 104, that on September 13 "an immediate march through the then undefended South Mountain passes would have enabled him [McClellan] to crush Longstreet." On this day D. H. Hill held the South Mountain (as he did next day, when the battle took place), and Longstreet was at Hagerstown. On page 106, McClellan's slow pursuit after Antietam is excused because of the disheartening effect on his troops of "Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and Manassas"—two of which reverses were yet in the future. Lee's strategy just before Gettysburg is misapprehended. His concentration at Gettysburg was to checkmate a movement of the Federal army toward Hagerstown, which Hooker had threatened. The battle was unexpected to both commanders. Colonel Dodge gives erroneously the numbers and losses at Gettysburg, of which the official reports are now all in print.

There are many such instances as the above. Halleck is blamed for Pope's defeat, Lincoln for

Hooker's feeble operations in the summer of 1863; Sherman's severities are all justified, while the burning of Chambersburg is unhesitatingly condemned, and no allusion made to the acts which led to it. Sheridan's laying waste of the Shenandoah Valley is, however, criticised. But Colonel Dodge's book is in no sense partisan. He pays high tribute to Confederate valor and leadership, and with deliberate judgment places Lee and Jackson at the head of the great soldiers developed by our war. The Chancellorsville and Vicksburg campaigns, and that of 1864 in Virginia, are the best done parts of the book.

Gatherings from an Artist's Portfolio in Rome. By James E. Freeman. Boston: Roberts Bros.

An old man's recollections of Rome in the forties must be pleasant reading. Why are there not more of them? is the involuntary question. The man who heard the announcement of Pio Nono's election, who soared in his first papal benediction, or who saw "the last of the gallants"—the old Polish and Hungarian nobles—dance the mazurka at the Princess (Colonna) Torlonia's balls, ought to have more to tell than we find in these pages. The bits from the studios and the stories of the models have a freshness that proves their truth. We shall not see the like again. Such an adventure as a pair of artists *painting* their way from Rome to Naples through the Abruzzi belongs only to a world where railroads and telegraphs are not. A glimpse of Thackeray is worth quoting:

"'By the by,' he added, 'is that extraordinary creature N——, about whom Macpherson used to tell me such odd stories, still living?'

"'Yes,' I answered, 'he is still alive, and as extraordinary as ever—'

"'Confound the fellow!' he interrupted. 'I was in hopes he was dead. I want to use him.'"

Here is the meeting between Sir Walter Scott and Thorwaldsen, described by Kesner, the Hanoverian minister:

"We make de appointment for de next day, and I accompany him, and present de two great genius one to de udder. Thorwaldsen not understand de English, and Sir Scott not understand de German or Danish language. Well, dey shake hand and look at each udder, wid much emotion and respect in dere eyes, for a little time widout a word. Dey could say notin, but de one know dat de udder was a great man, and dey were satisfy. . . . When de visit was finish dese two wonderful genius embrace one anudder wid great affection, and widout a word part. Dis was dere first and dere last meeting in dis world."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Jacob. The Jonas Library; 6 vols. The Lucy Library; 6 vols. The Rollo Books; 14 vols.; American History; 8 vols. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Ayer & Son's American Newspaper Annual: a List of all Newspapers in the United States and Canada. Philadelphia: N. W. Ayer & Son.

Andrews, J. W. Church Law. T. Whittaker. $1 25.

Baldwin, J. The Story of Roland. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.

Boyd, E. W. English Cathedrals: their Architecture, Symbolism, and History. Thomas Whittaker. 60 cts.

Butler, Rev. J. G. The Bible-Work; or, Bible Readers' Commentary. The New Testament in two volumes. Vol. i. The Fourfold Gospel. With illustrations, maps, and diagrams. Funk & Wagnalls.

Cross, Rev. J. Discourses on Pauline Charity. Thomas Whittaker. $1 50.

Daly, J. Wild Flowers: Poems. Boston: Stanley & Usher.

Day, Rev. L. B. Folk-Tales of Bengal. Macmillan & Co. $1 25.

Dumas, A. La Recherche de la Paternité. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

Eddy, Rev. D. C. Walter's Tour in the East; 6 vols. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Fields, Mrs. J. T. How to Help the Poor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60 cents.

Gray, Prof. J. C. Restraints on the Alienation of Property. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.

Gréville, H. Guy's Marriage; or, The Shadow of a Sin. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

Grey, H. Bird's-eye View of English Literature from the Seventh Century. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Griswold, W. M. Synopsis of Copyright Decisions. Bangor, Me.: Q. P. Index; New York: J. W. Christopher.

Henry Irving: a Short Account of his Public Life. W. S. Gottsberger.

Lanza, Clara. A Righteous Apostate. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 25.

Miller, Mrs. E. S. In the Kitchen. Henry Holt & Co. $2 50.

Mitchell, D. G. Reveries of a Bachelor. New and revised edition. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 25.

Murdoch, J. E. A Plea for Spoken Language. Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.

Selections from the Writings of Edward Bouverie Pusey, D.D. E. & J. B. Young & Co.

Thompson, S. P. Philipp Reis, Inventor of the Telephone: a Biographical Sketch. E. & F. N. Spon.

Uhlhorn, Dr. G. Christian Charity in the Ancient Church. Charles scribner's Sons. $2 50.

Washburn, Rev. F. Thoughts on the Lord's Prayer. Thomas Whittaker. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 27, 1883.

The Week.

THE Machine leaders who have returned from the New York Republican Convention express themselves as greatly delighted with its work, and as convinced that the party is in a better and more harmonious condition than it has been for many years. They may be right about it, but a great deal depends upon what happens within the next four weeks. The Democrats may take such action as will repel all Independent sympathy, and in that case the Republican ticket would receive unexpectedly large support. Fortunately it is made up of quite unobjectionable persons, all but one of whom have had experience in the offices for which they are nominated, and have shown themselves fully competent for their duties. The nominee for Treasurer is little known, but there is no reason to think that he is below the general average of the rest of the ticket.

There is some difference in tone between the platforms of the New York and the Massachusetts Republicans on the tariff and steamship-subsidy questions. The Massachusetts platform favors "well and wisely matured laws, to protect and develop American industry and enterprise both at home and on the ocean." Nothing could be more colorless than this definition, and when we reflect that it proceeds from a State in which manufacturing is the largest of all industries, and has always been the most potent influence in national politics, we are not a little surprised to see how faint an interest appears to be taken in the subject of duties on imports. The New York platform favors "a system of tariff laws under which, while revenue for the Government is provided, American producers are justly protected, American labor elevated, and home markets are secured to home products for the advantage alike of the producer and laborer"; also "the removal of all unjust burdens upon American shipping, and the awarding of ocean mail contracts to the lowest bidders among owners of American vessels after open competition." Thus the New York platform, though not so favorable to the existing system as some former utterances from the same quarter have been, shows a stronger leaning toward protection than that of the Massachusetts convention. The difference would appear to signify that the experience which the Massachusetts manufacturers have had of the tariff has not been so favorable on the whole as it has been to the politicians of New York, who probably drew their platform to suit what they conceived to be the general belief and inclination of the party rather than from any critical survey of the present state of "American industry." There is nothing, however, in either platform which would estop the Republican party from overhauling and reducing the tariff again this winter.

Mr. Robinson, the Republican candidate for Governor of Massachusetts, has defined his position on the question of prohibition with commendable clearness. He says that in his opinion the present local option "is all that the people will enforce, and a law that the people will not enforce is of little effect in any State." The present law in Massachusetts gives any town the power to adopt a prohibitory law for itself by a majority vote of its citizens, and experience has shown that this is as far as a State can wisely go in the matter. Sweeping prohibitory enactments which public sentiment does not sustain, have been aptly designated as "legislation by hurricane" by so uncompromising a teetotaler as John Bright, and the class of temperance advocates who still insist upon them or nothing grows smaller every year. There are assurances that they are fewer than ever in Massachusetts this year, and that consequently General Butler's assistance from that quarter will be perceptibly diminished.

An application of the prayer-gauge to politics has been made in Massachusetts, and, if we correctly understand the report of the applicant, the Rev. Mr. Gifford, the experiment was not successful. Mr. Gifford offered prayer at the opening of the Republican Convention, supplicating for its delegates wisdom in the choice of candidates and principles. On the following day he took part in the Prohibition Convention, and made a strong anti-Republican speech, thereby tacitly confessing that his prayer of the previous day had not been granted. He told the Prohibition Convention that he wanted to "hoe up things"; that he was afraid the Republican carcass would rot and he catch a fever; that he didn't see any sense in dissolving the "pearl of his vote in the vinegar of a Republican nomination," and that the Republican party was "doomed." Finally he said he was willing to pray for anybody, even for the Democratic party. Mr. Gifford's generosity is equalled only by the spiritual simplicity and elegance of his speech; but he impairs the demand for his own services as a prayer-gauge in politics by admitting so freely that his petitions have no effect.

Mr. Leon Abbett, the Democratic candidate for Governor of New Jersey, has accepted the nomination with a few informal but incisive remarks, which are calculated to arouse great enthusiasm among his followers. He declares that he shall know no faction in his canvass; that every man who works for his election will be to him a Democrat, and that after his election the "Democrats that will be rewarded will be the ones who do the work of the campaign." That puts the candidate squarely in line with the platform upon which he stands, which denounces the "sham methods" of the Civil-Service Commission, and favors a "deep-reaching" reform. It is a deep-reaching reform which Democrats everywhere are yearning for. Different names have been given for it, but the main idea is the same in all. Governor Butler's definition is the comprehensive one that the "Government belongs to its friends." Senator Thurman described the reform as "taking the boys in out of the cold and warming their toes." Mr. Abbett discriminates a little and favors reward for the "workers" only. The *Sun* sustains the general position of the party handsomely when it says that the "first step toward a reform of the civil service is to turn the rascals out—the Republican party must go." The old name for this kind of reform used to be a "clean sweep."

The efforts of Governor Hamilton to induce his Democratic followers in Maryland to join him in turning their own rascals out have not been successful. A few weeks ago the Governor showed in a public letter that his party had been committing gross abuses in the administration of the State's affairs, had stolen large sums of money from the treasury, and had increased the public expenditures by unnecessary additions to the lists of State employees. None of his statements have been controverted, or even disputed. The party has "ignored" them. Its delegates met in Convention last week, nominated a new candidate for Governor, and resolved that the election this year was most "momentous" because of its effect upon the national contest of next year. An attempt to have an endorsement of Governor Hamilton's course incorporated in the platform received only ten votes, but the whole Convention voted enthusiastically in favor of a scathing denunciation of Republican fraud and corruption in national affairs. It seems to be evident from this, that in the eyes of the Maryland Democrats the Republican rascals are the only ones who ought to "go."

The distrustful, do-nothing attitude of capital continues to be the most prominent feature of financial affairs, notwithstanding the fact that it is now settled that we shall have at least good average crops of all kinds; that trade prospects, both domestic and foreign, are at least fair; that railroad earnings are good, and that the industry of mills, factories, and mines is increasing a little. More money lies idle in the banks than has ever been known to do so before at this season of the year. It is offered freely for loan on collateral security at unusually low rates of interest, but it is not loaned freely in any other way. The expansion of the railway system of the United States in the last few years, and the completion within the past few months of three new lines to the Pacific coast, and as many more new trunk lines between New York and Chicago, has created a disposition to wait and see how nearly the growth of the country has justified such an increase of transportation facilities, before investing in the securities that represent the means of transportation. The result of all this is that prices of railway securities generally are lower. The continued redemption of Government bonds temporarily puts more and more funds out of employment in that line, but they do

not seem to find new employment in other lines. On the other hand, the redemption of bonds has now reached a point where it must soon begin to affect the volume of the currency, as the national banks will shortly begin to surrender their circulation with the further calling in of bonds. There have been some small imports of gold in the last week (2,500,000 francs from Paris), but the rates for sterling exchange are still above the specie-importing point, and as our exports are less than last year at this time, and as European capital is not buying any American railway securities at the present moment, there is no immediate prospect of imports of specie to any considerable extent.

The satisfactory condition of general trade and the rickety condition of the stock market continue to show the same contrast upon which we commented a short time ago. The explanation may probably be found in the fact that railway building has advanced in the past two years in a higher ratio than agricultural production. This is shown very clearly in an article in the *Railroad Gazette* of September 21, and is confirmed, if confirmation were needed, by the recent remarks of Commissioner Fink to the Senate Committee on Labor and Education. The increase of acreage brought under cultivation has been about 2 per cent. yearly since 1879. The increase of population has been about the same, while the increase of railway mileage has been about 9 per cent. yearly. These facts are sufficient to account for the otherwise surprising fact that the general business of the country is in a fairly prosperous state, while the stock market, which deals chiefly with railway properties, is in a depressed and feverish condition.

Mr. Erastus D. Goodwin, a Connecticut farmer, gave the Senatorial Labor and Education Committee on Thursday some of the soundest information which they have come across during their investigation. Mr. Goodwin evidently belongs to that estimable class of New England citizens who are honorably known among their townsmen as being "hard-headed." He told the Committee that the Government should not interfere with labor and trade, or meddle with educational systems; that a healthy competition was necessary to the development of resources; that under existing laws this country was not permitted to compete with foreign nations in the markets of the world as she was fully able to do; that her ability to produce was restricted by restricting the markets for her products; that if competition in trade with other nations could be secured, the wages of workingmen would not be lowered, but that on the contrary their compensation would increase with the general growth of prosperity; that so long as a high protective tariff exists, the American laborer will be at a disadvantage; that protection fosters monopolies of every kind; that it taxes all industries for the sake of enabling a few to make money; and that the agricultural interests are obliged to bear the heaviest burdens, receiving nothing in return. If heretical views of this kind are percolating through the minds of the rural voters of New England concerning the blessings of a protective tariff, there is no telling what may happen.

The *Herald* makes the very sensible suggestion that the Senate Labor Committee should "move on," and give the other cities of the Union a chance. We shall be very sorry to lose it, for its researches into the relations between labor and capital have been far more entertaining than any similar investigation that we can remember, and it has converted what promised to be a dull statistical inquiry into a political and economical variety show, in which all the star performers of the city have had an opportunity of giving specimens of their talent, and a good many new ones, of whom the public might otherwise have remained in entire ignorance, have made their first appearance. These have compared very creditably with such old favorites as Mr. Swinton and Mr. Thurber, and the season has, as a whole, given a gratifying proof that the resources of the country in this field are inexhaustible. But Mr. Blair ought to give Boston and other cities a chance, too. He must have a few dates still unfilled.

The *Tribune* is disturbed by the signs of a decline in the profits of cotton-spinning in England under the operation of free trade, for although the business has increased enormously in the past twenty years, the profit on each yard of cloth manufactured has fallen to a dangerously low point. We believe that this is true, and that the same result has been witnessed in America, where free trade has not been introduced as a factor to depress the profits of the manufacturers. The "tendency of profits to a minimum," as the world grows older, is a fact long since recognized by writers on political economy, and one which is confined to no country and to no industrial system. Recent auction sales of domestic dry goods in this city show that profits have not only been reduced to a minimum in certain lines of manufacture, but several degrees below zero. If English weavers are making no higher rate of profits than our blanket manufacturers, their condition must be pitiable indeed.

Governor Thompson, of South Carolina, whose independence in resisting the pressure of office-seekers and their friends we commented upon last January, has recently shown himself a reformer in another direction. His private secretary and the Secretary of State had lately a quarrel, which led to blows, about an accusation made by the latter concerning a Mr. Gonzales, a friend of the former. The Governor, apprehending a serious difficulty between Gonzales and the Secretary of State when the full account of the altercation should become known, immediately endeavored to pledge the two to an observance of the peace. Mr. Gonzales, refusing to promise that he would "pursue the matter no further," was promptly put under bond by a trial justice upon the application of the Governor. At the hearing of the case it appeared that Governor Thompson had no knowledge of an impending difficulty. He had only heard that it was the intention of Gonzales to denounce the Secretary of State for his offensive language, and he believed, from his "knowledge of both of them," that a serious breach of the peace would be the result. We do not know of a more simple and effectual mode of diminishing the number of homicides in the Southern States than that employed by Governor Thompson. In a community where the giving of the lie, or the using of any offensive language to another, is followed generally by a breach of the peace, the party denouncing and the party denounced should be at once put under bond before they have had an opportunity to get at each other and cast gloom over the neighborhood. To this end we suggest the establishment in the South of societies for the prevention of homicide whose members shall on all similar occasions act as Governor Thompson has just done. At present, in the South (we quote from the Charleston *News and Courier*), "the average citizen does not consider it his business to prevent a personal encounter, and will no more interfere with it or impede it than he would in the case of a dog in the gutter. The common feeling is, that each one must look to his own strength and skill for redress and protection."

The investigation of the frauds in the Water Bureau has been completed, and the total misappropriation is placed at $26,000. Of this amount the city will lose at most not more than $6,000, and possibly much less than that. The remaining $20,000 or more will be paid into the treasury by the consumers who were either sharers in the frauds or the innocent victims of them. The "ring" had two methods of working. The most prolific one was to send an agent to a large water consumer and offer to reduce his bill a third, or even a half, if he would pay it to a person outside the Department. The money collected in this way was nearly all stolen, and the consumers who made this robbery possible will have to make good the city's loss now. Some of them profess to have been innocent of any fraudulent intent, but many of them attempt no explanation, but promptly pay over the amount demanded. In this way $8,000 has already been paid in, and the other $12,000 will soon follow. The consumers who consented to pay the reduced bills are said to represent nearly all kinds of business, and some of them are said to have been entirely innocent of intent to defraud. If so, they must suffer the penalty which excessive innocence is bound to pay sooner or later. The tax bills of the Water Bureau state expressly that no money must be paid to any one outside the office of the Bureau, and this injunction appears to have been sufficiently well understood to prevent consumers from paying their full taxes to any "ring" agent. It was only when the agent appeared with an offer of reduction that the consumers permitted themselves to forget the injunction. The second method was limited in its operation. It could only be practised in cases where a consumer had two or more establishments and used more than one meter. In such cases separate bills were made out for each meter, and if the consumer sent in payment a single check for all amounts, it was the practice of the ring clerks to give him credit in only one place on the books, and appropriate the difference, though sending

him a receipt for the full amount. In such cases the consumer was in no way involved in the theft, and the loss will fall upon the city. Commissioner Thompson's course in investigating these frauds has been a great irritation to some of the newspapers, but it has been completely vindicated by its results.

Mr. Merritt, our Consul-General in London, has sent a report to the State Department on the great "Bradford Estate," amounting to $100,000,000, lying in the vaults of the Bank of England. This sum was deposited in the Bank by Mr. Bradford, the first Governor of Plymouth Colony, a couple of hundred years ago, subject to check, whether for the purpose of using it for speculation in stocks or some other object, is not now known. Mr. Merritt asked Mr. S. O. Gray, the chief accountant of the bank, about it, and Mr. Gray, of course, denied all knowledge of any such money. He says: "There is no unclaimed stock or money recorded in the books of the bank in the name of Governor William Bradford, nor is there, so far as I am aware, any foundation for the assertion that there is." The foundation for the assertion is that Governor Bradford left heirs behind him who have grown into a numerous family, and they want the money. They should, however, not be at all discouraged by Mr. Gray's disclaimer. The Bank never admits the existence of deposits of this character.

The monthly reports of the municipal laboratory which analyzes "claret" in Paris are, it is said, attracting the unfavorable notice of the wholesale wine merchants, and an attempt is to be made to suppress them. A curious illustration of the condition of wine manufacture in France is furnished by the fact that dealers are flooded with prospectuses, circulars, and advertisements, puffing up the different varieties of powders and liquids used in the artificial coloring of wine. Some claret venders think well of "Roussillon Concentrated," others of "Lynoline," others of "Bordelaise Colorant." The widespread publicity given to such facts ought to affect the market in the course of time. The idea that the wholesale dealers will meet this difficulty by getting the laboratory reports suppressed, comes from Mr. Wilson, our Consul at Nantes.

The French press has been thrown into an unusual excitement by an editorial article in Katkoff's *Moskovskiya Viedomosti*, the leading journal of the old Russian capital. Though far from being an exponent of public opinion in the Empire of the Czar, this journal now more than ever reflects the views of the innermost Imperial circle. Katkoff became the idol of Russian nationalists when, on occasion of the Polish insurrection of 1863, he dethroned Hertzen, the idol of the cosmopolitan radicals, and proclaimed a crusade against the insurgents. He has since become more and more reactionary, and has lost prestige among the enlightened classes, but he is known to be the oracle of the Minister of the Interior, Tolstoi, and his friends, and through them a kind of political mentor to Alexander III. He has of late assumed an intensely hostile tone toward the French republic, in face of the French sympathies of the entire nation, and he now speaks of a Franco-Russian alliance as an absurd supposition. He taunts France with pusillanimity, and her Government with fickleness and impotence. What Power, he asks, would seek an alliance that is not certain to last for a day? And why should Russia seek such an alliance? What are Alsace-Lorraine and French *revanche* to her? France was formerly always an enemy of Russia, Germany has been her constant ally. The interests of Germany and Russia are identical.

What makes this language the more galling to the French is the circumstance that the St. Petersburg *Viedomosti*, a more direct organ of the Czar's present Government, faithfully re-echoes these anti-French sentiments of the powerful Moscow journalist. Its tone shows clearly that the attack on the French Government is, in reality, aimed at its republican form, which not only is essentially distasteful to the ruling men at the Russian court, but, through the frequent change of cabinets and policies, and the ill-considered military adventures resulting from it, renders a stable and reliable Continental diplomacy impossible. The foreign statesmanship of St. Petersburg is evidently disgusted with France's exploits in Tunis, in Madagascar, in Tonquin, while not daring to uphold her interests in Egypt, or to lift a finger against Austria—not to speak of Germany—and letting all Southern Europe drift into the equally anti-French and anti-Russian alliance framed by Bismarck. The French journals, and conspicuously among them the *Parlement*, retort sharply, attributing the offensive effusions to Legitimism wounded by the death of the Comte de Chambord, and twitting the pro-German political guides of Russia with her growing isolation in the east of Europe and the desertion of Servia and Rumania. The controversy must be pleasant reading in Berlin.

"General" Booth, the Commander-in-Chief of the Salvation Army, is waging the war against sin in London under peculiar conditions. About a year ago the Army acquired a seventeen years' lease of the Eagle Tavern, which had attached a theatre, music hall, and grounds. It was dedicated to its new uses with a great demonstration, and General Booth declared that although he was obliged by the terms of his lease to take out a yearly license, no intoxicating liquors should be sold at the Eagle while he had control. The theatre and music hall were accordingly converted into places of public worship, and an inscription was hung upon the front of the building announcing that it was devoted to the work of salvation. Recently a suit was begun for possession of the property, and was decided against the Army. An appeal was sought, but the Court ruled that appeal could only be granted on condition that the tavern revert to its former uses—that is, that intoxicating liquors should be sold there under the terms of the lease. Rather than lose his property, the General reopened the bar, took down the salvation inscription from the front of the tavern, and put out a sign inscribed: "William Booth, licensed to sell by retail intoxicating liquor, to be consumed either on or off the premises." This will be continued until the appeal is decided. While the Army is conducting services in the theatre and music hall, the bar will be doing a brisk business in the other end of the building. One would think that the effect of complicated missionary work of this sort would be confusing to the mind of the sinner. For the sake of retaining possession of some purely temporal riches, the General is engaging in a business which he believes to be immoral and wicked. We are not able to understand by what process of reasoning he is able to do this—but then few people ever have been able to comprehend fully the scope of much of the Salvation Army's mission.

An important change has taken place in the political régime of Bulgaria. Prince Alexander has returned to constitutional ways—as they were observed before his *coup d'état* of 1881; the ministerial Government of the Russian army officers, General Soboleff and Baron Kaulbars, has come to an end; and M. Zankoff, the lately exiled leader of the Bulgarian Liberals, is again at the head of a national Cabinet. The general drift of the telegraphic news from Sophia, however, has been rather obscure during the last few weeks. First there came the announcement that Prince Alexander, in order to insure a stable condition of affairs, had resolved on appointing a commission for the framing of a new constitution, to be laid before a special National Assembly. This "manifesto" was immediately after explained as having been extorted from the Prince by the Russian Envoy, M. Yonin, who threatened an immediate open rupture on the part of Russia if he did not consent to the continuance of Soboleff and Kaulbars's rule. Then we heard of a conspiracy discovered in the Bulgarian capital against Soboleff and Kaulbars, and baffled by arrests. The opening of the Bulgarian Assembly by Prince Alexander, on September 16, was next reported. This seemed to refer to the special national gathering which was to approve of a new constitution. Finally, we are informed that the Prince, in answer to the address of the Assembly, has declared his readiness to reëstablish the Constitution of Tirnova, which he arbitrarily set aside in 1881, and that, dismissing the Soboleff-Kaulbars Cabinet, he has intrusted M. Zankoff with the formation of a new ministry. This termination is the result of long agitation against the Russian officers, of their breach with their Conservative Bulgarian fellow-ministers, and of a compromise lately entered into by Zankoff on his return from exile with the chief of the Conservatives, Natchevitch. But what, in the light of information obtained previously to the late telegraphic reports, requires further explanation is, whether the "Constitution of Tirnova" means the old charter of 1879 pure and simple or modified in accordance with a new draft, and whether Zankoff's new Cabinet is to be an unalloyed Liberal or a coalition ministry in which there is room for Natchevitch and his friends, or even—as was recently foreshadowed—for the Russians displaced from the headship of the Government.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

WEDNESDAY, September 19, to TUESDAY, September 25, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE New York Republican State Convention met at Richfield Springs on Wednesday noon. Senator Lapham was elected temporary Chairman and made an effective address. Senator Miller, as permanent Chairman, spoke at length of the necessity for a more liberal organization of the Republicans of the State. The following nominations were made: For Secretary of State, Joseph B. Carr; for Comptroller, Ira Davenport; for Attorney-General, Leslie W. Russell; for State Engineer and Surveyor, Silas Seymour; for State Treasurer, Pliny T. Sexton. This is the old ticket, with the exception of the last-named candidate. The platform approves of President Arthur's Administration and of the successful inauguration of civil-service reform; favors a tariff for revenue and protection of American producers; asks for a revision of the primaries, a check to monopolies, and an equalization of taxes; approves the plan of party reorganization in the city of New York, and recommends that it be persisted in, to the end that it may embrace all Republicans in the city on equal terms and feeling; and asserts belief in the wisdom of the people in deciding all questions pertaining to the public welfare, and readines to accede to the desire of a large body of our citizens to submit to the voters of the State a constitutional amendment in regard to the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors. John F. Smyth and Thomas C. Platt, Stalwarts, were not reëlected members of the State Committee.

There was a bolt on Monday in the Republican Senatorial Convention of the Twenty-first New York District. Senator F. E. Lansing was nominated by the regular delegates. Some Stalwarts nominated Manister Worts, of Oswego.

The Massachusetts Republican State Convention, which met in Boston on Wednesday, was considered the finest body of Republicans which has met there in recent years. It contained 1,291 delegates. Chairman Lodge, of the State Committee, called the Convention to order and made a speech which was received with enthusiasm. His allusions to Butler called out a quick response. Colonel Codman, as President of the Convention, made an address in which he emphasized the achievements of civil-service reform. Colonel Codman's long review of the Tewksbury case and his scathing attack on Governor Butler for his course were interrupted so many times, and in such a spirit, that it was evident the Republicans do not fear the Tewksbury issue. An informal ballot resulted as follows: George D. Robinson, of Chicopee, 996; Charles Francis Adams, jr., of Quincy, 117; George A. Bruce, of Somerville, 35; Thomas Talbot, of Billerica, 6; all others scattering in ones and twos. The announcement of the informal ballot was received with applause, and Charles Francis Adams, jr., was greeted with shouts as he rose to move to make the ballot formal, and that Robinson be nominated by acclamation. He made a vigorous speech against Butler, and then his motion was carried unanimously. Mr. Robinson was brought in and made a speech. Other State officers were nominated.

On Thursday the Massachusetts Prohibition State Convention met in Boston, and nominated Charles Almy for Governor.

The Massachusetts Greenback State Convention met on Tuesday. The temporary Chairman made a short address eulogizing General Butler, whom the Convention then nominated for Governor.

The Democratic State Convention of Maryland met at noon on Wednesday in Baltimore. It was under the control of the old ring. Robert M. McLane, of Baltimore, was nominated for Governor. The platform demands "that national taxation, in all its forms, shall be limited to such amounts as are necessary for the economical administration of the Government, for the payment of interest upon the public debt, and for the redemption in each year of a fixed and reasonable proportion of that debt."

The Colored Men's Convention held its opening session at Louisville, Ky., on Monday afternoon. Twenty-seven States were represented by about 300 delegates. The meeting was very disorderly during organization. Fred Douglass was proposed for temporary Chairman, but his name was withdrawn after a vigorous speech against him. Mr. Green, of Louisiana, was elected to the place. Mr. Douglass was also a candidate for permanent Chairman. He was severely arraigned by W. H. Young, of Tennessee, for his declaration in favor of Ben Butler for President. He was elected, however, after a bitter contest of eight hours' duration. On Thursday morning a very large audience assembled to hear his inaugural address. In the course of it he said: "This stamping out of the black Republicans of the South has been done in the face of the Republican party. This convention should implore Congress for the restoration of justice, and for the abolition of this most detestable state of affairs. Elevate one of our class to the Vice-Presidency or to a position in the Cabinet, and our equality shall have been established. We are not prepared for this as yet, but let us aspire to those positions which we can fill. We hold it self-evident that a nation made up of all varieties should not be governed by one class. Where there is a ruling class there is a subject class, and when the day comes when this nation is governed by one class it ceases to be a government of the people, for the people, and by the people." A motion that the address be adopted as that of the Convention led to serious opposition from those who hold that Mr. Douglass is leading a covert attack on the Republican party. The address was finally referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

The bureau officers of the Treasury have prepared estimates of the probable receipts for the year, together with the amounts required for pensions and expenses. They state that the surplus will warrant a call of $45,000,000 more of the 3 per cent. bonds. One reason why this call can be made is that the expenditures for pensions will fall about $40,000,000 below the estimates.

The Secretary of the Treasury has decided the questions, which have been pending before him for some time, in regard to duties on iron under the new tariff. The provision for charcoal iron is held to relate only to the iron which is otherwise dutiable under the paragraph in which it is found. The provision for rivet, screw, nail, and fence-wire rods is held to govern the rate of duty on these articles, notwithstanding the apparent provision elsewhere in the tariff for iron of the size and value named in the paragraph relating to rivet, screw, nail, and fence-wire rods.

Secretary Folger, in his annual report, will renew, it is asserted, his recommendation for the consolidation of many of the minor customs districts, the revenue from which is very much less than the expenditure.

Supervising-Architect Hill, on Monday, handed in his resignation to the Secretary of the Treasury. He has addressed a long letter to Secretary Folger in defence of his administration, and in answer to some of the findings of the Investigating Commission. He thinks the Committee reached conclusions which neither the law nor the evidence justifies, have made grave mistakes in the application of the evidence, have failed to appreciate the value of certain testimony, and, in their interpretation of the law relating to advertising, have given a construction to it in accordance neither with its letter nor with its spirit.

The requisitions upon the Post-office Department for the new two-cent stamps are so large that the contractors are unable to supply the demand, and the Department is reducing the amounts called for in the requisitions. It is believed that fully one-third of the post-offices will not have an adequate supply of stamps when the new law goes into operation on October 1.

The famous Niobrara Star-route has been discontinued at the instance of the Post-office Department on substantially the same grounds as those set forth last spring in the protest of Senator Van Wyck, of Nebraska.

Chief Engineer Melville has submitted plans to the Navy Department for an expedition for the relief of the Greely party this fall, volunteering to take charge of the expedition. Secretary Chandler has the plans under advisement. It is said that President Arthur has recently expressed himself as opposed to risking valuable lives in Arctic expeditions.

The lines of the Central and South American Telegraph Company were successfully opened on Friday between this city and Brazil. The first message sent was from President Arthur to the Emperor.

The report of the Auditor of the State of Ohio, which has just been completed, shows the collections under the Scott liquor-tax law to have been nearly $2,000,000, which has been distributed in localities where collected to the police, the poor, and to the general revenue and township funds.

Mayor Low, of Brooklyn, on Monday afternoon submitted to the heads of the Brooklyn departments and other city officers the civil service regulations prepared by him under the act passed at Albany last winter. The rules, which do not apply to elective officers or to the police, law, health, fire, or education departments, provide for the appointment by the Mayor of three examiners, two only being of the same political faith, the terms of the first to end January 31, 1884.

The fourth Provincial Council of the Roman Catholic Province of New York was opened with elaborate ceremonies at St. Patrick's Cathedral in this city on Sunday. Cardina McCloskey presided. The bishops of all the dioceses of the province and Catholic dignitaries of various ranks, theologians, representatives of the religious orders and educational institutions of the Church, priests, deacons, and sub-deacons took part. This is the first council of the province which has assembled since 1854. It was in secret session on Monday and Tuesday.

John A. Feeney, an Irishman, aged twenty-six, entered the British Consulate in this city on Tuesday, and fired two shots from his revolver in the outer room. He did not take any definite aim and no one was injured. A policeman soon arrested him. His appearance was sickly, and he said that he had recently been discharged from a hospital in Buffalo. He declared that he had come from Canada on purpose to kill the British Consul, who had been libelling his character. It was evident that he was of unsound mind.

F. Mayer & Co., dealers in woollen goods, of this city, made an assignment on Tuesday to H. Danzig, giving preferences to the amount of $810,513. The total liabilities will amount to about $1,600,000. The assignee says the assets are very large. Other failures in the cloth trade were announced later in the day, among them Levy Brothers & Co., who gave preferences for about $900,000. The total liabilities are about $1,500,000.

The passenger-rate war on tickets between Chicago and Louisville reduced the fare to $1 on Friday. The war was extended on Monday by a cut of rates to Indianapolis, Cincinnati, and other points, by the Louisville, New Albany and Chicago Railroad, in competition with the Panhandle.

By the wreck of a construction train on the West Shore Railroad, near Syracuse, on Wednesday, three men were killed and sixteen injured.

The Rev. Dr. Edwin F. Hatfield, for many years a prominent member of the Presbyterian Church in this city, died at his home in Summit, N. J., on Saturday morning, of heart disease. He was elected Moderator of the General Assembly at the last annual meeting.

William A. Norton, Senior Professor at the Sheffield Scientific School, Yale College, died on Friday at the age of seventy-three.

Calculations based upon observations of the comet recently discovered by Mr. Brooks have just been completed by Professor Boss, of the Dudley Observatory, Albany. They show that this comet is identical with the Pons comet of 1812, so long expected. It is rapidly increasing in brightness, and is now visible through low-power telescopes.

FOREIGN.

The American Minister to China has joined with the English representative in urging China to come to an understanding with France. The American mercantile marine has received an intimation from France that all vessels carrying war materials to Tonquin will be captured as prizes by the French navy. It was admitted in Paris on Thursday that General Bouet had been relieved of his command in Tonquin by the French Civil Commissioner Harmand. The General admitted that he had been unable to hold his position after the last fight. Marquis Tseng on Thursday telegraphed the French memorandum to Pekin. On Friday it was announced that the French had suffered another check in Tonquin, their Yellow Flag allies having been defeated near Hai-Phong. On Monday it was reported from Paris that the reply of the Government of China to the memorandum of the proposals by the French Government had just been received. It was said that the response favors the theory of a division of the neutral zone of Tonquin. The report was denied by Reuter's Company on Monday evening.

A Calcutta despatch to the London *Times* asserts that the published account of the French outrages at Tamatave falls far short of the truth, and adds that when the English Consul, Mr. Pakenham, was dying, the French priests endeavored to force him to become a Catholic, and compelled him to kiss the crucifix. It is also reported that Missionary Shaw's residence was looted, and he was threatened with punishment by the French officers because he failed to remove the débris caused by the ransacking.

A despatch to the London *Daily News* from Vienna asserts that Russia is making extensive military preparations along the Austrian and German frontiers. Tenders have been asked for 36,000 military beds. All the railways have been ordered to have military cars in readiness. A list has been made of the private steamers in the Black Sea, and their captains have been ordered to prepare for the transportation of ammunition, troops, and provisions.

The London *Standard's* Berlin correspondent says that he is in a position to deny that the Emperor William and the Czar will hold a conference this year. The relations between Russia and Germany are excellent, and there is no necessity for such a meeting. The Paris *Diplomatic Gazette's* London correspondent says: "The Austro-German alliance is directed against Russia and France. In the event of a war between Germany and France, Austria is to maintain an armed neutrality. In the event of a war between Austria and Russia, Germany is to do likewise. If a third Power attacks Germany or Austria, the armed neutrality will be converted into active coöperation."

The *Narodnaya Volya*, the chief Nihilist organ, is being secretly printed in St. Petersburg. In a recent publication it reviews the work of Count Tolstoi, the Minister of the Interior, and says a continuance of a similar policy cannot be tolerated. "The days of Tolstoi, the hangman," it declares, "are numbered."

A conspiracy among Servian Radicals has been discovered. A quantity of dynamite and arms were found in the possession of Radical leaders at Pozega. The Ministry is awaiting the return of King Milan before taking any decisive step in view of the defeat of the Government at the recent elections.

While the troubles in Croatia are less vigorous, the agitation is spreading to Dalmatia. Proclamations have been distributed summoning Dalmatia to make common cause with Croatia.

The Emperor William, King Alfonso, the Prince of Wales, and the Dukes of Edinburgh and Connaught witnessed the races which took place at Homburg on Sunday. Emperor William drove to Erlenbach on Saturday morning, where he met the royal guests, and proceeded with them to the field to witness the military manœuvres. Twenty-five thousand men participated. On Monday the royal party witnessed more of the manœuvres.

It is asserted that the scheme of a customs' union between Belgium and Holland is about to be effected. Bismarck having approved the scheme, it is believed to be the first step toward absorbing Holland and Belgium in the German Zollverein.

It is authoritatively announced in London that Mr. Gladstone's visit to Copenhagen had no political significance.

The London *Times*, in tracing the antecedents of O'Donnell, the assassin of Carey, shows that he is forty-five years of age and a native of County Donegal, Ireland. He served in the American war, and lived in Philadelphia and on the Canadian border. He lost his money in silver mines and Fenian bonds. Last May he returned to Ireland and consorted with Irish-Americans in Londonderry. He was considered a strong Nationalist, but was opposed to the Invincibles. When Carey turned informer he denounced him, and declared that he would burn him by inches. He went to the Cape to seek work because he considered America "played out." He had no idea that Carey was on board the *Kinfauns Castle* when he embarked upon her, and had never seen the informer. Mrs. Carey and other witnesses of the murder of James Carey arrived at Plymouth, Eng., on Monday. The question of O'Donnell's defence has been referred to the U. S. Legation in London, which has consulted with the British Home Secretary in regard to the matter. The hearing of O'Donnell's case was begun in London on Tuesday.

Irish National League meetings were prohibited in the counties of Clare and Limerick on Sunday. An attempt was made to hold one of the advertised meetings, but the police interfered.

Sir Edward Sullivan has taken the oath of office as Lord Chancellor of Ireland, succeeding Mr. Hugh Law, who died recently.

A meeting of the joint committee of the cotton spinners, manufacturers, and operatives of north and northeast Lancashire met at Manchester, England, on Tuesday to confer upon the depressed condition of the cotton trade. The principal object of the conference was to arrange a scale of wages. The market for cotton goods is admitted to be suffering from overproduction. It was agreed that the operatives should resume work pending further negotiations.

The rocket factories connected with the Woolwich, England, Arsenal exploded on Monday, causing serious damage to a number of buildings and the loss of two lives.

It is reported that the British Government will again enter into negotiations with the Suez Canal Company relative to the proposed new canal.

It was reported from Rome on Monday that the negotiations between France and the Vatican had reached a satisfactory conclusion. The French Government has, it is said, restored the suppressed stipends to the Catholic clergy, and has given formal assurances of the most pacific intentions toward the Holy See.

The Vatican has authorized the Catholic Bishops who were expelled from Prussia to open negotiations with the Prussian Government for their return to their pastorates.

In a recent interview, Señor Castelar declared that he had always avoided opposing the patriotic desires of those who considered an alliance between the Bourbons and the Democracy of Spain possible. If the King resolved, during the coming crisis, on summoning the Dynastic Left and granting universal suffrage, and should the Constitution of 1869 be established, his course, he said, would be to merely continue the defence of the republic in Parliament and in the press. If, however, Señor Sagasta should continue in office, or a Conservative Cabinet be formed, he should consider that the moment had arrived for thinking of other means of action which at one time had appeared to be forever condemned. In this case, it would be necessary to establish harmony among the different factions of the Democracy.

The Egyptian Government is vigorously repressing the slave trade.

Advices from Professor Nordenskjöld say that his expedition started from Auleikisvik, Greenland, on September 4, and reached a distance of 360 kilometres inland, attaining a height of 7,000 feet above the level of the sea. This is the first time that human beings have penetrated so far into Greenland. The whole region is an ice desert, with no open water inland. Very valuable scientific data have been obtained.

Professor Nordenskjöld has also telegraphed the following to the Associated Press agent in London: "During my excursion on the inland ice Doctor Nathorst, with the steamer *Sofia*, in charge of Captain Nilsson, anchored on July 27 in a bay near Cape York, 76° 5′ north. The doctor was accompanied from Godhaven by an Eskimo interpreter named Hans Christian, who had met at Godhaven a party of fifteen Eskimos from Wolstenholm. They said that they had been informed by other natives that the commander of the American expedition, whose name they pronounced 'Kasleyh,' and another member of the party, which had arrived at a point north of Smith Sound, were dead, and that the rest of the expedition had returned on sledges to Littleton Island." The commander of the American expedition reported dead above is Lieutenant Greely.

A letter has been received in Stockholm, Sweden, from Lieutenant Hovgaard, commander of the *Dijmphna*, dated August 1, in which he says that if the vessel is not freed from the ice this year he intends to send home twelve men in September, and remain himself with the rest of the expedition another winter; but if the *Dijmphna* is freed from the ice he will complete a chart of the Kara Sea. In that case he hopes to reach Norway in October.

Antoine Ferdinand Joseph Plateau, the Belgian scientist, died on Wednesday at the age of eighty-two. His works are mainly on light, optics, and vision.

A terrible battle was fought before Miragoane, Hayti, during the week ending September 8, the Government troops sustaining a serious defeat. Jeremie is surrounded by a force of 3,000 men.

The crisis in Bulgaria was on Wednesday reported overcome for the present, a compromise having been effected whereby the Russian Minister continued in office, but refrained from interference with the internal politics of the country. On Thursday the resignation of the Cabinet was, however, announced. M. Zankoff has formed a new Liberal Ministry. Prince Alexander's position is declared to be unimpeachable. He has announced the restoration of the Tirnova Constitution.

A MACHINE JUBILEE.

THE Machine leaders had a delightful time at Richfield Springs on Wednesday week. We doubt if they were ever in a convention of any sort which gave them more genuine enjoyment. They had full control, and were able to enhance the pleasures of possession by generous displays of magnanimity, which were all the more gratifying to the givers because they cost nothing. The representatives of the Half-Breeds who caused such disaster last year by declining to vote the party ticket, were received with great effusion and given front seats. The temporary chairmanship was bestowed upon Senator Lapham, and the permanent chairmanship upon Senator Miller. Both men were rapturously applauded by the Machine delegates, and their laudable sentiments in favor of harmony and a more generous party policy were received with uproarious delight. The old ticket, which was nominated by a convention controlled by Half-Breeds in 1881, was renominated with a single change and without opposition, and a contesting Stalwart delegation was persuaded to withdraw before the Convention met, in order that the harmony might be perfect. While the few Half-Breeds present were basking in the innocent enjoyment of this reunion, the Machine managers were quietly at work strengthening their hold upon the party organization.

The thoroughness with which they did their work commands a certain admiration. They secured for themselves every substantial party advantage which it was possible to gain by the Convention, and they gave the Half-Breeds everything which was of no permanent value to anybody. The Half-Breeds had the speeches, which few persons will ever read, and they were given the ticket, whatever that may be worth. The Machine leaders have as their share an overwhelming majority in the State Committee, and absolute control of the organization in New York city. As there will be no State Convention next year, there can be no change in the State Committee till after the Presidential election. The additions made by the new apportionment give the Committee more power than ever, and it is the hope of the Stalwarts that this power will be sufficient to enable them to control the delegation to the next National Convention. At present they are not disposed to use that power in the interest of President Arthur's candidacy unless he is more "friendly" than he has been recently.

In regard to this city, the action of the Convention is precisely what the Machine wished it to be. The platform approves the plan of reorganization, and hopes "it will be persisted in, to the end that it shall embrace all Republicans in the city on equal terms and feeling." This generous but slightly vague expression of good wishes was subsequently supplemented by a resolution directing the Central Committee to carry out the plan of reorganization proposed by the Committee of Eighteen, "with such amendments as may be deemed advisable by said Committee." In other words, the city Machine is directed to reform and reorganize itself, so far as, in its own opinion, such regeneration is "deemed advisable." Judging from the observations of the friends of the Machine, that point has already been reached, for the *Tribune*, which has zealously defended the sincerity of Chairman O'Brien and his Stalwart associates, announced a day or two ago that "reorganization has been successfully accomplished."

Having secured all they desired for the present, the Machine managers closed their jubilee with a captivating promise of reform in the remote future. They allowed the delegates to express a belief that the party conventions should be "enlarged and liberalized," and to direct the State Committee to consider the question of the "reorganization of the party on a broader basis," and submit a plan to the next State Convention—in 1885. The delight of the Stalwart statesmen over that stroke of diplomacy must be boundless. After practically depriving the masses of the Republican voters of all voice in the choice of the men who are to nominate a Presidential candidate next year, the Machine coolly remarks to the same voters: "You come and see us in 1885, and we will talk over that little matter of putting the party on a broader basis." We doubt if the authors of this cheap stratagem are so feeble-minded as to believe that they are deceiving anybody. The fact is, that they do not care for Independent help in their work of this year and next. They have little interest in their State ticket this year; and in the delicate work of packing the delegation to the National Convention, the less outside help they have the better. They have simply snatched the party organization for their own private uses, and unless the party asserts itself and forms a new and representative organization of its own, they will do about as they please with it. The performances at Richfield ought to be sufficient to convince everybody of the absurdity of thinking that any substantial reform can be secured by the action of the Machine leaders.

MARRIED WOMEN'S RIGHTS.

THE English Court of Appeal has recently decided a case between husband and wife under the new Married Woman's Property Act which is not without interest in this country, as the question involved might easily arise under some of the similar statutes adopted by our States. The husband was married to a lady who had, as part of her separate estate, a house. In this for a time they lived together, but troubles arose which led him to take the somewhat unusual course of leaving his wife and setting up a separate establishment. With this possibly the wife might have been well enough satisfied; but what she did not relish was the annoying practice he soon began of coming back for little visits, after every one of which some new article of personal property was missed. The house was comprised in the marriage settlement, and the wife now took the ground that in the present state of the law her husband had no right to enter it unless she chose, and that she might direct her servants to say "Not at home" to him whenever he called. Knowing, however, that he would not himself take this view of the subject, she determined to apply to the courts for an order restraining him from calling.

The learned justice before whom the application came granted it, and his decision has now been confirmed by the Court of Appeal. It was urged on behalf of the husband that the effect of such an order would be to grant a judicial separation, which could only be done by the Divorce Court; but to this the learned judge replied that if the husband wished his wife to live with him, all he had to do was to provide another home for her, and, if she refused to live in it, then to sue for a restitution of conjugal rights—a remedy which would no doubt be complete.

In the Court of Appeal the judges were at first rather staggered at the notion of enjoining a husband from visiting his wife; and the Master of the Rolls warned his brethren that their decision might have the effect of "altering the whole social life of England." But as they found, on looking into the matter, that there was no help for it, they granted the order, scrupulously guarding themselves, however, against any misinterpretation of their decision by refusing to say what the general principle governing this class of cases is, or whether a wife has under all circumstances a right to turn her husband out of her house.

The number of cases in which a wife who has an independent domicile will desire to exclude her husband from it without getting a divorce, is not likely to be very great, and therefore the warning of the Master of the Rolls seems more solemn than it need have been. Still, can it be said that there is a necessary connection between the right of a married woman to the separate use of her own property and the exclusion of her husband from it? The object of all laws for the security of married women's property is that their husbands shall not make away with it. They simply make general and thorough the protection which used to be imperfectly secured by means of private trusts. But no one ever dreamt of those laws being used for the purpose of excluding either husband or wife from the joint enjoyment of the house which constitutes the legal domicile of the family. It will be seen—and this was probably one cause of the hesitation of the judges—that if a wife may make such a use of the Married Woman's Property Act in England, the husband may protect his individual property from her in the same way, for he is at least fully as much master of this as she can be mistress of any separate property settled upon her. There would be something very ludicrous about a husband asking for an injunction to restrain his wife from coming to see him in his own house; and such cases would no more be likely to arise than are those rare suits in which a husband asks for a divorce on the ground of cruelty, or that his wife may be bound over to keep the peace against him. Still, they *may* arise, and they do undoubtedly bring up the question, which the judges in this case seem to have ingeniously dodged, how far, if at all, the very extensive property rights which in England and the United States have been given to married women, affect the old legal theories of the

relation of husband and wife. It is certainly not going very far to maintain that they cannot ever be treated by the law as total strangers to one another. The home of one must be the home of the other, unless we are prepared to take the view that marriage has ceased to constitute a status at all, and that a man, his wife, and their children are merely so many individuals who happen to be accidentally living under the same roof. But this theory of the married state has not yet made its appearance in any legal works of authority on the subject, and it is a theory which has so little support in the actual facts of the relation that it is never likely to gain great favor among either wives or husbands. If it did it would certainly alter social life in many remarkable and novel ways.

POPULAR MURDERS.

O'DONNELL's disgust with the lack of financial support which the Irish people are giving him for murdering Carey is not at all surprising. Nothing has done more to give him an exaggerated idea of both the nature and importance of his deed than the conduct of the British authorities and the tone of the English papers. We pointed out at the time of the shooting that the papers were playing into the hands of the violent portion of the Irish agitators by treating O'Donnell's act as a sign of the power and discipline of the Irish secret societies. Our theory at that time was that O'Donnell was not the agent of the Invincibles or any other organization, but had killed Carey from sudden impulse upon discovering who he was. The act was one which many an impulsive Irishman would have committed under similar circumstances, and, instead of showing the perfection of the Irish secret organizations, merely gave a fresh illustration of what everybody knew before, that all Irishmen hate informers as the worst enemies of their country.

The explanations which O'Donnell himself has given sustain this theory completely. He was represented at first as saying that he had killed Carey in self-defence, but when he reached London and found that no money had been raised by the people of Ireland for his defence, his impulsiveness again got the better of him, and he blurted out the truth by speaking of his deed as the "most popular murder since the shooting of Constable Talbot." That he should place this estimate upon it was not unnatural in view of the curious flurry which the English press and authorities have exhibited about it. They have taken the ground that the whole Irish people were behind him and were making a hero of him. Instead of allowing him to be brought to England quietly, every movement which was made with him was announced, and the precise date of his arrival in London was published. Then extraordinary precautions were taken to guard against attempts by his countrymen to capture him, and he was borne to prison with a police and military escort as intricate and formidable as that which surrounds the Czar of Russia in his progress through the streets of St. Petersburg. When he was safely housed the English public was informed of the fact, and the announcement was made that there had been plans by Irish secret societies for his deliverance, but they had been baffled by the vigilance of the authorities.

That O'Donnell's act was popular among Irish people everywhere is not to be questioned. They were so rejoiced at having Carey killed that they overlooked the fact that in killing him O'Donnell was just as guilty of murder as he would have been had he shot an innocent man. Where the English authorities have erred, in our opinion, is in mistaking this perfectly natural feeling as a fresh indication of the implacable hostility of all Irishmen to everything pertaining to English rule, and in persistently treating O'Donnell's act as that of an organized conspiracy. Nobody ever had any sympathy for Carey, and Irishmen were not the only people who were glad when he was shot. In such cases popular sentiment, tacitly at least, sustains the conduct of the slayer. We had an illustration of it in this country when Sergeant Mason attempted to shoot Guiteau. That act was a gross breach of military discipline, and if it had succeeded would have been murder; yet so strong was popular sentiment in support of it that a great outcry was raised against the punishment which was justly decreed to Mason, and he was for a time lifted almost into heroism.

That there was nothing more formidable than this unorganized sentiment behind O'Donnell is shown in no way more clearly than by the failure which he complains of to raise money for his defence. No action whatever has been taken for that end by any Irish society either in Ireland or elsewhere. In this country the *Irish World* started a voluntary subscription fund a few weeks ago, and this now amounts to $6,040. But this proceeds from no organization, secret or otherwise. It is noticeable that, in its efforts to stimulate subscriptions, the *Irish World* calls attention to the precautions which were taken to protect O'Donnell in London as evidence of the fear which the British Government has of him. If O'Donnell had been brought back to London secretly, tried and executed without excitement and as expeditiously as possible, there would be very much less chance of the Irish nation making a hero of him than there is now.

BISMARCK'S COALITION.

IT has now become almost certain—the press of all Europe takes this view—that the late journeyings and meetings of princes and diplomatists signified something more than summer recreation and exchange of courtesies, or soundings available for a future day; that they were intended to effect, and did effect, a widening and strengthening of the alliance entered into by Germany and Austria-Hungary in 1879, and expanded into a triple covenant by the accession of Italy last year. It is no longer doubted that Prince Bismarck and Count Kálnoky (who walks faithfully in the footsteps of Count Andrássy) have succeeded in converting King Milan, of Servia, into a pronounced ally, in spite of the Russian leanings of his people; in persuading King Charles, of Rumania, and his minister, Joan Bratiano, that it is dangerous for their Romance Kingdom to yield to Slavic advances, baited with the prospect of annexations at the expense of Hungary; and in inducing Alfonso of Spain to offer coöperation against France in return for protection against her threatening Republicanism. Thus Russia has been deserted by the two Danubian states which she raised by her war of 1877-'8 from the condition of tributary principalities into that of independent kingdoms, and she can find but scanty comfort in the sincere gratitude of little Montenegro, and the wavering allegiance of semi-independent Bulgaria; while France, abandoned by both her kindred neighbors south of the Alps and the Pyrenees, is now perfectly isolated.

The question arises, What are all these efforts of diplomacy for? What is the object of this coalition, sanctioned or unsanctioned by written agreements, of almost all Central and Southern Europe? Is a war of conquest meditated by the man of "blood and iron" against Russia or France? The new allies have nothing to gain by such a war, and the provocation of the Slavic Empire to a desperate struggle would almost surely bring about the ruin of Rumania and the downfall of Milan's throne, while an invasion of the French Republic would rouse all the revolutionary passions of Spain and Italy, and kindle a conflagration of incalculable extent. Besides, there is no reason to assume that the Court of Berlin meditates fresh conquest. All the traditions of the House of Hohenzollern militate against such an assumption. The sword of Prussia—a conquering sword indeed—has uniformly rested for a long time after each annexation it achieved. After rapidly swallowing her prey Prussia has always wisely allowed herself sufficient time for digestion and assimilation. It was only for defence that Frederick the Great fought the second Silesian and the Seven Years' War after grasping Silesia in 1740. His second annexation, that of a portion of Poland, took place after the lapse of thirty years. Other portions of the same country were taken by his successor more than twenty years later. The wars with revolutionary France and Napoleon, though beginning with aggression, were defensive in their character. The annexation of half of Saxony, which crowned them in 1815, was followed by forty years of abstinence, and it was owing to the recklessness of Napoleon III. that Prussia's grand acquisitions of 1866 were so speedily followed by a triumphant war with his own country. Germany will probably first assimilate Alsace-Lorraine, and complete her own unification, before she attempts new expansion eastward or westward—unless forced to act differently by events more or less unforeseen.

On the other hand, does France or Russia, or do both combined, menace the peace of Europe with imminent war? By no means. France has—partly, perhaps, from fear of her own dangerous *velléités de revanche*—plunged into African and Asian expeditions which render her completely harmless on the side of the Rhine or the Alps; and Russia is still too much distracted and paralyzed by her internal revolutionary sores to think seriously of carrying the banner of Panslavism across the

Austrian or Rumanian border in the immediate future. The military dream of the Skobeleffs, Tcherniayeffs, and Gurkos requires time and a French alliance, which is now impossible, for its realization. It is true, telegraphic news of the latest date speaks of extensive Russian military preparations along the Austrian and German frontiers; of tenders asked for 36,000 military beds; of steamers prepared on the Black Sea for the transportation of ammunition, troops, and provisions; of two army corps distributed between the Vistula and the Bug. But a great deal of this is undoubtedly mythical. So far from secretly intriguing at Paris for a hostile combination against Germany, the Russian Government betrays, through the voice of its most trusted organs in Moscow and St. Petersburg, a hostile feeling toward the French Republic, which can only be accounted for by a contemptuous abandonment of all hope of an alliance with her.

The most plausible explanation of Bismarck's activity in drawing so many satellites into the sphere of his original Austro-German combination is that he is taking precautions against perturbations of the Continental order not now imminent, but likely, if unprevented, to proceed from the inordinate desire of France for revenge, and from Russia's fanatical belief in her "manifest destiny" as the Slavic ruler of all Eastern Europe. The coalition is to be purely defensive, but so powerful as to render any attempt to assail any one of its members an act of madness. It aims to anticipate such attempts, to stifle schemes dangerous to the peace of Europe in their incipiency, and to give a different direction to the passion for military achievements agitating the French and the Russians. Let France extend her Algerian and Tunisian borders, establish a protectorate over Madagascar, seize all Anam, and fight China; let Russia suppress Khiva and Bokhara, subdue Herat, and seize Corea—the coalition will look on with complacency, for such an expansion in Africa or Asia will only secure peace and Austro-German predominance in the centre and the peninsulas of Europe. What the precise stipulations are on which this immense peace structure is to rest, or whether there are any literally binding stipulations, the journalistic world has not yet ascertained. That, supported by it, Bismarck can, at a propitious moment, diplomatically concert, or even decree, a general disarmament in Europe, and may possibly do it, is a very pleasant perspective. On the other hand, it is certain that the peaceful character and tendency of his great diplomatic work will not prevent him, if he sees fit to do so, from pouncing upon Russian Poland, wresting a part of it, adding it to Austrian Silesia or giving it to the King of Saxony in exchange for his kingdom, and thus conquering by the sword a new guarantee of peace.

AMERICAN HUMOR.

THE recent announcement that Mr. Howells and Mark Twain were going to bring out a book on "American humor" has drawn from the *Tribune* the following criticism:

"We are inclined to think that the queer article which is popularly supposed to be 'American humor' has been exalted overmuch. It is often anything but humor; sometimes it is broad farce—the caper of the clown; and not seldom it is a coarse trifling with things which ought to be sacred—a trifling which impels laughter only by its unexpectedness rather than by any other amusing quality. Of this kind of wit Mark Twain has proved himself a master; and the report that he is engaged in writing a book on 'American Humor' is not surprising. That Mr. W. D. Howells is to be his colaborer in this work is rather startling information. The harnessing together of the dromedary and the mettled courser is not always a safe or pleasant experiment for the Arabian. But if the accomplished author of 'A Modern Instance' will devote himself to carefully cutting out of the MS. all that peculiar kind of merry-making which Mr. Clemens has been used to put forth as characteristically 'American,' the public will be gainers by the conjunction."

The comparison of Mark Twain to a dromedary in this curiously "spiked" team is a little singular, for the dromedary is the last animal of the whole menagerie that would suggest to most people the capers of the clown or a tendency to trifle coarsely with things that ought to be sacred; but whether or no Mark Twain is open to the charge of imitating the dromedary in these practices, granting the animal to be addicted to them, the paragraph itself seems an example of that humor which impels laughter by its unexpectedness. Of the fact, however, that the peculiar kind of American humor which the writer has in mind has been overdone, we think there can be no doubt.

If we go back a hundred years to the pioneer period of American development, we reach a time when American humor did not exist, or, what is the same thing, was not recognized as existing. Mrs. Trollope found it as scarce as Artemus Ward did monarchy in Canada; and Captain Basil Hall's travels show clearly enough why its germs were unrecognized, even where these had already sprouted. The American people of that day were a serious people, and jested with grave faces, and everybody who has given much attention to the subject of humor knows that those who do this run the risk of not being understood. This undoubtedly partly accounts for the curious fact that Captain Hall, when informed by one of his Yankee hosts, in reply to a question as to the amount of thunder and lightning to be met with in New Hampshire or Vermont—that considering the population there was a good deal—should have put the answer down as an illustration of the stupidity of the inhabitants. Partly, also, it must be admitted that there was something very local and American about this particular joke—a joke such as Captain Hall would not have encountered in France, or Germany, or Italy, or England at that day, and one, therefore, which it is only natural that he should have been unprepared to appreciate. For there is a great deal in the proper preparation for a joke, the "prosperity" of humor having long ago been observed not to be at the command of the producer. Then, too, one reason why there was a long delay about recognizing the existence of American humor was, that humor itself did not occupy the important place in the moral economy of the world that it does now. If we go back to the time of Lamb, we find him for a considerable period in possession of the whole field. He perhaps did not recognize the fact that the modern world, with the eager, feverish rush of its life, its nervousness, its irritability, its sudden turns and surprises of fortune, would need more laughter than the steady old world which it succeeded; for he cared in reality very little about the modern world. But he was the first great modern humorist, and such was the condition of the market in his day that he had a monopoly of what thousands now reap a harvest from. The condition of humor as he found it, its limited extent and shop-worn quality, may be inferred from the fact that he seriously declared—and was, for all we know, right in declaring—that the best joke down to his time was the Joe Miller first set afloat, if we remember right, by Bacon or Sir Thomas More, consisting in the inquiry addressed to a boy carrying a hare: Is that your own hare or a wig? And there has been a great deal of serious discussion among English writers on wit and humor, from Lamb's time down to our own, whether this is not really the most valuable jest in the language.

When it was once discovered that there was any American humor, attempts were made to analyze and classify it, and to distinguish it from other kinds, especially the English; but as nobody has ever succeeded very well in analyzing humor itself, or distinguishing it from wit, it is not very surprising that the attempt met with no great success. Mr. Lowell, whose judgment about such a matter is worth a great deal, has frequently maintained that the essence of American humor consists in exaggeration; but he has himself concentrated more native humor into the 'Biglow Papers' than is to be found in any other book we have, and yet no one would say that the peculiarity of that variety of it was exaggeration.

But the "American humor" which now goes by the name, and has attracted such world-wide notoriety, is not, properly speaking, literary humor at all. It has about the same relation to literature that the negro minstrels or Harrigan and Hart have to the drama. It was begun by Artemus Ward, and has been perpetuated by a long line of jesters, funny men, clowns, or whatever they may be called, who stand in somewhat the same relation to the public that the jesters of the pre-literary period did to the private employers in whose retinue they served. They say funny things, or serious things, or idiotic things, but say them in public for the benefit of the vast audience which reads the newspapers. It is newspaper humor, rather than American humor, and though the fashion began in this country, it might easily be adopted, one would think, in England, where it is liked so much. Artemus Ward and Josh Billings, we should say, represent it in its earlier and purer state, and now it is represented by a dozen paragraphers, whose jokes make us laugh very often for the same reason that the sight of a man chasing his hat in a high wind will always amuse the bystanders—a fact for the true explanation of which we should have to plunge deep into the recesses of the human heart.

"THE IRISH QUESTION."

DUBLIN, September 8.

By your papers just to hand, Lord Coleridge is reported to have said to an interviewer in New York: "When I left England the Irish question and the Irish people were in the usual condition—nothing seems to affect them or bring matters any nearer to adjustment." When a great and learned and, I presume, fair-minded man like Lord Coleridge thus expresses himself, it is plain that even he does not know what the "Irish question" is. The mass of Englishmen, and Americans much more, may therefore be excused if they find themselves in a somewhat similar difficulty. England, serene in the belief that every country under her rule must necessarily be well governed and ought to be happy, but for the inherent "cussedness" of its inhabitants, worried and distracted by Irish clamor, rouses herself from time to time to find that everything is not all right in this melancholy and benighted island. She then honestly, though much against her natural inclination, sets herself to consider what it is all about; seizes upon some practical grievance, evolves out of her own consciousness a remedy therefor, and, when this is settled to her complete satisfaction, congratulates herself that all is then done that can be done—that in a few years at the furthest Ireland will be singing "Rule Britannia," and will, like Scotland, have settled down in happy contentment. Time after time, if not always, it has been so. Turning over some old volumes of an English newspaper, the other day, I lighted upon the period of O'Connell's death (May, 1847). A "poem" reflected the tone of the leading article. O'Connell, it appeared, while a man perhaps of some ability and sincerity, was a demagogue who, leading the people from the paths of peaceful progress, plunged them into an abyss of vicious agitation.

> "We all were equal in the law's calm eye,
> The last link of coercion's penal chain
> Was burst; and men spoke not of days gone by,
> But yearned to crown with joy fair Erin's plain.
>
> "Oh, better thousand fold it would have been
> For him, his country, and the empire wide,
> To crown with industry the island green,
> Flinging with scorn fierce politics aside—
>
> "Calling the vast resources of the land
> Forth from their fatal lethargy, and giving
> To Albion's sympathy the heart and hand,
> All mutual wrongs forgetting and forgiving."

This doggerel, read in the light of the history of the past thirty-six years in Ireland, is not without a certain grim humor. It expressed the feelings of liberal Englishmen of 1847, as it would have done those of every year since, and as doubtless it expresses the feelings of Lord Coleridge at present. "Yes, the past has been very bad, *peccavimus;* but *now* we have done our duty; *now* we are fully alive to the necessities of the situation; we are *now* all equal in the law's calm eye—the last link of coercion's penal chain is burst—let us proceed to crown with joy fair Erin's plain." Our friends are very much astonished that we do not proceed to the proposed festival. They are not a little shocked and disgusted when, in a few years more, their contentment and self-satisfaction regarding their handiwork in the "island green" are again disturbed. They are anon, if not ever, doing what they think should settle the question. They have continually occasion to bewail the tortuous and unreasonable Irish character which will not acknowledge that the question is settled, and which still breaks out into troublesome clamor.

Meanwhile England persistently ignores the reiterated and declared convictions of the acknowledged leaders of Irish public opinion. They have never deceived her in the matter. They have always (gladly at heart, if perhaps often ungraciously in demeanor) accepted each reform which England has passed or helped them to pass; but they have never deceived her as to what they believed was fundamentally necessary for the contentment, happiness, and prosperity of Ireland. If Englishmen persist in claiming for their reforms a finality which Irishmen have never accorded to them, they have surely no ground for accusing Irish statesmen and reformers of disingenuousness. The burthen of such Irish public opinion from William III.'s time to the present has been the same. Molyneux and Swift and Lucas, Flood and Grattan, O'Connell and Butt and Parnell have spoken with the same voice. In 1698 Molyneux writes: "We have heard great outcries, and deservedly, on breaking the Edict of Nantes, and other stipulations; how far the breaking of our Constitution, which has been of 500 years' standing, exceeds that, I leave the world to judge." In 1880 Mr. Parnell says: "I would not have taken off my coat and gone to this work if I had not known that we were laying the foundation in this movement for the regeneration of our legislative independence." There has never been any deception in this respect. Statesmen after statesmen, one school of reformers after another, upon both sides of the Irish Sea, have believed or persuaded themselves that the reforms they agitated and achieved would content us. But still the prominent leaders of Irish opinion have maintained that there can be no peace until in some way the longing for Irish autonomy is satisfied; that no minor reforms of any kind will suffice—that that equality of rights and privileges which the conscience of modern statesmanship will demand, and which cannot long be withheld from Ireland, will, instead of settling the matter, be but a stronger lever in the hands of Ireland to attain what she desires and claims as her right. And the sentiments of these leaders of Irish public opinion have further been in complete accord in this respect—that it is not *separation* they desire, but an arrangement which, while quenching the Irish thirst for nationality, would lead to a real and permanent union between the countries—in Grattan's words, "United *quoad* nature—distinct *quoad* legislation." It is fair to argue that effectively ministering to the spirit of Irish nationality would tend toward separation. Count Cavour believed this, and so does the school of the London *Spectator*. I do not think it would. But it is unfair to say that men like O'Connell, Butt, and Parnell, who worked and are working for an autonomy which they believe would lead to real union (such a union as exists between your States), are working for separation (such as the Confederates fought for). Persistently and in the face of repeated denial to attribute this motive confuses the real issue. I do not blame the present exponents of Irish public opinion—men like Mr. Parnell and Mr. Davitt, whose views on the subject are well known to all who are intimate with them—if they have latterly given up all public definition of what they mean by Irish nationality. Mr. Parnell's early protestations were not believed. The protestations of their predecessors were never believed—until they were dead. If Parnell was struck off the bench of magistrates, Grattan was struck off the Privy Council. Men owe something to their own self-respect and pride. The support accorded to Emmet, and Smith O'Brien, and John Mitchel, and the Fenians, and the love with which their memory is cherished, is no argument to the contrary. The condition of affairs here has been so intolerable that men have welcomed any change, and will continue to venerate any men who disinterestedly have sought to effect a change.

With the exception of a short interval under Cromwell, Ireland had a separate Parliament, such as it was, from the day the Anglo-Normans established their power here until the year 1800. The right had seldom been more infringed and outraged than in the early part of the last century. Grattan accomplished the task for which his predecessors had striven. Irish independence was solemnly ratified by Great Britain. Its ruin was accomplished by the same statesmanship that sought to ruin your country. The arrangement between Great Britain and Ireland in 1780 would indeed have required modification, but the "Union" was an infamous transaction which will ever be regarded with shame by the Irish people, and against which the mass of them have never ceased to protest. That is the Irish question. "Nothing seems to affect them, or bring matters any nearer to adjustment," says Lord Coleridge. So it would be if you knocked down a man and deprived him of his liberty and fortune: the sixpences you doled out to him would never seem to affect him or bring matters any nearer to adjustment. So it would now be said regarding the South, if after the war the North, attempting to legislate for her paternally, had destroyed her legislatures and ruled autocratically by Northern politicians selected so as to be of different religion and feelings from the States they governed. Nothing you could do would seem to affect them or bring matters any nearer to adjustment. You would be in constant difficulty. You would be eternally worried, striving to find out what they wanted, and to manage for them. And the more you did for them the less they would be grateful or contented. In the history of the world there have perhaps been no more signal instances of "how to do" and "how not to do" than in your management of the Southern question and the British management of the Irish question. It affords a striking comment upon the flattery we Europeans are prone to lay to ourselves—that our trained and aristocratic statesmanship, drawn from the empyrean of long lineage, wide culture, and absence from sordid care, is more likely to be wise and effective in the management of men than the rough-and-tumble evolution of an "half-educated democracy."

Mankind will always be agitated by fresh needs, and "questions," and "causes." There will always be contending parties and interests. But it is impossible to believe that the dislocation and unrest existent in Ireland can permanently continue. Liberty cannot be permanently withheld from a people open to all the influences derived from the closest contact with the two freest and most reasonable nations in the world. The Irish question, then, is this: Will independence and contentment come through complete absorption in "England" or the "United Kingdom," as independence and contentment have come to Normandy and Provence through absorption into "France"; or must they come through becoming an autonomic "Ireland," a portion of the British Empire? That they can come only in the latter way, if they are not eventually to come through separation, is the conviction of Irish Nationalists.

This Irish question is too serious to be made light of, or to seek to conceal the difficulties attendant on its settlement. These difficulties have never been more clearly or more fairly put than by Professor Bryce, M. P., in the *Century* for last June. It cannot be too clearly borne in mind that fully one-fourth of the inhabitants of Ireland—the best educated and the most wealthy—are in favor of a continuance of the present arrangement. It was they who a century ago supported Grattan and manned the Volunteers. If they were brought round to con-

done and approve the act of Union, may not the other three-fourths come round in another century? But in weighing their possible attitude in the future it is well to bear in mind that they are attracted to England less by affection than by fear of their fellow-countrymen. A few years ago I met in a Swiss valley one of our fierce Irish Conservatives; and we spoke as men do abroad who at home only know each other by appearance. "Here at least we may speak the truth—no one can overhear us," he remarked; "don't you know very well we would be all Home Rulers but for fear of the Papists?" Will this fear of the "Papists" continue a permanent force? On the other hand, in so far as Ireland has any concentrated power outside her own limits it is on the side of the Nationalists. It *may* be necessary for the peace and happiness of the British Empire that a persistent effort should be made to crush out Irish aspirations. To us the task appears hopeless. Since the French Revolution it has not been possible permanently to crush national aspirations existent prior thereto. Great Britain underrates her power when she fears that with the army and navy in the hands of an Imperial Legislature in London anything a local Irish Parliament could do would lead to separation. Many Irishmen, it is true, now advocate separation. They have no rights which Englishmen are bound to respect. Were rights granted and aspirations respected, it would appear reasonable to expect that Ireland would soon respect and love a flag and power under which were guaranteed peace, security, and honor. D. B.

THE GOVERNMENT RAID ON THE HAMBURG DISTILLERS.

BERLIN, August 26.

A FEW days ago, on the 21st inst., the Reichstag was quite unexpectedly called to meet on the 29th inst. in extra session for the sole purpose of ratifying the new commercial treaty with Spain. Although this reason is not officially announced, there is no other public question to be settled, and it is expected that the Reichstag will transact its business in a few days.

Surprising as this announcement is, the previous history of the treaty and the hesitation about its transmission to the Reichstag are still more surprising. They form an interesting chapter of our political life, and are characteristic of the regard which is paid to the plainest paragraphs of the Constitution. The latter, in article 11, prescribes that all commercial, consular, and diplomatic treaties with foreign Powers, in order to become valid, must be submitted to and adopted by the Federal Council as well as by the Reichstag. Without their sanction such an act is only a draft which has no binding power whatever. What, now, did the Government do in the face of this clear provision?

The Reichstag had closed its session on June 12, and, after long and for some time fruitless negotiations, on July 12 a new treaty with Spain had finally been concluded. On the whole, it is favorable, and offers a great many advantages for different branches of trade. Besides, it is based on the principle of the most favored nation, and thus well adapted to further the commercial relations of both countries. Now our old treaty with Spain had expired on March 12, and it was the great desideratum of all parties concerned to have the new treaty carried into effect as soon as possible. The Government, however, allowed weeks to pass without doing anything. The official and officious press only engaged in a lively debate as to how the matter ought to be treated. The answer was very simple, and would have been given by convoking the Federal Council and the Reichstag and asking their sanction. Some of these papers, however, rather timidly objected to this mode of proceeding, as the coöperation of the Reichstag might lead to rather disagreeable consequences and imperil the whole treaty, while others were of the opinion that the Government might act independently of Parliamentary consent. The Liberal press unanimously protested against this violation of the Constitution, and argued that the Chancellor and his subordinates were pecuniarily responsible for any damage which might follow from their arbitrariness.

In the midst of these quarrels, viz., on August 9, the *Reichsanzeiger*, the official paper, published a note in which Herr Burchard, the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, said that on the strength of an agreement with Spain, a part of the tariff would temporarily take effect until the whole treaty was ratified. Thereupon a new and lively controversy sprung up on the bearing and importance of this agreement as well as on its constitutional validity. The press organs of all parties, including even the Conservatives and the Ultramontanes, declared this expedient unconstitutional, and differed only in the tone with which they urged their views. The Government, however, did not deign to answer any question which was put to it in this regard, and the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* (Bismarck's organ) even went so far as to declare that the understanding with Spain was a mere administrative measure, and an expedient with which the Reichstag had nothing to do. This sort of pleading created general indignation. Last week Minister Boetticher, a gentleman of great tact and peaceful disposition, returned to Berlin. To appease the excited feelings he insisted on the convocation of the Reichstag, and carried his point without even an objection from Bismarck.

There is not the least doubt that the Federal Council will ratify the treaty within twenty-four hours. Even the representative of Hamburg, well drilled in his obedience to Bismarck, will not offer any resistance. The Reichstag, also, would probably consent without long debating if the treaty, unobjectionable in itself, had not an appendix which is likely to raise a great many objections and give vent to bitter feelings. In all parliamentary bodies, the majority, for two reasons, do not care much to discuss a treaty with foreign Powers—firstly, because they have to adopt it unconditionally, and therefore only in an extreme emergency interfere with the work of the diplomatists; and secondly, because they do not know much about foreign matters. So it has been and is also with us; but in the present instance a discussion on the legality of the Government's actions, and especially on the appendix with which the treaty is saddled, may be confidently looked for. This memorandum says in substance that, on the strength of a declaration of the Spanish Plenipotentiary, only such alcohol shall be treated as of German origin and taxed accordingly (viz.: 17.35 pesetas per hectolitre) as has been manufactured in Germany from German spirits; while if distilled from foreign (*i. e.*, Russian) raw material, it will have to pay 20 pesetas, or a duty of about 25 cents more per hectolitre. And to this shocking proposition the German negotiator nodded assent.

It is the city of Hamburg whose export of alcohol is aimed at by this exception from the rule. The old Hanse-town has for years had a large and profitable spirit trade with Spain. Not belonging to the Zollverein, it imported Russian spirits duty free, and having rectified them exported the alcohol to Spain, where it is used in the preparation of the native wine. Hamburg has five large establishments with a considerable capital and all the modern improvements. It is the largest buyer of spirits in Germany, and has built up a flourishing trade which grows from year to year. The larger the purchase of Russian spirits, however, became, the better customer was Hamburg for German spirits. Thus it imported in six years (1877-1882) 993,886 hectolitres of Russian spirits, valued at 38,563,890 marks, and 2,578,370 hectolitres of the same German article, valued at 111,476,650 marks. But our rectifiers, considering their interest jeopardized by the Hamburg competition, finally succeeded in gaining over the distillers, of whom a majority belong to the landed aristocracy, and, by driving Russian spirits from the German market, imagined that they could get entirely rid of it. There is every reason to presume that the Government met them half way. Not daring openly to betray the interest of the largest seaport of the Continent, it suggested the maltreatment of Hamburg to the Spanish negotiator, who was not in the least concerned at having one part of Germany worse dealt with than the other.

One thing is certain: if the agrarians carry their point, the Hamburg spirit export will be doomed, for it will no longer be able to compete with other manufacturers and countries. The difference in price of rectified spirits ranges between 40 and 55 marks for 100 litres. The profits are small, and turn between ¼ and ½ per cent., as the article is cash, and in general a very safe one. The excess of 2.65 pesetas (=2.25 marks) which Hamburg will have to pay more than the rest of Germany, if the treaty with its appendix goes into operation, is consequently between 4 per cent. and 6 per cent., and too great to allow a paying business. Hamburg, therefore, will not be able to maintain its former supremacy in this article; its shipping interest will also suffer enormously, and its standing in the world's marts be affected.

Russian spirits will of course not be driven from the international market. Spain needs them and pays the highest prices for them. New rectifying distilleries will be built in Sweden and Norway or Belgium, with the Governments of which countries Spain also has a treaty according to which the duty on alcohol does not amount to more than 17.65 pesetas. The German distillers will lose an excellent customer, and the smaller the number of rectifiers becomes, the greater will be the competition of the distillers and the cheaper will they have to sell their product. Thus Hamburg will lose, the Prussian rectifiers will not gain, and only our neighbors, who are more shrewd than we are, will profit by our suicidal policy. † † †

BERLIN, September 8.

THIS time the extraordinary session of the Reichstag was a really short one. All its business was despatched in four days, viz., from August 29 to September 1. The apprehensions that it would be loaded with other bills besides the Spanish treaty were fortunately not realized. Besides this one, only a treaty with the Powers bordering on the German Sea, for the protection of the fisheries there, was passed without debate, as it was well drawn and met a long-felt necessity. The Spanish treaty was not as thoroughly discussed and investigated in the House as it would have been in a special committee to which the Liberals proposed to refer it, but were outvoted. Thus the chief objections and doubts remained unanswered. It was, for instance, believed that the appendix to the treaty which excepts the Hamburg spirit export from the benefit of the conventional tariff had not been laid before the Senate of that free city, which in

its ignorance assented to the treaty with the appendix. In the committee all sorts of inquiry would have sifted the matter; in the public session of the House itself the member of the Bundesrath for Hamburg, as well as the Imperial Secretary of Foreign Affairs, refused to answer. In short, the most important parts of the treaty are kept secret, while enough is known to prove the inefficiency and incapacity of our negotiators. It is apparent that Germany granted almost everything and gained little. If Philip II., at the height of his power, had condescended to conclude such a treaty with the then poor Marquis of Brandenburg, the latter would have obtained fairer terms. There is one consolation: the treaty will last only three years. But why then make it?—I hear you object. The pity is that every international treaty is considered as an indivisible whole, which must stand or fall as such. It therefore rarely occurs that such a treaty is rejected, as the improvements on the old state of things and new advantages usually counterbalance its drawbacks and shortcomings.

The sharpest and fiercest debate sprung up about the question of indemnity, which, in the opening imperial message, was asked for by the ministers. Instead, however, of submitting a bill incorporating the main features of their demand, they left it to the Reichstag to draw one, which they promised to accept if it suited their views. Thereupon a minority refused to act in the premises, and left the consequences of the failure of an indemnity bill to the Government; the majority, however, finally succeeded in a compromise which suited the ministers and also met the approval of the Bundesrath. Thus the letter of the Constitution at least was upheld, and I hope the ministers will draw a lesson for the future from the proceedings.

The Cabinet cut a very poor figure in the debate. Bismarck being absent, his subordinates did not know what to do, and in the last hour whispered together to concert some common action. They even resorted to the shallowest subterfuges—kept silent when they ought to have defended themselves, and, harassed on all sides, pleaded for politer treatment. It would have been accorded them from the beginning if they had not tried to pick quarrels where there was not the least reason for them. These ministers do not command the respect of the Reichstag, for they are too weak and too dependent upon their master and maker; they do not dare to utter a single word without his authorization. The Bundesrath is of about the same metal. The Spanish treaty, with its appendix, was passed by these so-called representatives of the single States in fifteen minutes. They are whipped in by one of Bismarck's lieutenants. On the whole, they seem to be anxious to imitate the example set them by the old Frankfort Bundestag, which marched at the dictates of Austria.

It is often asked, What will befall the course of public affairs when Bismarck is gone? He has no trusted colleague, no disciple upon whose shoulders his mantle could fall. The Chancellor is so dictatorial and autocratic that he does not even suffer a discussion of his plans; his subordinates have to execute them blindly. He receives no check from the Emperor. The old gentleman is daily sinking more in health, and has lost his memory for almost everything except his army and its generals. When his counsellors report to him, he soon falls asleep or confounds everything. He is daily driven out, taken to theatres, interviews, parades, and watering-places—in short, the comedy is kept up with apparent seriousness. Thus Bismarck has the field to himself, and does as he pleases.

On the 4th instant an election to the Reichstag took place in Torgau-Liebenwerda (a district of the Prussian province of Saxony), which has a long history of its own, and for months was awaited with general interest. In the late short session of the Reichstag the Liberals also brought in an interpellation of the Prussian Minister of the Interior on this subject, and thereby created as much merriment as anger. Being sure that the case will interest your readers, I will state it in a few words, especially as it is characteristic of the so-called constitutional views of our ministers. The election of the Conservative representative of said district on February 13 had been declared null and void, on the ground of gross frauds and irregularities. The Constitution prescribes that in such a case a new election must be ordered forthwith (*sofort*). Instead of complying with the law, Minister von Puttkamer ordered a new election to take place on July 4, viz., nearly five months after the nullification of the first election, yet even so did not hold it at the appointed date, postponing it again to the 4th inst. Thus the district had been from October, 1881, to February, 1883, without a legally-elected deputy, and nearly seven months without any at all. Puttkamer, when first asked by a deputy how he understood the word *forthwith*, coolly answered that in his eyes it meant a reasonable time, not too far off; but in the Reichstag he had to account for the reasons which on June 19 had led him arbitrarily to postpone the election from July 4 to September 4. Now, hear his justification. The summer had been so dry, he said, that he expected an early rye harvest in the beginning of July, and therefore thought it in the interest of the farmers, who constitute the majority of the district, not to worry them with political duties. Minister von Boetticher, on the contrary, excused himself on the plea that on June 19 (or a fortnight before the date fixed) he had apprehended large inundations in that district, which would ruin the hay crop, and for this reason had acquiesced in his colleague's resolution. Which motive was the true one—hay and inundations, or rye and drought? Both are worth as much as the further excuse of Herr von Puttkamer, who pleaded the appeal of the inhabitants of the district for the postponement of the election, and, when more closely interrogated, could not name a single one. The postponement was of course only ordered in the interest of the Conservative party, which in July would have had to dispense with the greater part of the agricultural vote. Now the election has taken place, but the Liberal candidate has triumphed by nearly a two-thirds' majority, while his opponents are laughed at for their vain efforts. In the recent debates a member proposed to give both ministers occupation as weather clerks in the Observatory, as they could make rain and sunshine at the same time. † † †

Correspondence.

THE DEGREE OF PH.D. IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your readers ought not to be blinded to the real point at issue between the "Memorial" of the Philological Association and the "Answer" to that memorial by the Regents of the University of Michigan. The letter of your correspondent "W.," while it appears to deny, really admits the whole question. In reference to the degree of Ph.D., the language of the "Memorial" is the following:

"In order to obtain it, the candidate, if a native, must first have pursued successfully the studies of the gymnasium or real-school; must have been in residence at a university for three years; must present a thesis, which at many universities is printed; and must pass an examination. In Germany the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is as much a professional degree as that in theology, law, or medicine. When this degree was first transferred to this country, the conditions under which it was conferred were rigidly maintained here. . . . *But meanwhile the practice has been established of giving the degrees honoris causa*, and this practice has widely increased."

This language can have but one meaning—namely, that the degree of Ph.D. is *not* conferred in Germany *honoris causa* on native Germans. The "Answer" to the "Memorial," per contra, shows that that degree *is* so conferred; that it is given so frequently that Mommsen raised a great outcry about it; that, as Dreyfus-Brisac shows, it was so conferred on eighteen persons in one year, even by the University of Bonn; that the custom of so conferring it is so general that the distinguished Sanscrit scholar, Professor Roth, speaks of it as "zu einer blosen Ehrensache geworden"; that since the decree of Dec. 12, 1866, the degree of Ph.D., so far from being a professional degree, has not been necessary for admission to any position in Prussia whatever; and, finally, that the theory and the practice of the University of Michigan are in strict accordance with the methods that prevail in Germany.

These positions can hardly be overthrown by a mere discussion of the circumstances under which any particular degrees at Bonn or elsewhere *were given*. To talk about *why* they were given is a singular way of proving that they were *not* given. The question is not *why*, but *whether*. X.

Ann Arbor, Sept. 22, 1883.

THE CRITICS OF MR. C. F. ADAMS, JR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A hot shot was thrown into the camp of the classicists in education when Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., delivered his Phi Beta Kappa oration at Harvard. The return fire has not been wanting in vigor, but among the big guns that have replied are some smooth-bores and blunderbusses, which have shot very wide of Mr. Adams's position. In spite of the pains which the speaker took to prevent misapprehension, many of his critics have failed to recognize the scope of the address, and have imputed to him views which he expressly disavowed. He did not come upon the platform to argue the case against the dead languages in the way in which it has so often been done; but being convinced that, as he expressed it, "not one man in ten thousand can contribute anything to this discussion in the way of more profound views or deeper insight," he came to tell what he had seen of the failure of the traditional education in modern life. In doing this he did not attempt to give the experience of a large number of men, nor of any in regard to whom his knowledge was incomplete or untrustworthy. Fault has been found with Mr. Adams for not considering in his address the recent Berlin University report. But why should he have done so? His task was the perfectly definite one of reporting the experience of those with whose history he was better acquainted than any one else. The critics might as well have taken to task the compiler of the Berlin report for not considering in it the experience of certain graduates of Harvard University. Moreover, the report was not written in Greek, neither in Latin, "in which learned tongues alone," says Mr. Adams, "I am theoretically at home." Unless he has added a knowledge of German to the defective outfit which his college gave him he is presumably unable to read the document, and the translation will not be published until several months later than the time appointed for him to speak.

Mr. Adams has been represented as ridiculing and underrating the classics, but nothing is further from the truth. In expressing his appreciation for real and thorough classical scholarship he goes to lengths to which many modernists would not follow him. To those who can study Greek and Latin with real interest he would give every opportunity, and would allow their acquisitions to pass current as a large part of a liberal education.

Further, he is told, with varying degrees of courtesy, that if he got little benefit from his college course it was because he shirked his work, and that he does not know anything about the effect of his study of the dead languages upon himself, anyway. Much that he has done, according to his own estimate in spite of the classics, he is assured was accomplished by their aid. This mode of refutation were better let alone. If a man of the clear insight and sound judgment of Mr. Adams fails utterly in estimating the effect of his own early training, pray how can we place any reliance on the statements of those who testify that the classics have been of great value to them? F. F.

NEW YORK, September 17.

THE VALUE OF TRANSLATING GREEK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last number a correspondent submits some statistics of the medals given for English essays in the Albany City High School, averaging in favor of the classical as compared with the English and Latin-English courses. Probably a similar average of statistics would be obtained from most similarly arranged schools. But the benefit obtained in the study of Greek, which seems to be the defining feature of a classical course, is not in the possession of the language itself, but in the power over language gained in the work of translation. The amount of Greek given in the classical course is probably in addition to the same amount of Latin as in the Latin-English course; so that this lingering of the mind among modes of expression, which is the chief feature in the work of translation, is greatest of all in the classical course. But, however highly we may regard elegance of expression, or however valuable a ready apprehension of the force of language may be in itself or as a leader to new fields of thought, it is not all the value, nor the highest value, of an education. A knowledge of the future work in the world of these medallists would be quite as important to us as the statistics given.

On the other hand, to suppose that knowledge about a language will give power of expression in that language, is to mix things that have little in common. The history of Anglo-Saxon grammar and word-changes, the knowledge of rhetorical rules of writing and of criticism, or the critical and historical knowledge of English literature, are no more to be regarded as giving skill in the use of English than the study of a manual of gymnastics can be looked upon as making a trained gymnast. Skill is the result of practice—inherited possibly. The snatches from various authors gained in a year's study of English literature may give to an imitative mind an impulse that results in marked power of expression—certainly a close reading, year after year, of the best models is likely to do this; but the value of this study at school is to incite to these years of reading, and not to make a skilful writer. The Greek, as an original language leaning back upon no other—the first exponent of the world's broader thinking—may have something of the flavor of wild game as compared with tamer food, incorporating in itself more of the fresh fields of sun and breeze than is elsewhere found. But, whatever a language possesses in itself, its value to the student undoubtedly comes from that persistent manipulation of words which the work of translation imposes, and which, to any but the dullest mind, must eventually give power of expression. That a proper management of our own tongue could be made to serve the same purpose is undoubtedly true, but the mode of doing this has not yet been discovered. Yet the Greeks did not gain their power over language through the work of translation. The real value of this power over language is not so much that it makes ready writers as ready readers in all fields of thought. In the work of translation the thought is furnished ready to hand. Perhaps, if the time ever comes when power over the English language can be taught through the medium of the English, we shall have fewer books where elegance of expression takes the place of substantial thought. Clearness of thought is apt to give clearness of expression—terseness, if not elegance—and, possibly, in an age of original thinking, a people would not have to learn its own tongue through the medium of another.

The best statistics on the point in discussion would be with regard to the kind and intrinsic value of the books written in mature life by pupils who have been trained in these different courses of study. H. E. A.

CLEVELAND, Sept. 17, 1883.

IMPROVED METHODS OF TEACHING THE CLASSICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For several weeks past I have been reading with keen interest communications on the subject of ancient *versus* modern languages in education, commencing with your own able article on Mr. Chas. Francis Adams, jr.'s Phi Beta Kappa oration last June. As one of your correspondents alluded, in your issue of September 6, to my reply to Mr. Adams, in terms of approval, and as several writers here seem to have understood me to vindicate the study of Greek *mainly* as a means of understanding scientific terms formed from that language, I should be glad to be allowed an opportunity of stating that on many other occasions I had endeavored to show the great value of even a moderate knowledge of that language, when soundly and agreeably taught, in preparing the mind for the study of all languages and in sharpening and developing logical thought. A very large number of pupils educated by me during nearly thirty years will bear testimony to the fact that I am no bigoted upholder of classical education as adverse to English and scientific. On the contrary, I have always advocated sound common-sense instruction in our own language as the best and most proper basis of all education for English-speaking youth. But, as regards Greek, and Latin also, much of the dislike and dread with which they have been regarded has arisen from many schools and teachers still adhering to the dry, hard, and unattractive methods in which they were taught thirty or forty years ago. It is well known I am no advocate for empirical or superficial teaching; on the contrary, I agree with Mr. Adams that the great changes which have been wrought by discoveries and inventions, even in the last quarter of a century, demand corresponding changes and improvements in modes and means of education also—not, however, I venture to think, exactly in the line proposed by him. Business men, merchants, and professional men have had to conform to, and put themselves and their work in accord with, the energy and practical usefulness demanded by the new order of things. Teachers of every class must do the same, if they are to hold their proper place in public estimation.

The liberal support given in this country, both publicly and privately, to education ought to, and I presume does, secure an ample supply of really good teachers in every department. Taking this for granted, I maintain that, while a large and accurate knowledge of Greek and Latin cannot be gained without considerable time and labor, a smaller but very valuable knowledge can be given in schools, not only without neglecting English education and instruction in modern languages, but with great help and benefit to the study of these.

It is acknowledged by men better acquainted than I am with the school systems of the country that many subjects to which much time is now given might well be postponed, and others taught in a much simpler, pleasanter, and more effective way, as, for example, "English grammar," which is in many schools taught with great labor to pupils and teachers, and with very unsatisfactory results. The speaking and writing of good English should be taught in a much more natural and effective way, and could be if grammatical rules and analysis were deferred to a time when the mind was more matured for understanding them.

The educational experiments made in Germany, and alluded to by yourself, have shown the value of Greek and Latin training as fundamental and auxiliary to that of science; and certainly Latin forms the truest and soundest base for all the Romance languages—French, Italian, Spanish. This last is likely to be very soon the most important to young Americans, and one who has become a fair Latin scholar can acquire it with ease and pleasure in six months.—I am, sir, yours obediently, E. R. HUMPHREYS.

BOSTON, Sept. 23, 1883.

THE SUPPRESSION OF CRIMINAL LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The daily papers report that an agent of one of the prominent illustrated "police" newspapers published in New York has been sentenced by the authorities of the State of Georgia to several years in the chain-gang for dealing in obscene literature. This is excellent, if true, and, if it does not to some extent offset "Southern homicide," it cannot fail to check the general volume of crime. When "Baldy" Smith denounced a publisher of this poisonous stuff as furnishing to the young the best text book of crime in the land, he got a few faint cheers for his pains. It circulates with the utmost freedom in the Northwest at the present day, and, for aught I know, Georgia is the only State that has taken the matter up. F. G. C.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., Sept. 20, 1883.

MISSOURI SENTIMENT TOWARD THE JAMES BROTHERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of September 13 you say of Frank James that, "like his brother Jesse, he commanded the admiration and esteem of the community." Allow me, as a member of the community, to say a few words in its defence, and set forth some of the facts which go to show that your statement is unwarranted. The confessions of three members of the band of thieves led by the James brothers have recently been published, and each one gives the names of those persons from whom the gang had at times obtained aid and comfort—that is, the persons to whom they could make known their presence without fear of having that fact communicated

to the officers of the law. The total number of persons so implicated in the four counties in which these men remained while in Missouri did not exceed twenty-five, and many of these were connected either by blood or marriage with members of the band.

These confessions were made by different persons at different times, and the circumstances under which they were made were of such a nature as to bring forth the truth, and the whole truth. One was made by a convict who, in the last stages of consumption, had but a few months to live, and hoped by making a clean breast of it to spend those months with his family. The other two were made by men who knew that their immunity from punishment depended upon their telling everything they knew, and who made their confessions without having opportunities to confer together. These three confessions agree substantially, and in giving the names of their friends and abettors they had nothing to lose. Now, if in these four counties there were not more than twenty-five persons who would harbor and assist these cutthroats, does this not show conclusively that they were not held in esteem and admiration by the community?

That Frank James was acquitted is due to a defect inherent in the jury system, not to the lawlessness in the locality in which he was tried. He had five distinguished lawyers to defend him; the testimony against him was almost solely that of an accomplice; by his bearing and appearance he has the power to win men's sympathy; and an alibi was set up in his defence. With such a defence, and under such circumstances, it would be very difficult to convict a criminal anywhere. The Star-route conspirators were acquitted by a jury, but the people of the United States were none the less certain of their guilt. Hundreds of such cases might be cited, and will be recalled, by any one familiar with the great trials of the time.

Frank James, too, was acquitted in a county in which he was a total stranger, and in one which has never been accused of being in sympathy with outlawry; while in Jackson County, which was the hiding-place of the band, Ryan was sent to the penitentiary for twenty-five years by a jury of his countrymen. The community which is said to have held these men in high esteem has not shown them much mercy. Two have been killed, three have been sent over the road to the penitentiary, and two are held as witnesses, with indictments hanging over them, their only hope of pardon resting upon their telling all they know. These statements being true (and most of them can be established by record testimony), can these men be said to have commanded the admiration and esteem of the community? As a reader of the *Nation*, who has the highest respect not only for its opinions, but for its candor, I have written this in order to bring about some modification of a statement which does a great injustice to a rich and enlightened community.—Respectfully,

J. G. P.

INDEPENDENCE, Mo., Sept. 18, 1883.

[Our statement that Frank and Jesse James "commanded the admiration and esteem of the community," was not intended to be absolutely literal; and we cheerfully modify it. The reports of Frank's trial, especially when taken in connection with the fact that his brother never could be caught for purposes of trial at all, and that the gang lived for years as outlaws in great security, produced the impression that there was a great deal of sympathy for the "boys" throughout the State.—ED. NATION.]

ARMY HONOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A friend in Washington tells me that in a recent issue of your paper appears an article which, under caption of "Honor in the Army," is very severe upon *us all;* and three-quarters of us are west of the Mississippi, far away from the busy haunts of men who read and coin opinions from what the newspapers lay before their eyes. It would seem that because a few of us have issued false tokens in shape of duplicate pay-accounts, all of us are to be stigmatized as beings to whom honor has but the value Falstaff gives it. A reference to the records of the Bureau of Military Justice will show that officers of the army who have been charged with "conduct unbecoming an officer and a gentleman" (and of such conduct the definition is the same *in* the army as it is *out* of it) have been justly dealt with by courts-martial; and that if, after having been found guilty of such conduct, they are still among those against whom your article appears to have been launched, it is *not* the fault of the *army*, but owing purely to the way in which the civil portion of the military establishment—to wit, the President and the Secretary of War—has been approached and influenced by powerful political and social friends of those who have been sentenced to dismissal from a service their actions have cast dishonor upon. We have tried to do what all prudent men will always do—cut away the sore spots; but where we have failed, the *authorities* are to blame, and upon their heads should fall the discredit, not upon ours.

Some people may remember that, shortly after the advent of Mr. Hayes, he caused it to be announced to the army that crime would be punished, and that offenders need not look for mercy. The tone of the order setting this forth was such as to imply that all of us were more or less tainted with drunkenness, and that if we did not at once reform we might prepare to meet our just deserts. Well, officers were tried for drunkenness on duty, found guilty, sentenced to be dismissed; and in nearly every case was the sentence either commuted to a forfeiture of part pay, with suspension from the exercise of official functions for a short period, or else set aside without comment! A most flagrant case was that of an officer who was tried upon twenty-two specifications descriptive of a variety of fraud, deceit, and other villany; found guilty of all or a portion of every one of the twenty-two; very properly sentenced to be dismissed, but who is yet in the service, because Mr. Hayes, at the solicitation of a number of Senators and Representatives from the offender's native State, commuted the sentence to a forfeiture of half-pay for one year, with suspension from rank and command during the time—about the equivalent of a year's leave of absence, which many a well-behaved and hard-working officer fails to get, on the ground that *his* services cannot be spared.

Many other instances of this way of neutralizing the efforts of military men to get rid of bad associates might be set forth. Take the case of one who, while in command of a post, made improper advances toward the wife of a brother-officer (at the time absent on duty), and who, after having been repelled, made use of his position as commanding officer to blacken the lady's character. He was dismissed by sentence of a court-martial, yet Mr. Hayes commuted the sentence "to two years' suspension." There are men in the army to-day (not many) who, after having been ejected for infamous conduct, have been restored by acts of Congress and the President. One of the last official acts of the late Mr. Garfield was to remit a sentence of dismissal in the case of one of these men, whose old habits brought him before a court martial shortly after he had been restored to the army by Mr. Hayes. The last Congress, in spite of earnest opposition from the army, passed an act authorizing the President, in his discretion, to appoint one of these characters to the first vacancy of captain occurring in the infantry, and thereby to retard the promotion of a lieutenant of twenty years' faithful and blameless service. The bill had already passed one branch of Congress, and was awaiting action in the other, when it was correctly reported that the person to be benefited had been seen disgracefully drunk in the streets of the capital. Did this influence the vote on the bill when it came up? Not a bit of it. Its allies carried it through in the face of previous bad character, immoral conduct, and drunkenness; and if the party is not in the army to-day, it is because the discretion of the President is of finer texture than was that of his two defunct predecessors. And yet, should this person be appointed, the army (to judge from the papers) would be responsible for him.

OPEQUAN.

FORT RINGGOLD, TEXAS, Sept. 10, 1883.

[We publish this letter because it reinforces the article in question, in which we distinctly laid the blame at the door of the Executive.—ED. NATION.]

MR. JARVES AND MR. STILLMAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of the 20th instant, I notice that Mr. Stillman reiterates his attack on me in regard to the electrotype bust. I repeat my statement of August 16, and those who care for the subject can decide with whom the weight of probability lies. Mr. S.'s facility of misapprehension is so vast that I despair of correcting his mistakes. I honor his regard for the soundness of art-criticism, but fear, in his alarm lest the public give me more credit than is due, that his own conscience pricks him for an unmerited reputation in this respect. Naturally this makes him, for the public good, solicitous to expose the "worthlessness" of my opinions in art. That he may associate with dealers in bric à-brac in Florence who, for reasons of their own agreeable to Mr. S., say untrue things of me, I cannot deny. But the "roba di Jarves"—*i. e.*, two terracottas and a "poor brown-stone statue" (*not* "bought," as he states, "from some villa garden")—I maintain are interesting, original works, as described in 'Italian Rambles' and the 'Descriptive Catalogue' of the Boston Foreign Exhibition; and I abide by my statements, leaving them to be confirmed or otherwise by unprejudiced experts.

Mr. S. errs in saying I purchased "grossly counterfeit bronzes," etc. Once I showed him a gilt bronze of an antique pattern which had been left with me, somewhat skilfully executed, and asked his opinion. He, as I, believed it to be an imitation, and advised getting Marquis Strozzi's opinion, for, if genuine, it would be of great value. The Marquis confirmed our judgment. If I could have foreseen the sort of use Mr. S. would make of personal confidences of this nature, and his defamation of me simply because the critic of the *Nation* said a few words of praise of my last unpretending little book, I should have been far more afraid of him than of being taken in by any counterfeit, gross or fine.

If I am "utterly incapable of forming a valid opinion on any work of art," will Mr. S. explain why the oldest academy of fine arts in Europe, that of Florence, unsought and unexpected on

my part, elected me long ago an honorary member on account of my writings and services in this field? Will he also inform the *Nation* how many other Americans have had this honor? I do not like to follow his example in citing the opinions of others against him, as he does "all Florence" (I suppose he means his *all*) against me, but I cannot refrain from telling him that I have more than once heard Englishmen of high position cite his letters to the London *Times* as most untrustworthy and mischievous: which fact possibly has something to do with their stoppage. After pelting me with the mud of gossip of the streets of Florence, it is very generous to say: "I have no personal quarrel with Mr. Jarves, and will accept none." What, then, is the motive of Mr. Stillman's wanton, and I call it malignant, assault? Heaven save me from my friends, if this is a sample of their good-will! I think the public now have had enough of this personal matter, and Mr. S. has done all the good to the art he "reverences" that he can reasonably expect, by advertising his scrupulous regard for it at my expense.

JAMES JACKSON JARVES.

HOTEL VENDÔME, BOSTON, Sept. 22, 1883.

[We cannot continue this controversy.—ED. NATION.]

PROF. JEVONS ON JOHN MILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: About five years ago, the late Mr. Jevons performed what a distinguished colleague of his described as a "war-dance upon the prostrate form of Mr. Mill"; the dance consisting in a series of articles which far surpassed anything the present writer has seen in the field of reputable criticism in their sweeping violence, and in their unhesitating and unqualified—not to say arrogant and conceited—assertion of Mill's incompetence for the discussion of the subjects upon which he wrote. Not the most offensive thing in the articles was the assertion that Mill's mind was "essentially illogical"; a proposition which even in this rapidly progressive age must still seem to many of the best minds almost a contradiction in terms. Mr. Jevons's articles, in the present writer's humble opinion, so utterly failed to establish his position that they were best answered by the almost silent reception they met with; but one who recalls the fact that his arguments, such as they were, rested almost exclusively upon certain inconsistencies which he had discovered, or fancied he had discovered, in Mill's writings, cannot forbear a feeling of satisfaction on finding the charge of inconsistency prominently brought forward against Mr. Jevons himself by a critic so evidently friendly as the reviewer of Mr. Jevons's essays in this week's *Nation*.

It is perhaps unnecessary to add that these lines are not intended as a personal attack upon one whose early death has been justly deplored as a loss in the ranks of earnest scientific workers, but to call attention to a point which ought certainly to diminish the force of Jevons's strictures upon Mill in the minds of those who have not themselves thoroughly examined their merits; and this, I confidently believe, is the only class of readers who regard those strictures as of much importance. It may not be amiss to mention here that those who reverence Mill—and who love justice—will find much gratification in the tribute paid to him by Professor Sidgwick in the opening pages of his recent valuable work on Political Economy.

Yours, very respectfully, X.

BALTIMORE, September 24, 1883.

THE STRAW AS A SIGN OF CONTRACT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have noticed with interest the discussion going on in your paper as to whether it is true or not that professional witnesses advertised their calling by straws stuck in their shoes, to indicate that they were ready to commit perjury if they could find such employment. It seems to me history sustains Mr. Axon in taking the affirmative of this question. I make the following quotation from 'Memories of Westminster Hall,' by Edward Foss, F.R.S.:

"The professional witnesses were most noticeable frequenters of the Hall in 'the good old times.' . . . These abominable traffickers in perjury were employed by attorneys to swear to any lie for which the support of false oaths was required. Not only did they ply their abominable trade, but, strange to say, they plied it notoriously—making no secret of their infamous business to persons initiated in the usages of the law courts. Daily these venal liars walked Westminster Hall on the look-out for employment; a straw stuck in one of his shoes being the ensign by which a member of the fraternity advertised his readiness, in spite of the terrors of the pillory, the whipping-post, the plantations, and the gallows, to swear by the hour together for a stated payment *per* oath. Throughout many years of the eighteenth century, a wicked attorney named Wreathcock—who, after undergoing sentence of death, was transported for life in 1736—kept a number of these scoundrels in full employment; and though his exposure and removal from the country broke up 'Wreathcock's Gang,' the man and his lying slaves were speedily replaced by another 'connexion' of perjurers" (vol. i., p. 83–4).

M. D. CHATTERTON.

MASON, MICHIGAN, Sept. 22, 1883.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & Co. are to become the publishers of *Latine*, the monthly magazine edited by Prof. E. S. Shumway. In their Parchment Series the 'Sonnets of John Milton,' edited by Mark Pattison, will be the next volume. The Parchment Shakspere will, it is thought, be completed during the autumn. They announce also for speedy publication the third volume of Bancroft's revised 'History of the United States,' and Cobbett's 'English Grammar,' edited by Alfred Ayres.

Taintor Brothers, Merrill & Co. will shortly publish 'Mexico and the Mexicans,' by Howard Conkling, grandson of a former Minister to Mexico under President Fillmore. The book will be illustrated, partly by the author himself.

Professor Hoppin's 'Homiletics' comes to us bearing a new imprint, that of Funk & Wagnalls.

Richardson's 'Primer of American Literature' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) merits its present success of a "twenty-first thousand." It presents a fair and, in spite of its brevity, a readable conspectus of its subject. Twelve portraits, mostly of living writers, including the younger poets and novelists, have been added to the present edition. The book seems to have entitled itself to much more illustration of this kind, especially for the older periods.

A less successful primer (apparently intended for civil-service examination crams) is Mr. Henry Grey's 'Bird's eye View of English Literature' (E. P. Dutton & Co.). Its arrangement is formal and almost tabular, each author being set down in the order of his death, with a curt characterization over against him, or simple mention of his principal works. Longfellow, who is taken in at the end as an adopted Englishman, has more space and words allowed him than any of his predecessors.

Longfellow's 'Courtship of Miles Standish' has just been added to the Riverside Literature Series, with a dramatic arrangement for use in school exhibitions and private theatricals. The omission of the descriptive portions (except as stage directions) makes some of the scenes very short; otherwise the poem seems actable.

Both the juvenile and the holiday publications put in an early appearance this year. Of the latter class the first may be considered 'Twenty Poems from Longfellow,' with fifty illustrations (one a portrait) from the hand of the poet's son, Mr. Ernest W. Longfellow. Undeniably, such a work possesses a peculiar interest from this association of father and son and of two kindred arts. "The Village Blacksmith," "The Day is Done," "The Bells of Lynn," the sonnets to Felton, Agassiz, and Sumner, are among the more familiar and endeared pieces selected by the painter. The majority, by inherited sympathy, have a maritime theme or imagery, and the accompanying designs show no little mastery of wave form and motion, and of the general sentiment of the sea. The landscapes are also for the most part to be praised: some are intentional reproductions of actual views in Cambridge, at Nahant, etc.—the father's haunts. Mr. E. W. Longfellow's moons would draw down the censure of *Nature's* scientific art-critic for their disproportionate size; and can he who knows and depicts so well the curve of breaking surf have blunted the tips of the leaves of the "spreading chestnut-tree"? The cuts are admirably engraved, and the book throughout is of fine workmanship.

Next spring, the third oldest academy in Massachusetts—the oldest away from the seaboard—namely, at Leicester, will celebrate its hundredth year. Among its first pupils in 1784 was Eli Whitney, the inventor of the cotton-gin; so that the South should feel an interest in the approaching occasion. There are many eminent names on the roll of instructors and students; among the latter, William L. Marcy, John Davis, David Henshaw, Benjamin F. Thomas, the Rev. Gardiner Spring, etc. The most noteworthy fact in the history of this institution is that from the commencement it has practised coeducation of the sexes. We gather these particulars from an interesting paper read in July, before the Worcester Society of Antiquity, by the Rev. Samuel May, who in turn drew upon a 'History of Leicester Academy,' by ex-Governor Emory Washburn, himself a graduate.

The October *Manhattan* shows a marked advance in its pictorial attractions, the series of views of the Hackensack Valley, and the series of portraits of the Irish Parliamentary leaders, having a special claim to mention. The literary contents are likewise above the recent average. They include what is formally a sonnet of Whittier's on 'The Story of Ida.'

Dr. Coan's September *Topics of the Time* (Putnams) touches "Questions of Belief," reproducing, among other articles, Miss Cobbe's "Agnostic Morality" and Leslie Stephen's "Suppression of Poisonous Opinions."

Two more volumes extend the new edition of Emerson (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), namely, the 'Representative Men,' and the second series of the 'Essays.' Those who side with Mr. Adams in his unfriendliness to Greek will be pleased to meet again, in the lecture on "New England Reformers," a telling passage in the spirit of the Phi Beta Kappa address.

The *Sanitary Engineer* is hereafter to be published regularly in London, a fortnight later than the date of its issue here. So much of our sanitary science has come from England that this return in kind is somewhat surprising.

What promises to be a successful movement to regulate by convention the railway time of the country (and conformably the local time) has been initiated by Mr. W. F. Allen, Secretary

of the General Time Convention, who has, to show the dreadful confusion now existing, prepared a colored map of the standards by which our railroads are run. Another map, more to the purpose—for the evil is notorious and crying—shows the division proposed by means of four central standard meridians, viz., the 75th, 90th, 105th, and 120th, or practically those of Philadelphia, New Orleans, Denver, and Carson City. The traveller adds an hour to his reckoning, or subtracts it, as the case may be, on entering a section from one adjoining. The Canadian system of roads is embraced in this scheme, and is assigned to the 75th meridian, together with the Eastern and Middle States, and the Southern seaboard nearly to Georgia. The pamphlet may be had by those interested of the National Railway Publication Company, at 46 Bond Street.

The Signal Service has recently made a contribution to theoretical meteorology which will be heartily welcomed by all interested in the science. No. 12 of the Professional Papers of the Signal Service, the title of which is "Popular Essays on the Movements of the Atmosphere," contains a series of monographs by Prof. Wm. Ferrel, of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, which, at the instance and request of General Hazen, Professor Ferrel has collected from the various periodicals in which they first appeared, and compiled into a single volume. Of these monographs, No. iv., "On the Relation between the Barometric Gradient and the Velocity of Wind," is perhaps the most interesting, as the results and conclusions therein set forth are certainly of much practical importance, not only in the prediction of "weather" (the end and goal of most meteorologists), but also in the science of barometric hypsometry, to which Professor Ferrel has made other valuable contributions. The thanks of all interested in this subject are due to General Hazen for thus setting forth, in a most convenient and accessible form, the results of Professor Ferrel's researches, extending over many years. The term "popular" in the title of this paper is, however, to be taken in a very restricted sense. Professor Ferrel is too thoroughly a mathematician to write for the non-mathematical, and this collection of papers abounds in derivatives and integrals and other wild beasts of the mathematical menagerie to such an extent that it would be quite unsafe to predict for it a very extensive circulation. Its publication, however, is another example of the desire and efforts of the Signal Service to place the science of meteorology on a sure foundation.

The Signal Service Bureau reprints, too, Professor Ferrel's 'Motions of Fluids and Solids'—also purely mathematical, a few pages excepted; 'Meteorological and Physical Observations on the East Coast of British America,' by Orray Taft Sherman; and 'Charts and Tables showing the Geographical Distribution of Rainfall in the United States,' prepared by Lieut. H. H. C. Dunwoody. This last covers the period 1870–1880, and groups the tables of rainfall at the several Signal-Service stations.

We have already spoken of the map of Tonquin lately prepared for the *Journal* of the Berlin Geographical Society by Richard Kiepert. It has since been published separately by Dietrich Reimer, Berlin. Though not the most comprehensive of the many now before the public, it is very helpful for comparison.

Michael Bacunin's 'God and the State,' with the prefatory words of Carlo Cafiero and Élisée Reclus, has been translated and published by Benjamin R. Tucker (Boston).

Pope Leo XIII. recently addressed a letter to Cardinals de Luca, Pitra, and Hergenröther, the three "learned" members of the Sacred College, in which he dwelt on the importance of the study of history, especially in a country like Italy, much of whose glorious past was due to the popes. Naturally enough, the Italian clerical papers overflowed with admiration of the Pope's manifesto, but even the Liberal press was disposed to construe his remarks into a concession to modern enlightenment. However, exactly one week after the publication of the letter, a new instalment of the Index Expurgatorius appeared, including among the proscribed books two such purely historical works as Aubé's 'Histoire des persécutions de l'Église: La Polémique païenne à la fin du IIe siècle,' and its continuation, 'Les Chrétiens dans l'empire Romain, jusqu'au milieu du IIIe siècle.' The value of these works has been generally recognized, but M. Aubé has relegated many stories of pagan persecution and Christian martyrdom to the realm of legend; hence his place on the Index, notwithstanding the Pope's fondness for historical studies.

The first draft of the chapter in the 'Contrat Social' on civil religion has been reprinted from the MS. in the Public Library at Geneva by Ch. Borgeaud in his 'J.-J. Rousseau's Religious Philosophy.'

The last few years have been productive of a considerable number of works on Hebrew grammar. Among the most noteworthy are the twenty-second and twenty-third editions of Gesenius's 'Grammatik,' in great part remodelled by Kautzsch (1878 and 1881); the first part of Stade's 'Lehrbuch' (1879); and the first part of König's 'Historisch-kritisches Lehrgebäude' (1881). School-books have been issued by Nägelsbach (4th edition, 1880), Stier (1881), Seffer (7th edition, 1883), and H. L. Strack (3d edition, 1883). Strack's 'Hebräische Grammatik, mit Uebungsstücken, Literatur, und Vokabular,' which, as a substitute for J. H Petermann's manual, now forms the first volume of the 'Porta Linguarum Orientalium, sive Elementa Linguarum,' issued by Reuther (Carlsruhe and Leipzig), is a perfect model of correctness and compactness. Though written mainly for the instruction or self-instruction of learners who begin their course of Hebrew at the university, it will be found, on account of its fulness coupled with extreme brevity (it contains no syntax), an exceedingly convenient book of reference for the finer features of the grammatical structures, even by advanced Semitic scholars. Teachers cannot fail to recognize in it a most useful companion, but we would not recommend it without another guide to learners, to whom its conciseness, here and there bordering on obscurity, must unavoidably prove not a little perplexing. The Hebrew type used in it is very clear; the transliteration, wherever demanded, is most minutely precise; and we have in vain searched for a misprint uncorrected in the few lines of "Errata." Its bibliography, embracing dictionaries, concordances, grammars, treatises on special themes, etc., is a valuable addition. The other volumes of the 'Porta' comprise Petermann's grammars of the Chaldee, Samaritan, Arabic, and Armenian idioms, and Nestle's Syriac grammar. A Persian grammar, by Landauer, is forthcoming, and an Ethiopic is to follow.

The unfruitful letter E fills nearly all of Parts 77–83 of the new 'Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt). England, however, and Europe both fall within it, the former receiving attention to the extent of forty-one pages, with a map thrown in. The article Encyclopædia is valuable for its bibliographical information. Among the biographies, those of Emerson, the two Everetts, and Ericsson will interest American readers. The sketch of Emerson is not brief in comparison with the standard of this work, yet gives in a few words an intelligent judgment of a writer who still fills a larger space in foreign eyes as an essayist than as a poet.

'Brehm's Thierleben' (B. Westermann & Co.) continues its steady progress toward its hundredth part: Nos. 90–98 are before us, and introduce the Reptiles. Excellent are the cuts of the tortoise, and very effective the colored plates of the giant turtles. But indeed, with the snakes, lizards, and crocodiles also, both classes of illustrations are here at their very best.

—Mr. R. G. White's article on "Old New York and its Houses," in the October *Century*, will, we trust, be widely read by occupants of the high-stoop brown-stone boxes which have in the last forty or fifty years taken the place of the dwellings of our grandfathers. Mr. White laments the destruction or reconstruction of old New York, but gives reasons for thinking that we have reached the end of the period of bad taste, and that there is hope for the future. But if Mr. Schuyler, whose recent article on the subject we noticed, is to be credited, we are really only entering on a new variety of bad taste, which will, from the enormous amounts of money laid out in developing and establishing it, eclipse all former periods. It is certainly a curious thing that in Boston, which also has been entirely reconstructed within a very brief period, good taste has come out of the struggle for existence with vulgar and pretentious display so much better than with us—though of course the Bostonians will say that it is not in the least curious, but rather extremely natural, and just what we might have anticipated from what we know of the history of the two cities. Mr. W. H. Rideing, in an article on Thackeray, traces some of the localities which occur in his novels, and points out the fact that locality counts for much less in them than in Dickens. The London of Dickens can be reproduced from his descriptions; the London of Thackeray cannot. A great part of the power of the former comes from his use of the scene or landscape in affecting the emotions of the reader. Everybody will remember the suspense, excitement, and horror produced in his mind by the description which precedes the death of Sikes in 'Oliver Twist,' and the night scene which precedes the murder in 'Martin Chuzzlewit.' Thackeray may have regarded such literary aids as beneath him. He resorted to them rather more than some of his predecessors had done, notably Fielding, in whose novels there is almost no scenery or background. Bret Harte has, in this country, caught from Dickens the secret of the use of surroundings, and applied it to the wild, untamed nature of the West with a great deal of success. We are inclined to think that it will not die out altogether, though the passion for analysis at the present day has dealt it an apparently mortal blow; but in the novel of the future it will be used again, though probably not better than Dickens knew how to use it. Mr. Austin Dobson's paper on the "Pupils of Thomas Bewick" will be even more acceptable to art students than the paper on Bewick which it supplements. The information it contains cannot readily be had elsewhere, especially with such comparative illustrations of the work of Nesbit, Clennell, Harvey, Jackson, and the rest. The animal pictures here adduced show how much the pupils fell short of the master, not as engravers but as observers of animated nature. Harvey's work seems furthest removed from Bewick's, both in style of cutting and in definiteness of design, especially when it is a question of filling up the background.

—*Lippincott's* contains a protectionist article, published perhaps to show what the protectionists can do in the way of argument when they take the trouble to expose the wretched free-

traders. Mr. F. D. Y. Carpenter is the writer. He declares at the outset that "a great surprise is in store for the simple student of political affairs in the discovery that the free-traders of the United States are not free-traders at all." Mr. Carpenter has discovered, by means of correspondence and personal inquiry, that the persons who call themselves free-traders do not insist upon the abolition of the custom-houses and on revenue by direct taxation, and therefore he maintains that they are little better than hypocrites. The publication of this article throws a curious light on the condition of mind in the protectionist camp; for it is evidently put forward as an important contribution to the free-trade controversy. "In the Highlands of North Carolina," by Louise Coffin Jones, is a description of a little known, and to us, we confess, uninteresting country. "These our Actors" is the title of an article on the stage, by L. Clarke Davis, containing a good deal that is readable.

—"Daisy Miller," as a comedy in three acts (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.), hardly does more than remind the reader of the clever little story of which it is a dramatization. Mr. James was obliged to change the climax (for to have the stage-version end in a death would hardly have done), and he has also thought it necessary to enlarge the European background and to introduce a new plot. With all these changes, the drama and the story are such distinct creations that it is idle to try and compare them. There is very little action in the play, but the dialogue is bright, and the sub-plot of *Eugenio* and *Giovanelli* and *Mme. Katkoff* is ingeniously worked out. *Randolph P. Miller*, the American boy, who is the product of hotel-life and affectionate parental neglect, presents a new and untried stage-type. The slight sketch of him in the story was admirable, and he is in the play quite unchanged in character, as the following extract will show:

"*Randolph.* Will you give me a lump of sugar?

"*Winterbourne.* Yes, you may take one; but I don't think sugar is good for little boys.

"*Randolph.* Oh, blazes! it's hard!

"*Winterbourne.* Take care, young man. You'll hurt your teeth.

"*Randolph.* I haven't got any teeth to hurt; they've all come out. I've only got seven teeth. Mother counted them last night, and one came out afterwards. She said she'd slap me if any more came out. I can't help it—it's this old Europe. It's the climate that makes 'em come out. In America they didn't come out; it's these hotels!

"*Winterbourne.* If you eat all that sugar, your mother will certainly slap you.

"*Randolph.* She's got to give me some candy, then. I can't get any candy here—any American candy. American candy's the best.

"*Winterbourne.* And are American boys the best little boys?

"*Randolph.* I don't know. I'm an American boy!

"*Winterbourne.* I see you are one of the best.

"*Randolph.* That isn't what my mother says, you can bet your life on that!"

But in an acting play, would it not be difficult to have *Randolph?* A bumptious, noisy hotel-child could be represented, of course, by one of those precocious stage infants with which our theatre is so thoroughly well supplied; but, then, would not the result be a little unpleasant—a little too like personal contact with *Randolph* in a hotel "corridor"? Fond as we are of the boy, and little as we should wish to spare him, we like him in a sketch better than in this high dramatic relief. With regard to *Daisy* herself, everything would depend upon the acting. We can imagine an actress who would make her charming, but we confess that we do not remember any leading lady now on the boards who would be likely to make her anything but vulgar.

—About the time when Mr. Henry Irving will produce in America Wills's tragedy "Charles I.," in which Cromwell figures as a sordid and vulgar clown, there will be acted at the Odéon Theatre in Paris the first published play of Victor Hugo, called "Cromwell," and famous more because of its preface than of its merits, as it is so hopelessly long that very few readers have ever had the courage to persevere in its perusal. Planned originally for the acting of Talma, and constructed with a view to the stage, Hugo seems to have abandoned the hope of seeing it performed before he began the actual writing, and to have therefore given his pen full license to run on without limit. Still, it has always been possible to see in it the well-knit skeleton of a possible play. It is this skeleton that is to be exhibited on the stage of the Odéon. Hugo himself has cut his verses with a merciless hand; and besides having had the pleasure of seeing the second performance of "Le Roi s'amuse" just fifty years after the first, he will now have the pleasure of seeing the first performance of "Cromwell" fifty-five years after its first publication. The Odéon expects to produce "Cromwell" in December, 1883, and it was in December, 1827, that its preface set forth the programme of the Romanticist revolt. It was in the same house that Hugo's first play was acted within two months after the publication of "Cromwell." This was "Amy Robsart," a dramatization of 'Kenilworth,' produced February 13, 1828, and damned out of hand. Although wholly Hugo's own work, he announced it as that of his brother-in-law, Paul Foucher, then a boy in his teens. "Amy Robsart" has never been printed, and it is believed that the only manuscript of it is now lost. It is to be hoped that "Cromwell" will be more fortunate than its predecessor. In its revised and reduced form it is to be called a comedy. The chief part will be taken by M. Lafontaine, formerly of the Comédie-Française, who acted, in the "Jeunesse de Louis XIV." of the two Dumas, the character of *Mazarin*, the hero of still another play of Hugo's, not yet either printed or performed.

—These remarks have been in part suggested by the perusal of a curious book recently published by M. Edmond Biré, 'Victor Hugo avant 1830' (Paris: Jules Gervais; New York: F. W. Christern). With the indefatigable patience of a literary detective and with a malicious humor, M. Biré devotes 500 pages to the revelation of the pettinesses of a great man. He has hunted up all Hugo's earlier and forgotten work, searched all contemporary records, collected and collated many of Hugo's personal and public letters, and succeeded in showing that Hugo is a romancer even when writing his prefaces or his autobiography. The poet's claim to a noble ancestry is exploded, and his humble but honorable origin set forth. M. Biré has gone through the files of the little paper founded by Hugo and his brother, the *Conservateur littéraire*, of which the Paris correspondent of the *Nation* has given an ample account, and which is now so rare that the three thin volumes bring 1,000 francs. We happen to know that Hugo himself has not a copy, and that when he wished to see it a year or two ago he was forced to borrow the copy which M. Nuitter had given to the growing dramatic and musical library of the Opéra. From this source M. Biré has dug out many curious facts. Hugo, for instance, declared that his 'Littérature et Philosophie mêlées' contained all his earlier critical writing reprinted *verbatim et literatim*, but M. Biré shows that many articles are omitted, that most are retouched, and that nearly all are antedated. Most curious of all is this: Hugo in his preface refers to the plot of a tragedy outlined when he was a schoolboy and reprinted with these other boyish writings; whereas it appears that this boyish plot is merely a critical analysis (reprinted from the fifth number of the *Conservateur littéraire*) of a tragedy actually acted in 1817 at the Théâtre-Français. In one respect at least M. Biré's investigations are of real service to the history of literature. Twenty years ago there appeared a biography of the poet, called 'Victor Hugo, raconté par un temoin de sa vie,' and evidently written by a member of Hugo's household and under his own eye. It was generally believed to be the work of Mme. Victor Hugo. But in the prospectus of the now complete *ne varietur* edition of Hugo's works the name of this book also appears, whence the inference is inevitable that if Mme. Hugo held the pen it was Victor Hugo who dictated, and that the book may be accepted as an actual autobiography. Now, it happens (and M. Biré takes pleasure in proving it by reiterated comparisons) that although the main facts of Hugo's career are set forth exactly enough, yet in matters of detail this biography is wholly untrustworthy.

—The *Academy* of September 1 contains "Two Biblical Suggestions" by Professor Sayce, one of which possesses a rather wide interest. He discovers the name of Joseph in the fragment of Manetho referring to the exodus of the Israelites from Egypt (quoted in Josephus, 'Against Apion,' i. 26). According to the Egyptian historian, the leader and lawgiver of the Hebrews was a priest of Heliopolis, called Osarsiph, whose name, derived from Osiris, the god of that city, was changed into Moses when he had gone over to the despised strangers. Now, Joseph was by marriage a member of a Heliopolitan priestly family, his wife being (according to Gen. xli. 50) Asenath, the daughter of Poti-pherah, a priest of that city (called by the Hebrews On, by the Egyptians An). "It is . . . plain that in the Egyptian legend the name of Joseph was regarded as a compound of *Saph* and *Jo* (*Yo*), the national name of the God of Israel, who corresponded to the Osiris of Egyptian belief. That it was also sometimes so regarded by the Israelites themselves seems clear from the spelling Jeho-seph in Ps. lxxxi. 5." Thus the legend incorporated by Manetho in his dynastic history has fused together, Professor Sayce thinks, two Israelitish heroes of different dates: the one who was the cause of the Hebrews' migration into Egypt, and whose name the Egyptians translated into Osarsiph, and the real leader in the Hebrew exodus from that country. This "suggestion," if not as obviously correct as its author believes it to be, is at least plausible enough. We can say the same of his other suggestion, which identifies the Helam of David's campaigns against the Syrians (2 Sam. x. 16, 17) with "Khalman, the name of Aleppo on the Assyrian monuments." But if anything in philologico-critical speculations is surpassingly extravagant, it is Terrien de La Couperie's statement, in the same number of the *Academy*, concerning "The Affinity of the Ten Stems of the Chinese Cycle with the [first ten] Akkadian Numerals"—the "striking" linguistic affinity, which only "a few remarks are necessary" to explain, between the following two sets of words:

Ka(p)	*Gi* (one)	*ket*	*'ash* (six)
œt	*min*	*kam*	*'imina*
binh	*esh*	*dan*	*ussa*
dim	*shimu*	*njam*	*ishimu*
ku (or *mu*)	*'a*	*kwi*	*gu.*

Our readers, we trust, will pardon us for not reproducing the "few remarks."

CURTIS'S BUCHANAN.—I.

Life of James Buchanan, Fifteenth President of the United States. By George Ticknor Curtis. Harper & Brothers. 2 vols., pp. 625, 707.

To understand the work which a biographer of Mr. Buchanan has before him, it is necessary to state the unfavorable judgment which historical critics have passed upon him; for his vindication, to be worth anything, must be addressed to this. It is, in substance, that being a citizen of a free State, with full knowledge of the blessings to the country of a free-labor system and of the curse of slavery, his personal and political ambition made him the subservient tool of the slave power; that in this subservience he sacrificed the rights and interests of the free community in which he lived, and those of the nation as a whole, to the demands of the most ultra-champions of slavery. This, it is alleged, went so far that he abandoned principles which he himself had declared most sacred, and advocated the opposite; that from supporting Jackson in the most sweeping denunciation of secession and nullification, he, for the sake of the Presidency, adopted those pernicious heresies, and was nominated because the disunionists of the South were well assured that he was at one with them in their asserted constitutional right to secede without opposition whenever they should think it necessary to slaveholding interests. It is further alleged that, being President, he connived at all the incipient stages of rebellion, accepting the belief of his Southern leaders that formal secession, if he should refuse during his term of office to oppose the national power to it, would result in a Northern panic of Union-saving which would nullify the effect of Mr. Lincoln's election, and give slavery the protection of explicit amendments to the Constitution in all the territory of the United States, North as well as South. When secession actually began, ominous signs of wrath instead of panic were seen in the Northern States; his nerve failed, and he disappointed the disunion leaders by denying the constitutional right of secession, though he justified them in *revolution* by a false statement of Northern aggressions, and encouraged them to go on by denying to the national Government, in his own hands or his successor's, the right to suppress the rebellion. He gave the rebellion, therefore, the undisturbed opportunity of three months' organization, when a Jacksonian proclamation from him in November, 1860, when the calls for secession conventions were issued, would probably have limited the insurrection to a single State, if it did not squelch the whole movement.

On this indictment the common judgment of the world has found him guilty. It is doubtful whether former Secessionists of the South are not as explicit as Northern men in declaring him the chief cause of all their woes, bitterly complaining that he lured them on till retreat was for them impossible, and when their only hope of success without bloodshed was in his recognition of their independence by acknowledging the disruption of the Union to be complete. That they thought him committed to this, and quarrelled with him when he partly disappointed them, seems indisputable. Their programme really required a message from the President in December, 1860, in which he should announce that, in consequence of the election of Mr. Lincoln upon the Republican platform, South Carolina had exercised her constitutional right to withdraw from the Union, and that it only remained for the North to make concessions which would bring her back with such other States as were rapidly following her example, or at once and for ever to acquiesce in the separation. To have followed this by withdrawal of all troops from the seceded States would have produced a condition of things in which the cotton States would have had an independence *de facto*, and in which armed collision could only have come by formal invasion from the one side or the other. In such a situation they believed that the Northern States would have yielded to every demand, and that after negotiation the Union would have been reconstructed upon the constitutional pro-slavery basis indicated above. They would have found themselves mistaken in this expectation, but that they had it is scarcely debatable; and it is reasonably certain that they regarded Mr. Buchanan as fully committed to their doctrine. His denial of their constitutional right to secede was, to them, a desertion by an ally, and their first great disappointment in their plans.

The task of the biographer is to examine the judgment his fellow-men have passed upon Mr. Buchanan, and review it in the light of the more complete evidence which he has at his command. This Mr. Curtis professes to have done, and finds that Buchanan has been misjudged; that he was wise, consistent, patriotic, courageous; that he did all that could have been done in the great crisis of 1860 to defend and preserve the national Government; and that no just criticism can be made upon his conduct or his statesmanship. To reach this conclusion, however, it was necessary that the author should have peculiar theories of history and of statesmanship. His standpoint he has given us in a long chapter entitled a "Summary of the Slavery Question," the gist of which is that down to 1854 all the complaints of the South were just and reasonable, and that "abolitionism" was responsible for whatever danger of disunion there was, since the South had given no occasion for the introduction of the slavery question into politics. He, however, disapproves the repeal of the Missouri Compromise by the Democratic legislation of 1854, and denies that the Dred Scott decision was, in any proper sense, the judgment of the Supreme Court of the United States upon the constitutional rights of slavery and freedom in the Territories. This is, in substance, what was known in 1860 as the "Silver-Gray" Whig position, and we do not find that Mr. Curtis has since accepted a more comprehensive view of the history of the country.

He also holds the opinion that, upon the attempted secession of States, there was nothing more to be lawfully done for the country than was done by Mr. Buchanan, and that the President was right in asserting that there was no constitutional means of "coercing" a rebellious State. He attempts to draw a nice distinction between enforcing the national sovereignty against a State and against the individuals composing the State, and claims that this was also a distinction acted upon by Mr. Buchanan. Common sense, in this case, is in accord with the broadest views of law, and repudiates the attempted distinction as one without a difference; but, good or bad, the biographer entirely fails to give us any evidence that President Buchanan made it. With such views, it is a foregone conclusion that Mr. Curtis should produce only an apology for Mr. Buchanan which can have very little weight with any one who is not already committed to the same set of opinions. In other words, "Hunker Whigs" and "Bourbon Democrats," so far as specimens of these classes still survive, are the only people who will find much satisfaction in either Mr. Curtis's defence of the ex-President or the interpretation of public history which he gives.

He tells us that the materials placed in his hands were enormous, as Mr. Buchanan was systematic in saving and arranging his private papers and correspondence. This only makes more noticeable the paucity of material which he extracts, and the great gaps which occur in very important places. For instance, the attitude of Buchanan toward the Oregon and Texas questions prior to the election of Mr. Polk is left almost wholly in the dark, though it bears directly upon the question of his good faith and sincerity in his conduct as Mr. Polk's Secretary of State. In like manner, his correspondence with politicians in this country during his residence in England as Minister from 1852 to 1856 may be said to be omitted; and the period was that most critical one when his party repudiated the Missouri and all other compromises, and made the organization of the Republican party a necessity by arrogantly adopting Calhoun's resolutions of 1847 as their platform, in which it was asserted that every pledge of territory to freedom, from the ordinance of 1787 downward, had been unconstitutional, and that to exclude slavery was confiscation of property. Mr. Curtis says that Buchanan did not approve that change of front. In saying so he contradicts Buchanan himself in his utterances during the campaign of 1856. If his correspondence shows any previous disapproval, it would have been well to insert parts of it, even at the cost of excluding some of the tittle-tattle about social experience in English court circles. If Buchanan disapproved that fatal political step of his party, why did he accept the nomination for the Presidency upon the platform that embodied the ruinous doctrine? Why did he afterward argue in favor of it as a thing right in itself? He was the very man who had declared the Missouri Compromise to be "almost as sacred as the Constitution itself"; how is it that his biographer leaves wholly unexplained and unillustrated from that great store of private papers this change of his course to the opposite point of the political compass?

Again, Buchanan had been a typical "Jackson man." He had professed all of Jackson's hatred for the Calhoun doctrines of nullification and secession. He knew how scornfully Jackson broke through the pretence that nullification could be "a peaceful and constitutional modification of law," not only from the public documents of the time, but from Jackson's own letter, which Mr. Curtis inserts (vol. i., p. 185). In the same letter Jackson taught him the value of a ringing appeal to the patriotism of the people by his celebrated proclamation. It was in the same letter, also, that Jackson said: "Thus die nullification and secession, but leave behind the remembrance of their authors and abettors, which holds them up to scorn and indignation, and will transmit them to posterity as *traitors* to the best of governments." At what time and under what circumstances did such radical change in Buchanan's opinions occur that when the doctrine of the right of secession had infected the whole Southern Democratic party, he made himself acceptable to them as their candidate in 1856 by repeated avowals that he stood squarely upon the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions of 1798, which were the shibboleth of the disunion party and their chosen formula for expressing their most ultra dogmas? Here, again, the correspondence in the biographer's hands might give us much fuller light than is vouchsafed us.

The completed change cannot be wholly concealed, and some of the steps of it are also visible even in the scanty material which we here find. It is noteworthy that the indications of these steps generally appear in the seasons preceding the nominations for the Presidency. Buchanan had been a Jackson man till "Old Hickory" retired to the Hermitage, and he maintained the same outward appearance in the earlier part of the administration of Van Buren.

In 1839,* when the succession to Mr. Van Buren agitated all Democratic statesmen, in a first-class "machine" speech in the Senate against restricting Federal officers from meddling in practical politics (how history repeats itself!), Mr. Buchanan adroitly seized the opportunity to "put himself right on the record" with the Southern leaders, in the following terms:

> "Now, sir, I shall say a few words concerning the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions of 1798, although the Senator from Virginia may consider it sacrilege in me to discuss this subject. I have at all times, ever since I read and understood these resolutions, held to the political doctrines which they inculcate; and I can assure the Senator I have studied them with care" (vol. i., p. 387).

This would indicate that the reading and study had probably been since the close of Jackson's Administration.

In 1844 the Texas and Oregon questions formed the staple of the political issues, and the absence in the biography of everything which would show Mr. Buchanan's treatment of the subject is very significant. His position on the Oregon question was one which has been most severely criticised. He had declared Mr. Webster's treaty (the Ashburton Treaty) to be a gross abandonment of the rights of the United States in regard to the northeastern boundary, and he had gone all lengths with the Western Congressmen in asserting the unquestionable right to Oregon up to 54° 40′ north latitude. Mr. Curtis says of him that no one of the leading Democratic statesmen was more conspicuous in bringing about Mr. Polk's election than he. The platform was the notorious "54° 40′ or fight." Mr. Buchanan was made Secretary of State, and one of his earliest acts was to renew the proposal to make 49° the line of our northern limit, at the very time the Administration was renewing, in the President's messages, the declaration of our incontestable right to the whole. An apology which makes no reference to this inconsistency is too significant in its silence. Mr. Buchanan had been a candidate for the nomination, and had put himself in line with the extremest Southern men. His name was withdrawn because most of the Northern States had instructed their delegates for Van Buren. The "two-thirds' rule" was adopted in the Democratic Convention notoriously to give the South an absolute control of the nomination, though it ostracised every Northern man who could not satisfy the disunionists that he was a safe man for them. Mr. Buchanan not only accepted this rule, but afterward made its repeal in the Baltimore Convention of 1860 the ground of his assertion that Douglas was not the nominee of a "national" convention, and an excuse for supporting Breckinridge. His position in 1844 made him the chosen instrument, as head of the Cabinet under Polk, to abandon the claim to Northern Oregon and to wrench from Mexico a vast territory intended to make room for many new slave States. The controversy directly affected Mr. Buchanan's character as a public man. The question was, Did he hold all his principles subject to the dictation of the disunionists of the South, and as his capital with which to buy a Presidential nomination? Mr. Curtis gives us no help in answering it. In the Senate, Hannegan, a leading Democrat of the West, bitterly denounced the conduct as "Punic faith."

In 1848 the "handwriting" was plainly to be seen "on the wall." Mr. Curtis tells us that Buchanan determined to retire to private life. The Whig Administration under Taylor and Fillmore succeeded. The discovery of gold in the newly-acquired Territory of California caused a rush of free immigrants to the Pacific Coast, and the slave-power was again exasperated, the Union was again in danger, because California framed a free constitution and asked to be admitted as a free State. Clay's compromise of 1850 followed, the price for the admission of California being the Fugitive Slave Law, which took from free citizens of Northern States the constitutional right of trial by jury when their liberty was immediately in peril on the claim of a Southern man that they were escaped slaves. Buchanan emerged from his retirement to write a letter to a public meeting (vol. ii., p. 11), in which he signified his full acquiescence in the new Southern claim. "I now solemnly declare," he said, "that two things are necessary to preserve the Union from danger: (1) agitation in the North on the subject of Southern slavery must be rebuked and put down by a strong and enlightened public opinion; (2) the Fugitive Slave Law must be enforced in its spirit." Mark that he does not see danger from agitation in the South for the extension of slavery. In the same letter he says: "Had the Wilmot proviso become a law, or had slavery been abolished in the District of Columbia, nothing short of a special interposition of Divine Providence could have prevented the secession of most, if not all, the slaveholding States." This latter statement is important as showing his opinion of the extent and determination of the disunion spirit ten years before the rebellion, and of the full intelligence on this subject which he must have had in 1860.

In 1851 Buchanan was already in the field as a candidate for the Presidential nomination in 1852. He began to be inquired of, touching his present views on the slavery question, when public sentiment was making many a politician in the North change his course. To one inquiring friend (vol. ii., p. 23) he answers that "Madison's report and Jefferson's *Kentucky resolutions* are the safest and surest guides to conduct a Democratic administration of the Federal Government. . . . The *Sovereignty of the States* and a devotion to their *reserved rights* can alone preserve and perpetuate our happy system of Government." To a letter from the "Central Southern Rights Association of Virginia" (significant name) he answered in almost identical terms. To several other inquiries of a similar official kind, he declares that "States' rights" and the "reserved rights of the States" should be the issue to be presented by the Democratic party in 1852. Mr. Buchanan was defeated for the nomination by the rivalry of leading Northern Democrats, and Franklin Pierce was nominated and elected. Buchanan then accepted the mission to England on condition that he should not be required to remain abroad more than two years—a proviso which was equivalent to an announcement that he meant to be in the field in 1856.

In one of his prefatory chapters Mr. Curtis says that the earlier Democrats of the Middle States had "a strong tendency to the Virginia principles of State rights; but what these were, beyond a general tendency to watch and prevent an undue expansion of the Federal powers, it would be difficult now to say." Few readers of history will share Mr. Curtis's difficulty; but if any had before existed, in 1852 there was none. The Kentucky resolutions of 1798 had become the favorite form of expression among all the Southern extremists, because their phraseology was the most explicit and clear as to the alleged constitutional right of secession. No one knew this better than Buchanan, and he who boasted in 1839, as we have seen, that he had "studied them with care" knew full well how he would be understood by Southern States'-rights associations when he made the resolutions of '98 his platform. The names of Jefferson and Madison were often used to lure private Democrats in the North to ignorant committal to the doctrine of those resolutions; but not so their leaders. The significant part of the doctrine of States' rights which became the soul of the rebellion was found, not in the declaration that the Constitution gave only specified powers to the Federal Government, but in the sweeping assertion that the several States themselves, in case of alleged violation of such powers, were the "judges, *not only of the infraction, but of the mode and measure of redress.*" No subtilty of sophism has ever been able to rid these words of the whole sweeping doctrine of the disunionists, that, they themselves being the judges of cause, necessity, and policy of secession, the States had each and all the constitutional right to leave the Union when they pleased, and that, once having acted, they were as independent of the Union as if they had never joined it. Mr. Buchanan, as the "careful student" of these resolutions, knew perfectly well that they were so interpreted not only by Southern States'-rights associations, but by all the leading Southern Democrats in 1852. The common judgment of the world is that he accepted them in this sense, and was nominated in 1856 because Davis, Toombs, Mason, Slidell, and the rest of the leading politicians of the South had faith in his sincerity. There is small risk in saying that if his voluminous correspondence with Southern politicians passed unexpurgated into Mr. Curtis's hands, it would not be difficult to find sufficient evidence of this, scanty as are the specimens to which we are treated in this biography.

* By a slip of the pen, Mr. Curtis makes this "Toward the close of General Jackson's Administration" (vol. i., p. 378). A few similar errors have a rather confusing effect on the reader, such as putting the Chicago Convention which nominated Mr. Lincoln "in the spring of 1856" (vol. ii., p. 284).

RECENT WORKS ON ART.

Lectures on Painting, delivered to the Students of the Royal Academy. By Edward Armitage, R.A. London: Trübner & Co. 1883.

Luca Della Robbia, with Other Italian Sculptors. By Leader Scott. [Great Artists Series.] Scribner & Welford. 1883.

Art Work in Gold and Silver: Modern. By Henry B. Wheatley, F.S.A., and Philip H. Delamotte. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

Art Work in Porcelain. By the same. [Handbooks of Practical Art.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

Human Proportion in Art and Anthropometry: A Lecture delivered at the National Museum, Washington, D.C. By Robert Fletcher. Cambridge: Moses King. 1883.

MR. ARMITAGE'S twelve lectures, delivered to the students of the Royal Academy between the years 1876 and 1882, are diffuse in style and frequently inaccurate in statement. The first lecture is upon "Ancient Costume," and a large portion of it is taken up with conjectural remarks on ancient Jewish dress which contain no information and can be of little use. The second lecture, on "Byzantine and Romanesque Painting," betrays a common misapprehension of the nature of Byzantine art and of the value of its leading principles. The unskilled drawing and the frequent uncouthness of form which are characteristic of it appear to be the only qualities which the author recognizes. Its ordered design, through which subsequent art derives some of the most fundamental principles of the Greeks, is quite ignored. The qualities of Byzantine design not being recognized as identical with those which lie at the root of Greek art—mere skill in graceful and lifelike modelling being, apparently, thought to constitute the highest excellence of the Greek sculptor—Mr. Armitage declares it "hard to believe that these hideous deformities

should have descended from ancient Greek sculpture." "But ancient art," he continues, "does not mean the art of Phidias and Praxiteles: it may mean the barbaric [!] sculpture which preceded the advent of these masters"; and he confesses that there is something in the "odious grimace and the stiff draperies of Byzantine figures" which reminds him of this. "A certain traditional arrangement of folds" in Byzantine art he affirms to be derived from late Roman works. We think that a more adequate study of that "taste in ornament" which, as he admits, shows that the Byzantine artists were "not deficient in artistic capabilities," would tend to change his estimate of that great old school which gave us the mosaics of St. Mark and of Ravenna. It is an injustice to students to give them such false notions of one of the most important ancient schools. They should be helped, rather, to see that underlying the most repulsive forms of Byzantine art there are vital principles which it behooves them to appreciate—principles which form the basis of even the most fully-developed design in the Italian schools, and by virtue of which that design is separated by a great gulf from all that is merely picturesque or naturalistic.

In the third lecture, on "Eighteenth-Century Art," Reynolds and Gainsborough are spoken of disparagingly, while, in the author's opinion, Hogarth and Copley are the only English figure-painters of that century whose merit would be acknowledged by an intelligent foreign critic. Contrast with this the judgment of M. Ernest Chesneau, who, in his recent book on English painting, says: "Hogarth est avant tout un peintre moraliste. Reynolds et Gainsborough, au contraire, sont vraiment des peintres." In the next lecture, on "David and his School," these highly conventional painters are characterized as "really great artists," while the truly refined and beautiful English painter Stothard is mentioned with slight praise. In the lecture on "Drawing" are some highly questionable precepts on proportion—as where, on page 119, the student is advised to "make the leg, from the patella downward, somewhat longer than it is in nature." Length of leg, it is added, "gives style and elegance to a figure.' There are, however, some good remarks in this discourse on the expression of movement in figures of men and animals. The unsatisfactory character of those positions which have lately been obtained by instantaneous photography is well illustrated. The key to the expression of rapid movement is shown to be in the length of the stride in running, or of the stroke in rowing; and to produce the impression of such movement we must choose the moment when the stride or stroke displays its full reach. If, in the case of running, we choose the moment when one leg is passing the other, our drawing may be equally truthful, but it will convey no impression of rapid movement.

The remarks on color are singularly inadequate. They contain little more than some hints and suggestions regarding the properties of pigments, and their combinations and mutual relations. There is nothing whatever concerning the fundamental principles of coloring in art and nature. The lecture on "Decorative Painting" is equally remarkable for paucity of ideas. It is concerned, from first to last, with materials and processes, rather than with principles, while the lecture on "Finish" treats largely of the employment of models and lay-figures, and other irrelevant matter. In treating of composition, little more than arbitrary rules and personal preferences are given. On page 219 the author says: "A rule which it is well to observe in all decorative work is to avoid cutting off any portion of the figures." Yet the great designers frequently and freely cut off portions of their figures with admirable effect—as may be seen in the panels of the pulpit of the Baptistery at Pisa, by Niccolo Pisano, in the "Deposition" in San Lorenzo at Florence, by Donatello, and in the works of numerous other sculptors and painters of equal excellence. On page 244 Mr. Armitage speaks against the practice of representing stooping, sitting, or kneeling figures without enough space over their heads to allow them to stand up, and says: "The mannerism of introducing figures too large for the canvas originated probably with the old German masters of the Albert Dürer school. With them, however, it was not a mannerism, but a habit contracted by wood-engraving." But the fact is that this "mannerism" is as old as the art of design itself. It may be enough to cite as instances the Egyptian portrait of Rameses II. in the Louvre, some portions of the Parthenon frieze, and the reliefs for the organ gallery of the Cathedral of Florence by Della Robbia. Finally, on page 245, we have this: "As to the actual dimensions of the figures in historical or 'genre' subjects, there is only one size which I think objectionable, and that is rather smaller than life." The size here objected to is precisely that chosen for their mural paintings with such admirable effect by nearly all the great Florentine designers, from Giotto to Raphael.

The sixth book in the "Great Artists Series" is a sequel to the volume on Ghiberti and Donatello, and other early Italian sculptors, which we noticed some months since. That gave an outline of the rise of Italian sculpture to the schools founded by Ghiberti and Donatello, and this continues the narrative through the 15th and 16th centuries. The work appears careful and accurate as regards the leading biographical facts, and for these it will doubtless prove interesting and useful to the general traveller. There are some good passages embodying observations on the bearing on the arts of the events and conditions of the times treated of, as on p. 90, where, regarding the causes of decline of the schools of sculpture, it is said that it was "partly because imitation had taken the place of inspiration and invention; partly because patronage, instead of being patriotic, as in the early days of the Republic, was private and courtly, the decorations of villas and private palaces failing to call forth the higher nature of artists, as the beautifying of churches and creation of great national works had done; and partly on account of the entire change of thought and aims brought about by the humanistic teaching of the Renaissance." It might be added that the sundering of the arts one from another had much to do with the decline. Among the reflections which force themselves upon the mind in perusing the biographies of Italian artists of the early and central times, is the significant one that these masters were so versatile in genius and in skill. In the majority of cases the same person was at once architect, sculptor, and painter, as well, frequently, as worker in the minor branches of engraving, ornamental metal-work, etc. This forcibly illustrates the fact that all the branches of the fine arts spring from one root, that they are essentially one, and that a true artist, whenever the external conditions favor the free and full development of his faculties, is competent to work equally well in any department of the general field. The history of the arts, too, shows that all departments have prospered in proportion as artists have been thus versatile in practice, and as all the arts have been cultivated together.

As a critic Mr. Scott does not impress us as very discerning. His chief praise for so refined and charming a master of expression as Mino da Fiesole is that "he seems to have wrought the marble till it became soft under his hands," and of Verrocchio he says that he "was not endowed with, and did not achieve, great excellence in any branch." The frequent and needless use of Italian terms not likely to be generally understood by the English reader—such as *stipiti, scarpello, stecchini, gradino, tucco*, etc.—is objectionable, especially in a book intended to be used as a traveller's guide. On p. 101 an illustration is referred to, as on p. 96, which is really on p. 100. The woodcut illustrations are of fair average quality, with exception of the portraits, which are unusually poor.

The chief aim of the "Handbooks of Practical Art" is, according to the editor's note, to bring to the notice of students and amateurs a series of examples, both ancient and modern, of the application of beautiful designs to articles of every-day use, and to the various objects which are frequently employed for purposes of decoration. The aim is a very good one; but it is certainly not well carried out in these two volumes, both of which contain a great many more bad designs than good ones. Indeed, the quality of each book is pretty fairly indicated by its frontispiece, which, in the case of the work on Gold and Silver, represents a coarse modern French design in onyx and enamel, while in that on Porcelain we have a Sèvres vase, in which the severity of Greek form and ornamentation is mechanically copied and associated with a sentimental figure-design in modern pictorial treatment. The fact is, that for examples of beautiful art, modern handicraft in gold and silver and in porcelain presents a mostly barren field, from which very little that is worthy of being held up to students and amateurs as models of taste can be gathered; and there is certainly no real profit to be derived from the study of Milton shields, Dresden china, and kindred objects with illustrations of which these books abound. The text in both books is inadequate and superficial. The briefest historical outline is given; but there is no rational elucidation of principles, or any discriminating guidance.

In a pamphlet of thirty-one pages Dr. Fletcher describes the various ancient and modern systems of human proportion, in which some one part of the body is taken as a modulus, and briefly discusses their supposed employment in the fine arts of the past. He then shows that all these systems are fallacious, since there is, in reality, no such relation of any one part of the body to all the other parts, as they assume; but he argues that the new system of anthropometry—which bases its results upon a mean derived from measurements of a vast number of individuals—may be expected to yield a true and serviceable canon of proportion. This system assumes that "there is a perfect human type, varying, to some extent, with sex, age, and race"; and that variations from this type are due to the law of accidental causes. Without undertaking to discuss this point, which involves some very profound considerations, we will say only, that whatever may be the value to science of this system, it can have no more value, in the field of art, than the older systems—which is very little, if any; for the artist does not work from formulæ, though it may sometimes be subordinately useful for him to be acquainted with them.

History of the Northern Pacific Railroad. By Eugene V. Smalley. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. 437, map and illustrations.

THE first of the three parts into which this work is divided corresponds strictly to the title. Part 2 describes the physical features of the country

through which the road passes. Part 3 follows the course of the main line, with its stations, settlements, etc. The industry necessarily bestowed on the historical retrospect cannot readily be appreciated. The narrative begins with the early explorers of the Northwest via the Great Lakes, and the maritime discoverers of the Columbia River and Puget Sound. It then passes to the connecting link, the famous expedition of Lewis and Clarke set on foot by Jefferson during his Presidency, and actually begun just after the completion of the Louisiana Purchase. Like Jefferson, Lewis and Clarke were Southerners, and all unconsciously worked for the ultimate extinction of slavery by broadening the area of freedom. After them the South regarded expansion on that side of the continent only with apprehension and unfriendliness. New England was now to follow up the advantage acquired by a hostile section. A Boston sea-captain had already (in 1792) crossed the bar of the Columbia River; another, still earlier, had first sailed round Vancouver's Island and past the mouth of Puget Sound. The first popular advocacy of a national railroad between the two oceans—"from New York to the Columbia River"—was made (in 1834) by a Massachusetts physician, Samuel Bancroft Barlow. He was not, however, the first to declare the feasibility of such an enterprise, nor does Mr. Smalley make that claim for him, though overlooking the probable original prophet, Caleb Atwater, another native of Massachusetts, in his 'Tour to Prairie du Chien' (1831). That more vigorous champion of the idea, Asa Whitney, likewise may, from his name, be presumed to have had a New England origin. Josiah Perham we know was a native of Maine (while yet a part of Massachusetts), and the first Northern Pacific Railroad Company was organized under his auspices in Boston (in 1864). The real enlistment of capital presently brought a Vermont element into control, and it has ever since been prominent in the affairs of the company. After the accession of Jay Cooke, as after his failure, the Pennsylvanian management became of the first importance. The final alliance of the Northern Pacific Railroad with the Oregon system was, again, effected largely by Eastern capital. The solitary settlement of Astoria at the mouth of the Columbia, founded by the German Astor, has at last been connected by rail with the Atlantic seaboard by his countryman, Henry Villard.

We need not attempt to summarize the struggles of the road just completed for existence. It was, after all, fortunate in suffering from the popular reaction against the mode in which the Union and Central Pacific roads had been subsidized by the national Government. Its land aid has been all, and will not be judged an excessive or unwise encouragement. It owed much to Thaddeus Stevens, who reported the first land-grant bill, and who forced the Union Pacific interest, when asking for favors, to support an extension of time for completing the Northern Pacific under its charter. It was the victim of Napoleon III.'s insane war upon Germany, through the consequent inability to market its bonds abroad at a critical moment. Mr. Smalley shows clearly, however, that failure was inevitable in 1873. The condition of the Northwest was extremely backward and most unpromising, and the extinguishment of the Indian titles to reservations on the Upper Missouri and the Yellowstone, which was not effected till 1880, was indispensable to the success of the road.

Mr. Smalley has accomplished his difficult task with a creditable degree of success. So far as he has been able, he has given biographical sketches of the men most prominent in all the romantic phases of the achievement, and his account of the financial operations may be taken as absolutely authoritative. For the Lewis and Clarke expedition he might have referred to and profitably consulted Dr. Coues's bibliography.

What Social Classes Owe to Each Other. By William Graham Sumner, Professor of Political and Social Science in Yale College. Harper & Brothers. 1883.

THIS little book consists in the main of a plea for laissez-faire, which is, being interpreted by the author, minding your own business. Advice of this kind is notoriously hard to give, and we cannot say that Professor Sumner has taken pains to make it palatable. He is evidently of the opinion of the Irish priest who, after having bitterly complained of the brutishness of his parishioners, was asked whether they were unaffected by the preaching of the Gospel, and replied that he was not going to waste the good Gospel on the likes of them. The argument is strong and convincing, but those who have held different opinions from the author's are likely to be convinced against their will. They may be bullied into silence and hammered into submission, but they will not make trustworthy recruits. We consider, however, the fact stated by Professor Sumner, that during the last ten years he has read a great many books and articles by German writers, exalting "the state" as a tutelary genius over us all, to be a sufficient excuse for his asperity, and would by no means convey the impression that his adversaries get worse treatment than they deserve. It is sometimes necessary to break your opponent's skull in order to get access to his brain.

The particular fallacy which this book is intended to explode, is that of regarding the state as something more than the people of which it is composed. Every attempt to remedy a social ill by state interference is an attempt to make some people take care of others. When the evil is the result of bad political institutions, then it may be the duty of one social class to see that these institutions are reformed. But when the evil is due to natural causes, nothing but injustice and mischief can result from compelling those who have escaped it to relieve those who suffer from it. Most of the evils complained of nowadays which the state is urged to remedy, arise from the wickedness and folly of mankind. State relief consists in transferring the punishment from those who have deserved it to those whose virtue and wisdom have exempted them from it. The "forgotten man," the sober, industrious, and prudent workman, has to pay the cost of all the commissions, bureaus, and departments that are so rapidly increasing in number.

It is of course impossible to treat thoroughly such a theme as this within the limits the author has set for himself, and still more so to attempt any detailed criticism within the space at our command. We can only say that society is to a certain extent organized as a protest against the remorselessness of the law of natural selection, and that the argument for laissez-faire, to be conclusive, must take account of this fact. We think also that Professor Sumner seriously underestimates the extent to which riches are gained by dishonest practices. Few large fortunes have a perfectly honorable history, and, even where no personal taint attaches to their possessors, they are frequently due to the existence of unjust privileges. It is hardly a satisfactory reply to this to say that the people have created these privileges and have no right to complain of their results. The people are incapable of comprehending the results of their legislation unless educated men like Professor Sumner recognize the duty of labor in the work of political evangelization.

Although we cannot help regarding some of the author's statements as too sweeping and therefore seriously weakening the force of his argument, yet the conclusions he reaches are substantially unanswerable. If the force now wasted in futile and harmful socialistic schemes were devoted to the improvement of existing institutions, we should all be much better off, and moreover, we should be working in the right direction instead of in the wrong one. As Professor Sumner says, a free man is a sovereign, but a sovereign cannot take "tips." If the state is to do for any class what that class can do for itself—that is, if some of us are to be made to bear the burdens resulting from the idleness and improvidence of others—the independent, self-reliant citizen will have a hard time of it. No more important doctrine than this can well be proclaimed, and our country owes a debt of gratitude to whosoever will proclaim it in the sturdy, straightforward style of this book. We need not despair of the Republic while our young men are fed upon such meat as this. Whether Professor Sumner's pupils adopt his conclusions or not, they cannot fail to be stimulated by his reasoning. To follow him or to differ with him takes strong and clear thinking, and we congratulate not only them, but those whom they will hereafter influence, upon instruction in politics worthy of the importance of the subject.

Studies in Philosophy, Ancient and Modern. By W. L. Courtney. London: Rivingtons. 8vo, pp. 204.

Essays in Philosophical Criticism. Edited by Andrew Seth and R. B. Haldane. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 8vo, pp. 277.

THE two volumes of philosophical essays before us, 'Studies in Philosophy,' by W. L. Courtney, and 'Essays in Philosophical Criticism,' by Professor Seth, Messrs. Haldane, Professor Caird, and half-a-dozen other authors, are interesting as showing the present state of the Kantian Philosophy in England. They seem all to be somewhat affected by the influence of the late Prof. Thomas Hill Green, of Oxford, and an obvious likeness runs through their writings—a tone very different from that of the American students of this school. These Englishmen are not satisfied with vague thought or obscure expression. There is no twaddle about things thinging themselves, and the like. Where our American writers too often adopt a style of prophetic inspiration which asserts and scorns to reason, these Englishmen cautiously explain why they think as they do, and strive to make themselves clear even to those who do not agree with them. This is no small attraction. Abstract thought is at the best difficult enough to pursue without having the additional difficulty of imperfectly intelligible English added to it. The reading public have a right to have the philosophy which is presented to them written in clear, perspicuous, consecutive English, just as they have a right to have the book clearly printed, and the words rightly spelled.

We have called these writers Kantian because they agree in following the general line of investigation opened up by Kant, and which Hegel pursued with greater or less success. They do not attempt a precise reproduction of the work of those philosophers.

"Valuable as may be the history of thought," says Professor Caird, "the literal importation of Kant and Hegel into another country and time would not be possible if it were desirable, or desirable if it were possible. The mere change of time and place, if there were nothing more, implies new questions and a new attitude of mind in those whom the writer addresses, which would make a bare reproduction unmeaning. Moreover, this change of the mental atmosphere and environment is itself part of a development which must affect the doctrine also if it is no

mere dead tradition, but a seed of new intellectual life. Any one who writes about philosophy must have his work judged not by its relation to the intellectual wants of a past generation, but by its power to meet the wants of the present time—wants which arise out of the advance of science, and the new currents of influence which are transforming man's social and religious life."

We have quoted this passage at length because it has such a valuable lesson in it for our own writers. The Kantian philosophy is a tender exotic here in this country. One cannot approach it without entering a hothouse whose overloaded atmosphere betrays the artificial attempt to reproduce thoughts no longer in living relation to our time. These English essays, however, are more practical, treating modern science and history and art and religion from the standpoint of idealistic philosophy. They discuss Spencer's evolution of the social organism, and Darwin's struggle for existence, and the new ethics of positivism, with a real appreciation of their value.

"If," says Mr. Courtney, "we confine ourselves to broad general issues, and ask to which side will tend the future speculations of English psychology, the answer is hardly doubtful. For many reasons it seems likely that the ultimate victory in England will rest with the side which lays its stress on science and experience, . . . [on account of] the constitutional English dislike of subtlety, and its preference for that which affords solid and tangible results. And if this be so, it becomes a matter of some importance to adapt to the newer standpoint some of those practical studies and disciplines which have hitherto been modelled on the older lines. There is little doubt, for instance, that the science of education has been hitherto based on something like the Platonic idea of the soul as a separate and special substance in authority over the body. And the science of ethics, too, has undoubtedly some of the old spiritualistic Adam about it, with its insistence on ideal duty and authoritative conscience and categorical imperatives. Conceptions such as these must either disappear or be vitally transformed in the crucible of experimental ethics."

These essays are analytical and critical, not constructive. And there is in them occasionally a doubt about fundamental ideas and an unwilling obedience to practical considerations that is characteristic of our day. Mr. Courtney's volume is decidedly the more brilliantly written of the two, and gives hopes for excellent future work. Both books are attractively printed.

The Fertilization of Flowers. By Prof. Hermann Müller. Translated and edited by D'Arcy W. Thompson, B.A., Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge. With a preface by Charles Darwin. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

We begin our notice of this book sorrowfully with the announcement of the death of the author, which, as we are at this moment apprised, took place in the Tyrol on the 25th of August—prematurely, we judge: for the earliest of the researches which have made his name illustrious in this new branch of biology was published as late as the year 1869, and the original edition of 'Die Befruchtung der Blumen' appeared in 1873. Moreover, the work now so neatly rendered into English by Mr. Thompson, and enriched by "a large mass of Dr. Hermann Müller's recent observations," carries a saddening reminder in the preface by Darwin, "full of suggestion, full of kindly, appreciative feeling," which was one of the very last of his writings. A crowning merit and advantage of Dr. Müller's work is that he investigated with equal painstaking and with equal acuteness the mechanism of the flower-visiting insects and the progressive development of their adaptations, and of the blossoms visited and benefited. Part 2, on "The Insects which Visit Flowers," with its beautiful illustrations, is therefore of special interest to readers and students in this country; Part 3, taking up the flowers in their natural orders, and enumerating the insects known to visit them, is encyclopædic, and is also capitally illustrated; while Part 4 takes a general retrospect of the various structural features of flowers, tracing their general effects on the life of the plant and the course, if not the causes, of its modifications. At the end there is a very full bibliography, drawn up by the English editor, and revised by the lamented author. The historical introduction lets us know how well Dr. Müller appreciated his countryman Christian Conrad Sprengel, who, in that long-forgotten and lately resuscitated volume which was published just ninety years ago, originated this curious branch of biology. By the equally "rich store of his patient and acute observations and his comprehensive and accurate interpretations," inspired and clarified by the broader teleological view opened by "the Knight-Darwin law," the lamented author of the present elaborate treatise (covering nearly 700 pages, 8vo) has restored the German ascendency in this interesting line of inquiry, and attained the highest position in it.

A text-book on this subject was much wanted. The way for it has been well prepared in this country, and we expect that this volume will have very many readers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Kempis, T. Of the Imitation of Christ. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.
Alexander, Mrs. The Executor: a Novel. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 4, 1883.

The Week.

THERE are signs of an approaching struggle in Congress over the wool tariff. The Wool-Growers' Convention at Chicago the other day demanded the restoration of duties to the figures which ruled before the tariff revision of last winter was effected, and censured by implication the action of their representative on the Commission, Mr. A. M. Garland. The reduction in duty was effected by changing in some small degree the classification of imported wools, and by striking out the ad-valorem part of the duty altogether and slightly augmenting the specific. Thus, under the old tariff, clothing wools worth 32 cents or less per pound were taxed 10 cents per pound and 11 per cent. ad valorem. Under the new tariff clothing wools worth 30 cents or more per pound are charged simply 12 cents per pound. The reduction is small, but it has been sufficient to excite the ire of the wool-growers, while it has not saved the woollen manufacturers from loss. The contest is pretty sure to reach Congress before many months. It will then be seen that the manufacturers, however generous the natural instincts of their hearts and the tender memories of the past might prompt them to be, are unable to yield a hair's breadth. They are in the last ditch now, and they might as well die fighting the wool-growers as fall under the weight of an additional burden on their raw materials. The case of the wool-growers has very little merit when we reflect that if worst comes to worst they have only to turn their grazing lands to some other use, the whole boundless field of farming being still open to them, while the manufacturers' machinery is good for nothing but the making of woollen cloth, suspension of which means irretrievable ruin.

The leasing of Mr. Blaine's house in Washington, in which he expected to receive his friends for so many years to come, is probably a sign that he is not so completely out of politics, and so wholly given up to literary pursuits, as his friends have of late been trying to persuade us. There is no better place for literary pursuits, especially those of an historical nature, than Washington, and Mr. Blaine's library is said to have been an excellent workshop for the student or philosopher. But it has lately been made plain that the country voters object strongly to the owning of fine houses in that city by politicians who seek marks of their confidence. They prefer that they should build their houses at their political "homes," and not pretend to have a permanent residence at the capital. Accordingly, we may safely assume that in declining to occupy his mansion Mr. Blaine is getting rid of encumbrances in preparation for the fray. Mr. Windom's fate doubtless keeps him awake. Mr. Windom built himself a fine house in Washington, but his enemies found a photograph of it a very effective weapon against him in his Senatorial canvass.

Ex-Senator Thurman has joined the other Democratic statesmen in explaining that a tariff, when rightly adjusted, is merely a philanthropic agency for the happiness and prosperity of the whole people. He says there is no party in this country which can be said to be composed of free-traders in the sense that by free trade is meant the abolition of all customs duties. What he and the Democratic party propose is just enough tariff to pay the necessary expenses of the Government, so adjusted as not to foster monopolies, but merely to afford the desirable amount of protection requisite to prevent injustice from being done to anybody. In other words, the Senator is a believer in the formula of "tariff for revenue with incidental protection," and the drift of the whole Democratic party is in the same direction. Of course Mr. Thurman, and every other Democrat who has any knowledge on the subject, know that the formula is a grotesque absurdity, which means nothing to anybody except that the Democratic party does not dare to express any open hostility to protection. Nobody will be deceived by this shuffling, least of all the independent voters who are becoming more disgusted every day with the Democratic tendency to dodge every important national issue.

Judge Hoadly's belated speech does not appear to be a valuable contribution to the political literature of the time. It had evidently been so thoroughly "revised" that no dangerously progressive views were left in it. The Judge said he had left the Republican party because since the settlement of the slavery question it had had no "guiding principle," but he failed to point out precisely what the principle is which holds that position in the Democratic party. It clearly is not the tariff, for the Judge avoided dangerous ground on that issue by saying that nothing is to be done with it for three years. This is a longer postponement than the protectionists have hoped for, and the Judge's words will be a great comfort to them. The only hint in the speech of anything like a guiding principle is the declaration that the "Democratic party is the party of governmental economy and personal liberty," which bears so close a resemblance to the prevailing Democratic demand for a "return to constitutional government" that we infer that the Judge has become imbued with that idea, and joins the rest of his party in making it the chief issue for the next Presidential campaign.

The platform of the New York Democrats has the merit of being a novelty among the platforms of the year. Instead of indulging in profuse promises for the future, it consists almost entirely of complacent references to the past. No national question is touched upon at all. The tariff, civil-service reform in its national aspects, silver coinage, taxation—all are ignored. Even the time-honored declaration in favor of the protection of American citizens in foreign lands is omitted, and there is no reference whatever to the stentorian demand of the Democracy everywhere for a "return to constitutional government." The Convention was evidently so completely absorbed in the task of uniting the party that it had no time or strength to devote to ascertaining whether it had any "principles" or not. On the whole, this seems to us the wisest course for the party to pursue. The *Sun*, speaking with all the weight of a national Democratic authority, says that a "great many Democrats become fools when they talk about civil-service reform so called"; and if the remark be extended so as to include the tariff, it is difficult to see how any one can successfully dispute the truth of it.

The Massachusetts Democrats believe in the Supremacy of the Nation, but at the same time do not forget the Integrity of the State; they promise, if admitted to power, to give equal rights to all, without distinction of race or sex. They are in favor of making the freedom of the ballot "impartial"; of honesty and economy in State and Nation; of a thorough reform of the civil service; and of a tariff limited in amount to the sum necessary and adequate for revenue. There is nothing new in all this, and the Republicans are sound on all these questions unless it be the very last of them. There is one point, however, on which that party has not spoken, and as to this the Democrats speak in trumpet tones. They demand the "careful consideration" by the Legislature of the necessity of a law securing to all employees compensation from their employers for any personal injuries they may receive while in discharge of their duties. The Republicans overlooked this branch of the labor problem, no doubt blinded to it by their secret sympathy with the employing class. But it is too late now.

One of the most extraordinary incidents in Butler's history was the appearance of three of his followers, one of them a woman, at the Charities Conference at Louisville the other day, as delegates to make a report on his Tewksbury almshouse crusade, in which they compared him both to Julius Cæsar and to the Saviour of mankind. This led to a sharp retort from Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, and something like a row at the close of the proceedings. No corner of the continent now seems safe from the labors of Butler's emissaries, but he ought to revise their reports, and especially their eulogies. His enemies are triumphing over him now by pointing out that he cannot be properly compared both to Christ and to Julius Cæsar, because these personages were so different. This, at first sight, does seem a fatal criticism, but he will easily evade it, in the eyes of his "crowd," by explaining that sometimes he resembles the one, sometimes the other. In fact, he owes a large part of his success to his absurdity. It is largely the grotesque and ridiculous things he has said and done which have made his fame and popularity. The truth is that there

are plenty of people in the world like Butler; the really odd, unique, unprecedented thing in his surroundings is the constituency which made him Governor. There are thousands of charlatans ready to be as ridiculous and shameless as he, if they can thereby get high office.

The full text of Mr. Justice Field's decision in the Chinese case at San Francisco has come to hand. It overrules, or, rather, controverts, Judge Lowell's decision in Massachusetts that Hong Kong Chinamen, being British subjects, and therefore not within the purview of the treaty with China, are not excluded from the United States by the act of Congress. Judge Field holds that the act of Congress contains all the law of the matter which the courts need regard, and that this clearly intends the exclusion of all persons of the Chinese race wherever born. He accordingly sent back to the ship a Chinese immigrant who had been brought before him on habeas corpus. It remains to be seen now what the British view of the matter is. The British law certainly knows nothing of two classes of subjects, each entitled to a different degree of protection, but at the same time it is doubtful whether any objection could or would be taken to the classification of British subjects by a foreign Power for the purpose simply of exclusion from its territory. Every government can exclude any class of foreigners it pleases from its soil, subject, of course, to retaliation by their government. Anyhow, if Judge Field's ruling stands, it saves the act of Congress from complete nullification, because there are enough "Asiatic hordes" in Hong Kong to flood the Pacific slope with their cheap and useful industry.

The latest Mahone circular is an earnest appeal to his followers to circulate the Washington organ of the Administration, the *National Republican*, among the people of Virginia, as the only means by which to refute the "specious appeals" of the opposition press. This places the Administration in the unpleasant position of not only supporting Mahone with patronage, but with having the newspaper which is edited by an official of the Government used as the chief exponent of Mahone's repudiation and anti-civil-service reform principles. We observe with much pleasure that the Postmaster-General is asserting his authority as the head of his Department, and is doing all he can to check the political activity of his First Assistant, who is the editor of the *National Republican*. If the President would follow this excellent example, he would give genuine pleasure to every true friend of his administration.

If the National Convention of Colored Men was designed to further the political ambitions of any Presidential candidate, it has failed gloriously to fulfil its mission. The delegates were disposed to regard it mainly as an arena for free speech, and all efforts to commit them in a body to any political policy or candidate were hooted down with an uproar which is gratifying evidence that the colored voters are learning to exercise the freeman's prerogative of voting as he pleases without dictation. An attempt to commit the Convention irrevocably to the support of the Republican party was fairly howled out of the Convention on Wednesday week, and a subsequent attempt to endorse President Arthur shared a similar fate. The address adopted by the Convention is upon the whole a moderate and well-considered document and one calculated to make a favorable impression. Its most striking feature is the absence of any complaint in reference to Kuklux outrages or to intimidation at the ballot-box. It may be inferred from this that the outrages have ceased, and that intimidation, if it exists, is of a kind which cannot be reached by legislation. The elimination of this factor in national politics is a prodigious gain all around. It clears the way for reforms in other directions which could never gain a hearing while the story of such grievances filled the public ear, and touched the hearts of all who gave it credence. The address deals chiefly with the social problem, and proposes only moral means for its solution. It recognizes the fact that a tremendous revolution has taken place in the South, wholly in the interest of the colored people, and little short of miraculous in bringing about their emancipation. It acknowledges that the adjustments requisite to a satisfactory condition of society must be the work of time. The allusion made to the failure of the Freedmen's Savings Bank, and the demand that the United States should pay off the depositors, are the least that could be expected from the victims of that disgraceful crash.

Judge Hand, the referee in the action of the State against the Western Union Telegraph Company, to recover the back taxes due for the year 1881, under the new corporation tax laws of this State, has given judgment for the State in the sum of $178,397 26. Other taxes due will, in accordance with the principles of this decision, make the total amount recoverable $626,000. The important point in the decision is that this tax is levied, under the acts of 1880 and 1881, not upon that portion of the capital stock of Western Union invested in this State, but upon the entire capital. Now, Western Union is chartered in many different States, and if one of them can raise such a tax, any or all of them may, and the concern might thus be taxed out of existence. The question is one which affects all telegraph and railroad companies, and many other varieties of corporations doing business in different States. It has arisen in Pennsylvania, whose corporation tax law we have copied, but it is still to be seen how the courts of last resort will deal with it when it comes properly before them.

The decision of the District Court of Hamilton County, Ohio, concerning the liability of Catholic Church property for the late Archbishop Purcell's debts, while not likely to be accepted as final by the creditors, is of great importance. The Court holds that the Church property in the diocese, consisting of church edifices, asylums, schools, etc., cannot be sold to satisfy the claims of the creditors, except in those cases where it can be shown that the property was acquired either in whole or in part by money furnished by the Archbishop. These are comparatively few, and as there are 3,500 creditors and $4,000,000 of indebtedness, the proceeds obtained would afford small relief. The decision is based on the ground that although the title to the Church property was in the Archbishop's name, still it was not his own property, but was held by him, under a rule of discipline of his Church, in trust for various congregations. The case will probably be carried to the State Supreme Court.

The estimates of the crops of the various countries of the world, as reported by the International Congress which met at Vienna on the 27th of August, showed that the wheat crops of all the largest consuming and also of all the largest exporting countries of Europe were below last year's, and many of them largely so. Taking 100 to represent an average crop of the past five or ten years, the figures representing this year's crops were reported as follows, viz.:

	1883.	1882.
United Kingdom	80	100
France	85	100
Austria	85	111⅛
Hungary	100	157
Russia	77¾	102¾

From this it would appear that with the ordinary demand there should be a ready market for all the surplus wheat the United States will have to spare, unless prices are advanced by speculation so as to check consumption and consequently the export movement. Thus far the current exports of breadstuffs this year from the United States have been considerably below those of last year, but the estimates of crops above referred to afford the prospect that they will increase. The official reports of the exports of provisions show that these are largely in excess of last year's. Cotton exports are at present equal to last year's, but, in the depressed condition of the Manchester cotton-goods trade, they may not continue so. On the whole, however, it is reasonable to expect that the result of our foreign trade in the year ending June 30, 1884, will show a balance in favor of the United States as large as last year, viz., $100,000,000. Last year this credit balance was largely offset by the selling of American securities by European holders. This year they have few such securities to sell, and the credit balance will be paid in specie. This is the expectation in London; the Bank of England has been preparing for it ever since last June, when the rate of discount was advanced to 4 per cent. The Bank has been gaining specie all summer from the Continent, and now that a large surplus has been accumulated, the Bank has this week reduced its rate of discount to 3 per cent., and will probably offer none of the usual resistance to an export of specie to this country.

The controversy in medical circles between the old code and the new code has been given a new turn in the New York Academy of Medicine by an address from Dr. Fordyce Barker, suggesting that the code question be ruled out of the Academy altogether and remitted to the County Medical Society, where it belongs, the Academy being a purely scientific body. This suggestion appears to be quite in the interest of regularity, and therefore worthy of adoption, but obviously the

main question is not settled by merely tossing it out of a place where it does not belong to one where it does belong. The issue between the two divisions of the medical fraternity is really between the "code" (as regards consultations with homœopaths) and no code at all, although the record, as made up, presents it somewhat differently. The advocates of no code claim the right to practise their profession simply as men of honor, each to be the judge of his own duty in any particular case. The other side contend for the readoption of the code of former years, which was rescinded by the State Medical Society two years since. The decision of the main question cannot be much longer delayed, although Dr. Barker's motion to throw it out of the Academy seems quite reasonable.

Mr. Murray, of Adirondack and other fame, and for some time a popular minister in Boston, has taken to lecturing against the received Christian theology, beginning on Sunday in this city. The lecture was, however, probably simply a "prelude" to the announcement that he was going to deliver one hundred lectures throughout the country, and would afterward open a law office in San Antonio, Texas, and that "he owed a few debts," which he would pay "in a short time." The law is a profession, however, in which success is so difficult that nobody can well begin it too early, and a gentleman who is going to enter it with a gray beard and hair has not a day to lose, especially if he has a few unsatisfied debts. We would therefore suggest the abandonment of the hundred lectures, and the prompt opening of the San Antonio office, and the postponement of any further demolition of the Pentateuch and the theologians. They will always keep, and Mr. Murray can take them up after he has built up his practice and settled with his creditors. The latter have ten times more importance to him than the theologians.

The customs service on the docks of the foreign-steamship lines, where the baggage of passengers is examined, has been for some years performed as well, perhaps, as our complicated tariff laws would permit. Blackmailing by inspectors has been of such a shady character, if it existed at all, that nobody ever heard of it, and in this respect the contrast with former periods of the service has been very generally remarked. It appears, however, that on the 3d of September a customs inspector, upon the arrival of the steamer *Arizona*, used language to one of the passengers implying that unless the passenger would "do the square thing" he would get into trouble with his baggage. The passenger, in order to avoid trouble, gave the inspector $10, which the latter was not satisfied with, although he pocketed the money. The inspector has since been suspended pending an investigation. The case is one of the most flagrant in Custom-house annals, although the amount of blackmail involved is very small. If the facts are as stated by Mr. Whiteley, the passenger, to the *Herald* reporter, the inspector ought not only to be dismissed the service but prosecuted to the full extent of the law. The full extent of the law in such cases is ridiculously inadequate to the offence, being merely a fine of $50 for the first offence and $200 for the second. The case suggests a much-needed amendment to the statute. The extortion of $10 from a passenger ought to be punished with at least as much severity as the theft of the same sum by a pickpocket.

The *Herald* has a cool and moderate editoria article on the contest now going on between itself and the newsdealers, counselling every body to be patient and above all to be satisfied with small profits. The newsdealers, it says, can make a rate of interest equal to 16 per cent., or five times greater than that of the Government bondholder, by selling the *Herald* at two cents per copy. By selling it at three cents, it says, they make a profit of 80 per cent., which is altogether unreasonable at a time when the rate of interest all over the world rules so low. The newsdealer would probably reply that there is a noteworthy difference between himself and the Government bondholder, since the latter sits by a warm fire, with nothing to do but to cut off his coupons, whereas the former must go to the *Herald* office in all kinds of weather, take his backload of newspapers, pay office rent, fold his papers and carry them to his customers before breakfast, and often in the midst of pelting rain or snow. In other words, the difference to the newsdealer between the buying and selling price must cover not only the profit, if there be any, but remuneration for labor performed. Whether this can be done for one-third of a cent per copy is a question of fact more than a question of principle. Passion will be aroused in any contest where dollars and cents are involved, and we must not expect the newsdealers to behave more calmly than great railway officials when a war of rates breaks over their heads. It is quite in the usual order of things that the proprietor of the *Herald* should be denounced as a grasping Crœsus and an enemy of the poor, at a time when he has none of the sensations which usually characterize the bloated monopolist.

The position taken by the *Herald* has evidently been forced upon it. In any war of rates among newspapers the one which has the largest circulation must lose the most money by a reduction, since the loss takes effect upon each copy sold. A loss of one cent per copy to a newspaper having a circulation of 100,000 is equal to $300,000 per year unless the difference can be made good in whole or in part by increase of circulation at the reduced price. The *Herald* is the sole judge of its ability to stand the losses which result from its involuntary reduction in price. The newsdealers are likewise the exclusive judges of their ability to "handle" the *Herald* and serve it to their customers on a margin of one-third of a cent per copy.

A new field for woman's work is likely to be opened soon in London. Six women, who are students in the South London College of Chemistry, have so distinguished themselves in their classes that there is thought to be no doubt of their ability to pass the examination of the Pharmaceutical Society and receive certificates entitling them to become druggists. They will be the first women to undertake the business of pharmacy, an employment which is in many ways especially adapted to them. It is light and neat work, and the only objection which has been made to their performing it is their lack of the requisite scientific knowledge. That they can acquire this by the necessary application has been shown by the six London students. Certainly it cannot be claimed that the male druggists have always shown that exact scientific knowledge which is necessary in the business to make fatal mistakes impossible. There is no reason to suppose that women would be less careful in compounding medicines than men are.

Speaking of the bicentenary anniversary of the deliverance of Vienna from the Turks, on the morning after the festival, we remarked the singular fact that that capital had prepared for the celebration in ill-humor, grumbling at the Poles for their late anti-German votes in the Reichsrath, and therefore depreciating the merits of Sobieski, whom she hailed as her saviour in 1683. Full accounts of the commemoration since received show that it passed off entirely in that mood as regards the Poland of the past and present. It is surprising to see—and it casts a very disagreeable light upon the acrid nationalism of our days—to what extent King John III. and his heroic legions, and the country from which they came to save the Imperial capital and Christendom, were ignored in the congratulations, orations, and addresses which the Viennese and their imperial and city authorities showered upon each other. Vienna glorified herself, her ancestors, her German defenders, Charles of Lorraine, her Hapsburg-Lorraine dynasty; and the dynasty duly repaid her compliments. The best that was done for the memory of the Polish king was the insertion of his name at the head of the list of the conquerors on the solemnly unveiled tablet commemorating the battle of September 12. Had he not been the Commander-in-Chief and King, his name would, perhaps, have appeared last. Outside of Austria and Germany, however, the gratitude of Christendom almost uniformly designated the festival as the "Sobieski celebration." The remembrance of Sobieski as the deliverer of Vienna will probably long outlive his name as the designation of persons descended from his house; for two females, descended from a brother of the great-grandfather of King John, are the last survivors of the race—an unmarried octogenarian countess, of Warsaw, and her niece, the daughter of a combatant in the Polish revolution of 1830, born in exile, and married to a journalist of Cologne. The royal line of John Sobieski expired as early as 1740, with his granddaughter, the Duchess of Bouillon. Maximilian John Sobieski, who died in Covington, Ky., in 1875, and is mentioned in a German cyclopædia as the last descendant of John III., was probably as little a genuine scion of the royal house as our "Tom" Corwin, of Ohio, was a descendant of King Matthias Corvinus, of Hungary, a connection which was often claimed for him.

UMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS·

[WEDNESDAY, September 26, to TUESDAY, October 2, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE politicians of the Democratic party began to gather at Buffalo on Wednesday for the State Convention. In the evening the State Committee held a meeting and voted (22 to 10) to put Tammany and Irving Hall on the list of delegates to be called in the first instance, instead of putting them in the place of contestants. This took the question out of the hands of the Convention. The Convention met soon after noon on Thursday, and ex-Speaker Chapin, as temporary Chairman, made an address calculated to please the Independents and Cleveland Democrats. Thomas E. Benedict, of Ulster County, was made permanent Chairman. The platform adopted reaffirmed the platform of the last State Convention, referred with pride to the reforms wrought by the Democratic State administration, and heartily endorsed Governor Cleveland. The Convention was altogether in the hands of the Governor, and a State ticket previously agreed upon by his friends was nominated in its entirety. It was as follows: For Secretary of State—Isaac H. Maynard, of Delaware County. For Comptroller—Alfred C. Chapin, of Kings County. For Treasurer—Robert A. Maxwell, of Genesee County. For Attorney-General—Dennis O'Brien, of Jefferson County. For Engineer and Surveyor—Elnathan Sweet, of Albany County. The only real contest was over the Secretary of State. Mr. Maynard got 209 and Mr. Purcell (Tammany and Irving Hall) 173 votes. Mr. Manning was reelected Chairman of the State Committee on Friday. It is estimated that twenty-four of the thirty-four members of the Committee are in thorough sympathy with the Cleveland-Manning wing of the party. It is believed that the party will be harmonious during the campaign.

At Syracuse on Wednesday the New York Prohibition State Convention nominated Frederick Gates, of Herkimer County, for Secretary of State, and a full State ticket.

At a meeting of the New York Republican State Committee in this city on Wednesday Mr. James D. Warren, editor of the Buffalo *Commercial*, was elected chairman by a vote of 17 to 14 for Chester S. Cole, of Corning.

At Springfield, Mass., on Wednesday, the Democratic Convention of that State met with more than 1,500 delegates present. The programme had been thoroughly prepared by the supporters of Butler, and was carried out to the letter. The Convention was organized in their interest, notwithstanding several violent speeches against them and a consequent uproar. Speeches were made eulogizing the Governor for his administration. Governor Butler was then unanimously renominated by acclamation. He appeared and made a long speech in praise of his administration and denunciation of his opponents. The platform reaffirms the national Democratic platform of 1880 and the State platform of 1882. It approves of Governor Butler's course in the Tewksbury affair, and commends him to the people as the only volunteer soldier ever elected Governor of Massachusetts.

Judge Dixon has written a letter accepting the Republican nomination for Governor of New Jersey, approving of the platform, and announcing his intention not to resign his judgeship previous to the election. Leon Abbett, the Democratic candidate, has also accepted. In his letter he favors "all measures which tend to improve the condition of the workingman" and the simplest and most economical form of local government.

The Republican State Convention of Maryland met on Thursday at Baltimore and nominated Hart B. Holton, of Baltimore, for Governor. There was no opposition. The ticket was completed with strong candidates. The platform favors protection, the extension of colored schools, and is constructed so as to please the Reform Democrats of Maryland.

A Judge of the Supreme Court and Regents of the University were nominated by the Nebraska Republicans on Wednesday. The platform favors a protective tariff and a State Railroad Commission.

The session of the Colored Men's Convention, at Louisville, was very disorderly on Wednesday. Motions to affirm the devotion of the colored men to the Republican party and to commend President Arthur's administration called out decided opposition. Late in the evening they adopted an address expressing gratitude for the laws of the United States in their favor, and asserting that they do not ask for any more class legislation. They call attention to employment, education, and sound moral training, as preëminent above all other questions that affect their race. They think the United States Government should reimburse the creditors of the Freedman's Savings Bank. They demand the abolition of the chain-gang convict system, and ask for free admission into the better class of trades and professions. Soon after, the Convention adjourned.

In the Connecticut town elections on Monday Republican gains were made.

The Secretary of the Treasury has rendered an important decision with regard to the construction of section 7 of the new Tariff Law, relating to packages and coverings of imported merchandise. He holds that the cost or value of the outside covering into which goods are finally put for land and ocean carriage, is not to be taken as part of or in addition to the value of the goods; nor is the value of the goods to be considered as enhanced by reason of that outside covering about them.

The new two cent postage rate throughout the country went into operation on Monday. In the city from 8 o'clock until noon the sales were made at the rate of about 100,000 stamps an hour, nine-tenths of the demand being for the two-cent stamps.

During the month of September the public debt of the United States was reduced $14,707,229 11.

The Second Comptroller of the Treasury has decided that officers who were restored to the army by Executive order are not entitled to be placed upon the retired list, and are not in the army. The decision will attract general attention on account of some of the notable persons who thus are deprived of a salary. Among these are Gen. Adam Badeau, Consul to Havana, and General Grant's staff officer and biographer; Gen. Daniel E. Sickles, once Minister to Spain; and Benjamin P. Runkle an intimate friend of President Hayes.

Mr. Miles Rock, Assistant Astronomer at the Naval Observatory in Washington, has been appointed Astronomer and Engineer Commissioner of the Guatemalan Government to locate the boundary between that country and Mexico. The boundary line is about 200 miles long, and one or two years will be required to finish the work.

Judge Samuel Hand, referee in the tax suit brought by the State of New York against the Western Union Telegraph Company, has rendered a decision in favor of the State for $178,397 26. This sum is for the taxes for 1881, but if the judgment is sustained the company will be liable for $139,200 more for 1882. The tax was levied upon the entire capital stock of the company, and not upon the portion invested in this State alone.

The Court of Appeals of this State on Tuesday rendered a decision in the Hatch-Williams case *versus* the Western Union Telegraph Company, reversing the decision of the General Term and affirming the judgment of the Special Term. The original suit in this litigation was brought by William S. Williams against the Western Union Telegraph Company to restrain the execution of the consolidation agreements entered into by the Atlantic and Pacific, American Union, and Western Union Telegraph Companies, and disputing the legality of the issue of $15,526,590 of stock by the Western Union Company to represent its surplus earnings since 1866. Judge Truax, of the Superior Court of this city, at Special Term decided in favor of the validity of this issue on June 20, 1881. On appeal to the General Term this decision was reversed, the Court there holding that the issue of shares of capital stock to the stockholders of the Western Union Telegraph Company was a violation of the statute law of the State, and the payment of dividends on such unlawfully issued stock was also illegal. The opinion of the Court of Appeals upholding the Special Term decision was unanimous, except that two of the judges, who were stockholders in the company, did not unite in it.

The suit brought by the assignee of the late Archbishop Purcell, in which he asked that over 200 pieces of Catholic church property in the diocese of Cincinnati be sold for the payment of the debts of Father Edward Purcell, which had been assumed by his brother, the Archbishop, was decided in the Hamilton County, Ohio, District Court on Monday. The decision is favorable to the churches, except in cases, which are comparatively few, where it can be shown that the property they hold was acquired either in whole or in part with money furnished by the Archbishop.

The One-Hundredth Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of New York met on Wednesday morning in St. Augustine's Chapel, this city, about 250 delegates being present. In the afternoon a letter was read from Bishop Horatio Potter, announcing his ill-health and requesting to be relieved from all official cares and duty. The Convention decided to elect an assistant bishop, and after several ballots Dr. Henry C. Potter, rector of Grace Church, in this city, was chosen. He is a nephew of Bishop Horatio Potter, and has signified his acceptance of the office.

The fiftieth anniversary of the formation of the New York City Anti-Slavery Society was celebrated by a meeting in the Broadway Tabernacle on Tuesday. Elizur Wright, one of the officers of the society elected fifty years ago, presided at the celebration. Albert O. Willcox read a history of the society. Remarks were made by C. W. Bowen, Oliver Johnson, the Rev. Edward Beecher, and others.

The Boston Base-ball Club has won the championship of the National League, and the Athletics of Philadelphia the championship of the American Association.

St. Julien, the great trotter, was defeated in three straight heats at Fleetwood Park on Saturday by Jay-Eye See, a five-year-old, which recently made a record of 2:10¾. More than 20,000 people were present.

During part of the week the Corean Embassy were in this city. They were received by the Mayor and tendered other courtesies. On Tuesday they visited the Departments in Washington.

John B. Carroll, formerly a clerk in the Bureau for the Collection of Assessments and of Arrears of Taxes and Assessments and of Water Rents in this city, has been placed under arrest as the principal culprit in extensive frauds in the Bureau. A deficiency in his accounts amounting to between $14,000 and $15,000, which has been discovered, embraces only three transactions of a kind which are said to have been numerous. The loss to the city will be smaller than the nominal amount, as part of the money will be recovered.

Mme. Christine Nilsson, the prima donna, arrived in this city from Europe on Tuesday to take part in the coming opera season at the Metropolitan Opera-house.

FOREIGN.

Several French newspapers conducted last week a campaign against King Alfonso of Spain

because they were convinced that henceforth he would be an ally of Germany, as he had accepted a Colonelcy of the Uhlans, and had appeared publicly in the uniform of his new regiment. The Madrid *La Epoca* was indignant concerning the articles, and denied that an alliance had been formed between Germany and Spain. Alfonso reached Paris on Saturday, and was met at the railway station by President Grévy and his Cabinet. Great crowds of workingmen were in the neighboring streets and hissed the King as he went by, crying: "Down with the Uhlan King!" The clamor continued all along the streets through which the King passed. He behaved with great discretion during the trying ordeal. President Grévy on Sunday visited the King at the Spanish Embassy, and the interview was of a most cordial character. M. Grévy tendered a sincere apology to the King for the behavior of the mob, in the name of the French people, who, he said, should not be confounded with the authors of the hostile manifestation. He begged King Alfonso to give to France a fresh proof of sympathy by accepting an invitation to a dinner at the Palace of the Elysée on Sunday evening, to be attended by all the Cabinet Ministers, when the true sentiments of France toward the King would be shown. The King accepted, and was present at the dinner from 7 to 11 P. M. He made an excellent impression by his conduct. President Grévy urged him to stay another day, but on Monday morning, at 8:45 o'clock, King Alfonso and his suite left Paris for Spain. There was no demonstration by the Parisians. Most of the French journals condemned the conduct of the mob, and the *Journal Officiel* on Monday published the fact that President Grévy had apologized. It is said that the King is perfectly satisfied with the good faith of Prime Minister Ferry. Alarming reports, however, prevailed in Paris on Monday that the Spanish Cabinet would demand a public apology from the French Government for the insults offered to King Alfonso, and that the German Government would make a diplomatic remonstrance against the indignities to which the Spanish King was subjected. In Madrid great indignation was exhibited. Bands of people paraded the streets on Sunday evening, insulting Frenchmen, and openly threatening the French Embassy. The police, however, prevented any violence from being perpetrated. The King's prestige at home has been increased by his dignified actions in Paris.

The Queen of Spain and family returned to Spain on Monday, and received a warm greeting from the populace. A meeting of the Dynastic Left was held on that day, and it was resolved to organize a great public demonstration in honor of the King on his arrival in Madrid. Many persons of note went to the frontier of Spain to greet the King. On the arrival of the train bearing his Majesty and suite at Irun, Spain, on Tuesday morning, a cordial and enthusiastic reception was given the party. In parting at the frontier with his French escort, the King bade the aide-de-camp of President Grévy convey his thanks to the President for the cordial welcome he had given him in Paris. It was denied on good authority that a treaty had been entered into between Spain and Germany. The King arrived in Madrid in the afternoon. The streets were crowded with enthusiastic people, who cheered him again and again. In the evening he gave a reception, attended by about thirty thousand people of all ranks.

There were rumors in Paris on Tuesday of a Cabinet crisis. It was said that a violent feud which exists between M. Wilson, son-in-law of President Grévy and member of the Chamber of Deputies, and Prime Minister Ferry had caused dissension between the President and M. Ferry in relation to King Alfonso's visit. M. Wilson was accused of having aided in the agitation against Alfonso. Later in the day it was announced that the Ministry would stand until the meeting of the Chambers.

Prime Minister Ferry, of France, had conferences on Wednesday and Thursday with the Marquis Tseng, the Chinese Ambassador. Advices from French sources, dated Hanoi, September 16, were received in Paris on Thursday, announcing that the Black Flags had abandoned Sontay and had retired to the left bank of the Red River. The French forces will undertake no offensive operations until after the arrival of reinforcements. It was again reported on Thursday that China's reply to the French memorandum had been received, and that it rejected several of the French proposals. China claims both banks of the Red River, placing the neutral zone southward. The French Government has declared that it cannot accept these terms, because by doing so it would lose all the fruits of its expedition, obtaining neither the delta, the Red River, the rich mining districts of Tonquin, nor a monopoly of the trade with the southwest provinces of China.

A French Cabinet Council on Saturday decided to convene the Chambers on October 23.

Emperor William, the German Princes, a great number of distinguished Germans, and 250,000 people were present on Friday at the ceremonies attending the unveiling of the great national monument on the Niederwald. The monument is 110 feet high. The statue of Germania which crowns it is about thirty-three feet in height. The total cost of the work was about $250,000. It was erected to commemorate the "unanimous and victorious rising of the German people and the reëstablishment of the German Empire—1870–1871." The Emperor delivered a short speech. At its conclusion, amid the roar of artillery, the tolling of bells, and the cheers of the people, the great blue silk cloth covering the statue dropped. The Crown Prince Frederick William, bending his knee, seized and kissed the Emperor's hand, whereupon the father and son embraced and kissed each other repeatedly. Emperor William then shook hands with General von Moltke. A dinner was given at the Royal Castle, in Wiesbaden, in the evening, in commemoration of the festival.

Bulgarian affairs again came into prominence during the week. It was announced from Constantinople on Thursday that the Porte was preparing a circular to the Powers, declaring that if Bulgaria lapsed into a state of anarchy, Turkey would exercise her right of suzerainty in that country for the restoration of order. It was also reported that Russia would issue a circular to the European Powers taking exception to the recent changes in the Government of Bulgaria, by which Prince Alexander removed the Russian Ministers, Generals Sobolefl and Kaulbars, and placed M. Zankoff, a Liberal, at the head of his Cabinet.

M. Bratiano, Prime Minister of Rumania, held a conference with the Emperor Francis Joseph, after having repeated interviews with Count Kálnoky, the Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Prince Henry VII., of Reuss, the German Ambassador at Vienna. It is generally considered that Rumania's entrance into the Austro-German alliance has been effected.

The Croatian members of the Hungarian Diet have declared that they will not take their seats in that body until the constitutional administration of the government is reinstated in Croatia.

Anti-Jewish excesses were reported on Wednesday in a district of West Hungary. Several arrests were made.

A papal decree regulating procedure before the civil tribunals of the Vatican was published in Rome on Tuesday. It ignores Italian law, and ordains that all contracts between any portion of the Pope's household and parties outside shall be regulated solely by Pontifical law.

The official report of the fatalities consequent upon the late earthquake on the island of Ischia asserts that 1,990 persons were killed and 374 injured.

O'Donnell was brought again before the Bow Street Police Court in London on Friday, when his examination was resumed. Carey's son and widow testified. The former thought that O'Donnell had said he was sent to do the murder, but on cross-examination expressed some doubt as to what the assassin had said. Mrs. Carey affirmed positively that O'Donnell said after the shooting of her husband: "Don't blame me; I was sent to do it." O'Donnell made no defence, and he was committed for trial at the next session of the Central Criminal Court. Judge William Fullerton and Gen. Roger A. Pryor, of this city, have been retained as the American counsel of the prisoner.

Five townships in Tipperary County, Ireland, have been proclaimed by the Government on account of outrages perpetrated there.

At Dungannon, Ireland, on Wednesday, Thomas Power O'Connor, member of Parliament for Galway, and Mr. Small, member of Parliament for Wexford, visited Unchnaclay Market for the purpose of holding a political meeting. They were unable to speak, however, as a body of Orangemen took possession of the place and compelled them to remain within doors. An Orange meeting was held on Thursday. The police prevented a collision with the Irish Nationalists.

A report was circulated in London on Thursday night that Mr. Parnell had been shot. It had no foundation in fact.

The Convention of the Irish National League of Great Britain held a session at Leeds on Saturday morning. The meeting was held with closed doors. Resolutions were unanimously passed expressing confidence in the Irish leaders, pledging support to the Executive and to a policy in the local Parliamentary elections best calculated to promote the Irish cause, and congratulating Ulster on its campaign against landlordism and bigotry. A resolution was also unanimously adopted denouncing mob violence and reprobating journals hounding Protestants to outrages.

Mr. Bradlaugh has addressed a letter to Sir Stafford Northcote, in which he declares that he will again demand his seat in the House of Commons on the reassembling of Parliament.

Fifteen thousand steel and iron workers employed in the counties of Glamorganshire, Wales, and Monmouthshire, Eng., have struck against a reduction of 10 per cent. in their wages. Employers urge that, in view of English and American competition, they must either close their works or reduce wages.

The British Association for the Advancement of Science has decided to invite the American Society for the Advancement of Science to become honorary members of the Association during its visit to Montreal in 1884.

The steamer *Rotterdam*, of the Netherland-American Line, was stranded at noon on Thursday on the coast of Zealand. Her passengers were safely landed. On Friday she split in halves.

Notwithstanding the large reduction made in customs and excise duties at the last session of the Canadian Parliament, the surplus in the revenue of the Dominion over expenditures was larger during the fiscal year ending June 30 last than ever before in Canada, being about $7,000,000.

The jury in the case of Tide-waiter Logan, charged with having originated the recent riots in Canton, China, on Friday returned a verdict of manslaughter. He was sentenced to seven years' penal servitude. There was considerable dissatisfaction with the sentence on the part of the Chinese. Business is entirely suspended in Canton.

BUSINESS FAILURES.

THE reports of mercantile failures for the last quarter foot up 1,803 in number, with liabilities of $53,072,884, as compared with 1,300 failures and $19,000,000 liabilities during the corresponding period last year. Since January 1, 1883, the failures have been 6,440 in number, with liabilities amounting to $118,261,918, against 4,897 failures and $69,000,000 liabilities during the corresponding nine months of 1882. It is impossible to disguise or belittle these facts. Although we have had nothing resembling a panic in the commercial world, we have had a severe reaction in business, commencing with midsummer, 1881. The shrinkage in prices has been partly, but only partly, disclosed in the depreciation of railway securities. The same shrinkage has been going on in mercantile, manufacturing, and mining industry. It behooves us to look for its cause, if it can be found.

It is an old truism that agriculture is the foundation of all industry. A moment's reflection will show that there can be no progress without agricultural progress, because human beings cannot live without food. There can be no advance in the number of population—therefore no addition to the numbers employed in non-agricultural pursuits—without corresponding increase in farms and farm products. Great Britain, with her limited area and dense population and great and growing manufacturing power, seems to contradict this doctrine, but really commerce brings Great Britain into the same relations with the wheat fields of Western America that contiguity brings us. She is a partaker with us in the proceeds of every harvest. No adjustment of tariff duties, so long as we have an exportable surplus, can keep her out, or prevent her from getting a share in the year's yield corresponding to its quantity and to her commercial importance in the world. The same may be said of every country with which we have any trade, direct or indirect. Great Britain has the advantage over us in other than agricultural industry that, having access through freedom of trade to all the wheat fields in the world, she is less subject to the vicissitudes of seasons than we are, and has a correspondingly larger market for her own products—that is, more room for growth in all non-agricultural employments.

The question which we are considering, however, is not one concerning tariff restrictions. We are interested to know why business failures have increased to the extent shown by the returns of the last quarter of last year and of the three-quarters of the present year. "Overtrading" is the usual explanation given for every business crisis, great or small. The solution may be, and probably is, the correct one, but overtrading does not define itself, and it conveys a very indistinct notion of the causes by which merchants and manufacturers are brought low. How is anybody to know that he is overtrading, so that he may stop in time? What signal should be given so that all men may know and understand that it is time to take in sail?

If our premises are correct, the test and evidence of a sound condition of trade is to be sought in the growth and conditions of agricultural progress—our own agricultural progress exclusively, so long as we are hemmed in by protective tariffs. If for any reason the development of trade and manufactures outruns by ever so little the development of agriculture, the excess will return to stifle the traders and manufacturers. It might be supposed that as commerce of every sort is conditioned upon agriculture, the former could not possibly outrun the latter. It would be well for the commercial world if it were so. It would be well if Providence had drawn a hard and fast line beyond which trade could not advance in any given period. But as agriculture itself is not a fixed quantity, but varies in its results from year to year, much latitude is given to other vocations to expand in good years without the corresponding power to contract in bad ones. Expansion implies the investment of capital and the creation of liabilities. These, when once brought into existence, cannot be curtailed at pleasure. Curtailed they must be, if they stand in unequal relation to the state of agricultural production at a given time, but the shortening process will be forced, and not voluntary. It will find its expression in business failures. It would be safe to say *à priori* that any marked increase in the number of failures must point to a present deficiency of the crops, as compared with some former period when the expansion of general trade took place.

What are the facts? We quoted statistics last week showing that the increase in acreage under cultivation in this country had been at the rate of only 2 per cent. per annum since the year 1879. The increase of acreage, however, is only one factor in the problem. The increase of bushels is the really important one. Measured by this test it will be difficult, we think, to show that there has been any increase at all in the amount of cereals grown in this country since the years 1879 and 1880. Those were exceptionally good ones, and trade received a tremendous impulse from the wealth poured out by the favoring conditions of soil and climate. The pace could not be sustained. We have had no bad years, save in the sense that any year which yields less than the maximum is a bad one for the man who has laid his plans and incurred his liabilities in the good years. There are no statistics at hand showing what has been the growth of non-agricultural industries since the census year, except in railway construction. This has been at the rate of 9 per cent. per annum, or 45 per cent. in five years. The shrinkage in the quotations of railway stocks and bonds since midsummer, 1881, has been estimated by good judges at not less than $1,000,000,000. This sum is equal to the cost of 40,000 miles of railway at $25,000 per mile, or to 50,000 miles at $20,000 per mile. The shrinkage in values has been about equal to the increase of mileage, from which it would be reasonable to infer that the equilibrium between railways and agriculture (as regards the prices of securities) has been restored, and that no further depreciation in the aggregate need be looked for. Probably all the "water" has been squeezed out of the new railways, and a large amount of the sugar likewise. At all events, small encouragement is left to new railway projects for some years to come. The competition of capital, which grows fiercer as the world grows older, and of which the present "war of rates" among the newspapers is the latest outcome, must take some other direction. Railway construction and the industries immediately dependent upon it must call a halt till agriculture overtakes the existing mileage and gives the signal for a new start.

Nobody can say what the crop of failures in the next few months will bring forth. The testimony of good judges concurs in saying that mercantile indebtedness is on a low scale, that business is done on shorter time than ever before, and that the ratio between capital and liabilities is more favorable to sound conditions of trade than at any former period. If these are the facts of the situation, we may confidently expect a reduction in the number of failures for the next quarter; but we can only wait and see.

INTERNATIONAL LAW-MAKING.

THE Institute of International Law, which has now been in active existence some ten years, while it has enriched the literature of international law with many valuable discussions and suggestions, has not thus far accomplished much of the work which its founders expected of it. The principal aim of Lieber, Rolin-Jacquemyns, and Bluntschli in founding the society was to "ascertain the juridical opinion of the civilized world, to give to that opinion an expression clear enough and precise enough to fit it for acceptance by the several states, as the rule of their external relations; and thus to prepare, by gradual stages, for that codification of international law at present so persistently demanded." It was under the idea that a code was to be the next step in international law, and that the proper codifiers would be the writers who had turned their attention and devoted their lives to this subject, and that the decisions of such codifiers would be gladly accepted by the several states, that the Institute was founded. It cannot be said that these ideas have been justified by the event. Although it is a fairly representative body, its membership covering a dozen or more of the leading countries of the world, and although it has faithfully taken up and discussed most of the important international questions of the day, the countries interested have shown very little disposition to adopt its solutions, and still less desire for a codification of them.

Being in a certain sense a product of the stimulus given to the interest in arbitration by the *Alabama* convention, the society early took up the question of the relations of neutrals and belligerents, and produced a revised edition of the "Three Rules" governing them, laid down in the Treaty of Washington. It will be remembered that these rules were adopted by the United States and Great Britain for their guidance in future, and both countries agreed to invite other Powers to accede to them. But so dissatisfied were the English with the interpretation of the rules at Geneva, that no such action has ever been taken by Great Britain; and we have, as Dr.

Woolsey points out in his treatise on international law, the curious result of the two Governments differing as to the meaning of the rules, and yet bound to observe them, and to get other countries to do so. "We must admit," he says, as far as future difficulties are concerned, "that any other board of arbitrators would not be compelled to follow the interpretation of the tribunal at Geneva." The revised three rules of the Institute have not solved these difficulties.

The Institute has settled as far as it can one question of maritime law, by declaring the inviolability of private property of an enemy under a neutral flag to be part of the "positive law of nations." This is a mere repetition of one of the articles of the Declaration of Paris, adopted in 1856, which has already been acceded to by almost every European Power, and to which the United States would be a party had it not been for the unsettled dispute about privateering. The possibility of making an international prize court and getting a prize code adopted is a question which has occupied a great deal of the time and attention of the society. It has been at work upon this for some six years. The object is to protect private property at sea during war as far as possible. The Continental members of the Institute are in favor of this, but the English members are violently opposed to it, and the United States has not been heard from. The neutralization of the Suez Canal has had a good deal of study at the hands of the Institute, but the only result has been the expression of a hope by that body that damage done to it by a ship of war will be repaired by the state to which it belongs.

Thus, so far as the great questions of modern international law which relate to the rights of neutrals and belligerents, and the protection of private property in time of war, are concerned, they have been left where the Institute found them. The reason is not far to seek. With regard to the United States, although under ordinary circumstances it might be counted on to join in any movement for the amelioration of international law and the protection of neutral and private rights, its recent attitude as a belligerent has obscured its own diplomatic traditions, and the "three rules" of the *Alabama* treaty place it in a position in which it is as difficult to advance as to retreat. The same thing, to a certain extent, may be said of England. The great nations of the Continent hesitate to do anything, because they may at any moment be engaged in war on a great scale, and no nation is ready in advance to cripple itself by a serious act of self-abnegation. It is true enough that England did in advance of the Crimean war waive the right of seizing enemy's property on board neutral vessels, but this was in the interest of neutrals with whom she desired to be on friendly terms, quite as much as in that of international altruism.

Speaking generally, the period in which we live is, as regards nations, one of armed legal neutrality. Since the United States refused to abolish privateering, no important advance in securing the right of neutrals has been made. No maritime Power seems willing to abandon the old right of dealing its enemy a crushing blow through its commerce, any more than any great nation is ready to abandon its time-honored privilege of levying tribute, or, as it is now prettily called, making requisitions, on land. Such a time is not propitious for the adoption of a code which would only have the effect of handicapping somebody—no one knows exactly whom—in future troubles; and the jurist consequently finds that such work as that undertaken by the Institute is more difficult and discouraging than it might have been a generation ago.

BENEFITS OF TRADE UNIONS.

Some remarkable statistics of the strength and work of the trade unions of England were given by Mr. Frederic Harrison recently in an address before a trade-union congress in London. The most common idea of a trade union is that it is an organization of workmen designed chiefly to give them support in strikes against their employers. Mr. Harrison shows that, so far as English unions are concerned, this is an error. They have more than doubled their numbers and incomes during the past sixteen years. Five of the principal unions, which did not in 1867 number in all 60,000 members, now have an aggregate membership of 125,000. During the same period they have doubled their incomes and their reserve funds. Trade in England suffered severe depression during these years, and the strain upon the unions was very great. Seven of them spent within six years nearly $10,000,000 in support of men out of work and for other charitable purposes, drawing upon their reserve funds for nearly $1,000,000, yet now they have an aggregate balance on hand of $1,800,000. The Engineers' Union alone paid $750,000 to men out of work in the year 1879, and during five years the same society paid for the same object $1,935,000. During the hard times in 1879 more than 46,000 persons were wholly supported by the funds of five unions, which in the same year spent $5,000,000 in aiding the sick, paying insurance on tools and lives, and for other purposes. Out of the total expenditure of $10,000,000 in six years, only $800,000 was spent in settling strikes and trade disputes of all kinds; and during the last year, when their aggregate income was $1,650,000, and their aggregate resources $3,450,000, they spent only $25,000 in settling disputes, or less than 1 per cent. of their resources.

These figures show that the unions have grown into great provident societies, which are as great a benefit to the state as they are to the workmen. No one can dispute Mr. Harrison's assertion that it is a vulgar error to say that organizations which devote 99 per cent. of their resources to charitable purposes and only 1 per cent. to the settlement of disputes, exist mainly for the purpose of encouraging and sustaining quarrels between the laborers and their employers. Mr. Harrison is well known in England as the foremost champion of the trade unions outside the ranks of the workmen. He began his defence of them years ago, when public sentiment, as it was manifested in the press, was bitterly opposed to them. He has maintained his position in the face of all obstacles, and has the satisfaction of seeing all the ablest journals of England come over one after another to his side. The *Spectator* not only cites his figures as proof that unionism is spreading, but shows from them that "it is a good thing that it should spread." The *Pall Mall Gazette* says the old doctrine that no bargaining on the part of the workmen can have any effect in making their wages higher "is now for all practical purposes as dead as Queen Anne," and adds: "Whatever new dangers the development of trade unionism may yet bring with it, the movement has at least opened out to us a new hope. It has given men a confidence, which theorists were wont to discourage, in the power of the workmen to raise their condition by combination, and a new belief in the truly social doctrine that the advancement of one class, however it may at first seem to threaten others, must conduce in the long run to the advantage of all."

One of the most important things shown by Mr. Harrison's figures is that strikes are growing less frequent every year. As the unions increase in power and wealth the number of disputes between employers and laborers diminishes. The reasons for this are not far to seek. The strength of the unions not only makes employers more cautious about provoking them, but has a restraining influence upon the unions themselves. They have more to risk, as the *Spectator* well points out, and are in consequence less inclined to risk it. Their large reserve fund represents the labor and self-denial of many years and many men, and they will hesitate long before risking its sacrifice in what may be an unsuccessful strike. This is in accordance with an old and familiar law. The man who has nothing is always more ready to accept risks than the man who by self-denial has saved something. By gradual development the trade unions of England have become great mutual benefit associations, which, by improving the condition of their members, have increased the proficiency of their labor, and thus directly enhanced its value to their employers.

The trade unions of the United States have little in common with those of England. Here they are chiefly combinations for the purpose of affecting wages and assisting in strikes, and have few of the beneficent objects which are so commendable in the English societies. Yet it is a fact which we think few persons will dispute, that strikes are becoming less frequent in this country every year. The failure of the iron-workers' strike in Pennsylvania and the West last year, and of the telegraph operators this year, has undoubtedly had much to do with making the workmen more reasonable in their demands. By enlarging the scope of their organizations and modelling them after the English pattern, the American unionists would be certain to achieve the same happy results which have been obtained in England.

AT FROHSDORF AND GOERZ.

PARIS, September 14.

After the war of 1870, whenever M. Thiers, who wished to establish a republican form of government, found himself embarrassed by the opposition of the Constituant Assembly, he would say it was impossible to make a monarchy, because there were three monarchical parties—

meaning the Bonapartists, the Legitimists, and the Orleanists. The Bonapartists were not very powerful immediately after Sedan and the disastrous events of the invasion; the Legitimists and the Orleanists were divided by the memories of 1830, which were dying out. The Comte de Paris, led by patriotic motives, went to Frohsdorf, and told the Comte de Chambord that if ever France resolved to return to the monarchical form of government, he would not be his rival to the throne. This declaration was of great importance, since it satisfied the Legitimists, while it reserved the sovereign rights of the French nation. The Comte de Paris did not assert the principle of the divine right: he merely said that if France again became a monarchy, the monarch ought to be the Comte de Chambord, the then head of the ancient House of France.

When this first interview at Frohsdorf took place, in 1873, it was under peculiar circumstances. Very few people in France were aware of the intended visit; the secret was well kept. The Comte de Paris arrived at Vienna very unexpectedly, and the little court of the Comte de Chambord was taken by surprise. Still, some opposition was at first made to the visit, and it can hardly be doubted, in the light of recent events, that the opposition did not come solely from the followers of the Comte de Chambord, but that it came also from the Comtesse de Chambord. She was the daughter of that Duke of Modena who would never recognize Louis Philippe as King from 1830 to 1848; she had been brought up in sentiments which were hostile not only to the House of Orleans, but to the French nation. Married to the Comte de Chambord, she feared the throne of France more than she could desire it; she looked with alarm on the nation which represented the Revolution. There was nothing in the history of Marie Antoinette, of Louis XVI., of Charles X., of the Duc de Berri, of the Duchesse de Berri, which tended to reconcile her with France. Many a foreign princess in old times, married to a French prince, had been obliged to go to war with her own people and her own relations; but these princesses had become queens, and had the duties and responsibilities of the royal office. The Comtesse de Chambord had married her husband in exile; she had never been with him in France; she had never had a court; she had never become familiar with the French nation. The only Frenchmen she saw were those devoted gentlemen who came in turn to discharge some voluntary offices near the Comte de Chambord.

The Comte de Chambord, while he lived in the greatest harmony with a wife who was absolutely devoted to him, saw things from a higher point of view. It is idle to speak of him now, as some people do, as of a man who had been a real king, and who always fulfilled all his royal duties; but it is true that he had a high notion of his representative character, and a sort of dignity which proceeded from it. He perceived at once the importance of a political reconciliation with the Comte de Paris; and when, after a short negotiation, he received him, he never made an allusion to the past, to so many differences, to all the memories which had long stood between the eldest and the youngest branches of the House of Bourbon. He received the Comte de Paris in the most friendly manner, and was impressed by the frankness, the honest expression, the seriousness of the grandson of Louis Philippe. He presented him to the Comtesse de Chambord, who asked the Comte de Paris to send her, as soon as possible, photographs of the Comtesse de Paris and of all his children.

This interview of 1873 led politically to no result, as the Comte de Chambord issued some time afterward various manifestoes, under the form of letters, which made the reëstablishment of a monarchical form of government impossible. But the Comte de Paris, having reconciled himself publicly with the head of the Bourbons, continued to hold relations with him, which ceased, however, to have any political character. He informed him of all the family events which could have any interest for him. When it became known that the Comte de Chambord was dangerously ill the Comte de Paris resolved to go to Frohsdorf. The day before he left Paris he saw only some intimate friends, whom he informed of his resolution. He knew that it was not without danger. At the beginning of this year some republicans, without any provocation on his part, or on the part of any member of his family, had proposed to banish all the members of the ancient royal family. This proposition, which nothing could justify, had been rejected by the Senate; still it might be that he would find the doors of France shut on him on his return. He felt, however, having solemnly visited the head of his family in 1873, that he could not let him die without seeing him; it was his duty to pay this homage to a prince who was the last of the eldest branch of his house. The visit took place, and the Comte de Chambord, already very ill, had much pleasure in seeing the Comte de Paris. He was moved by this mark of regard; he received him with much emotion. It was remarked, however, that this time the Comtesse de Chambord did not see the visitor, nor his uncles who accompanied him. She excused herself on the plea of ill-health and fatigue.

The Comte de Chambord seemed to be better some time after the visit, and the Comte de Paris returned to France. He had not been there long when the news of the death of the Comte de Chambord reached France. Not a moment was lost. The Comte de Paris immediately returned to Vienna. All his uncles followed him. His brother, the Duc de Chartres, who was in Norway, arrived directly. The whole Orleans family found itself united in the Imperial Hotel at Vienna. A large number of Frenchmen who wished to pay a last homage to the Comte de Chambord proceeded to the Austrian capital. On the 18th of August the Princes arrived at Frohsdorf. The Comte de Paris was this time accompanied by his young son, the Duc d'Orléans. The Comte de Paris, assuming the responsibilities which now fell on him, sent telegrams to all the courts to inform them of the death of his cousin. These telegrams were signed Philippe, Comte de Paris. Hitherto he had always signed his letters and telegrams Louis Philippe d'Orléans; but it has invariably been the custom in the royal family, that when the eldest branch of the house became extinct, the head of the branch which followed dropped his family name, and only kept his Christian name. The name of Comte de Paris is merely a title, like the name of Comte de Chambord; the Comte de Chambord signed simply Henri, the Comte de Paris signs now Philippe. In so doing he gives satisfaction to those who see in him the representative of the old royal House of France. Such also was the position which the Comte de Paris was to take in the funeral ceremony of the Comte de Chambord. He had become, in the eyes of all the monarchists, the successor of the Comte de Chambord, and nobody could dispute him the preëminence. Great difficulties at once arose, however, because the Comtesse de Chambord wished to give the funeral a mere family character. She asked the first place for her nephews, the Duke of Parma, the Comte de Bardi; and even for Don Carlos, the Duke of Madrid, who is only her nephew by alliance. The Comte de Paris would only have ranked behind these three Princes; it was singular to claim for the heads of the Parmesan and Spanish branches the right to conduct the funeral of a prince who, during all his lifetime, had asserted his position of chief of all the Bourbon family with so much energy.

The negotiations lasted during four days. The Comtesse de Chambord was never willing to see in person those who conducted the negotiation in the name of the French princes. The Comte de Paris meanwhile received the visit of the Emperor of Austria, as if the Emperor by this demonstration wished to show that he looked upon him as the head of the Bourbon family. On the 1st of September there was a private ceremony at Frohsdorf, in the house of the Comtesse de Chambord. The Comte de Paris would make no conditions: he was willing to accept the second place, and to put himself behind the Duke of Parma. The small chapel at Frohsdorf witnessed a curious spectacle: the whole house of France and the whole house of Austria uniting in the same prayers over the descendant of Henri IV. and of Louis XIV. The Spanish princes did not appear. The ceremony at Görz could not have the same private character. All the French royalists were to follow the procession to Görz; they would not endure to see the Comte de Paris following Don Carlos. But at the last moment the Comtesse de Chambord sent a written memorandum, in which she said that, in accordance with the intentions of the deceased, she desired that "each prince should be placed at Görz according to the degree of relationship." The question of nationality was to be made secondary. It could not so appear to the Comte de Paris: he did not look upon the funeral of the Comte de Chambord as an ordinary funeral; he hesitated a moment, and announced that he would not go to Görz. This determination was taken on the evening of the 1st of September, and the next morning at 8 o'clock the Emperor of Austria announced that he had modified the dispositions which he had taken in order to be represented at the funeral at Görz. He had intended first to send his own brother, Louis Victor; in the absence of the Comte de Paris, he contented himself with sending his grand equerry, Prince of Tour and Taxis. The ex-King of Naples, who, as representative of the Bourbons of Naples, a branch of the French Bourbons, had accepted the precedence of the Comte de Paris, announced that he could not accept the precedence of the Bourbons of Parma, Modena, and Spain, and therefore he did not go to Görz. The ceremony there was in consequence deprived of the presence of the Bourbons of France and of Naples.

These questions are not mere questions of royal etiquette. The French Legitimists expected to follow the Comte de Paris at Görz as the representative of the monarchical principle, and as the only representative of this principle for France. As I said in my last letter, the existing constitutional laws of France have a revision clause, which is extremely comprehensive. A majority of one vote in both Chambers can convert the two Chambers into a constituant congress, and this congress has a right to alter the form of government. The fact, therefore, that all the old differences between the Legitimists and the Orleanists have ceased is significant. The Comte de Paris is the only possible king of France, and the most ardent Legitimists are bound to be loyal to a prince who by education and by tradition represents the best part of what we call the principles of 1789. It is undeniable that the force of heredity is doubled in him by the character of a prince who is in sympathy with modern ideas. It must not, however, be imagined that the Comte de Paris will be an agitator, and take the position

of an unruly and ambitious pretender. He expects nothing except from the free will of France, if the country should find its present situation among the monarchies of Europe too dangerous or too difficult. It would be very hard to foresee under what circumstances a pacific and so to speak legal change of government might take place. It would be almost a new fact in history, as generally such changes arise only from sedition, civil wars, or the dictation of a conqueror.

Notes.

FROM the last two numbers of the *Publishers' Weekly* we select the following fall announcements as not yet having been made in these columns. *A. C. Armstrong & Son* : A translation of Prof. J. J. Rein's 'Japan,' with its fine illustrations and maps. *Cassell & Co.*: 'European Butterflies,' by W. F. Kirby, of the British Museum; 'Some Modern Artists and their Work,' with portraits and specimen pictures—all English, except Boughton; and 'Prometheus Unbound,' with twelve outline illustrations by Sir J. Noel Paton. *The Century Co.*: 'Sport with Gun and Rod in American Woods and Waters,' by Prof. Alfred M. Mayer, of the Stevens Institute. *Dodd, Mead & Co.*: 'A Score of Etchings,' by Haden, Herkomer, Hamerton, Brunet-Debaines, etc.; 'A History of Sculpture,' by Lucy M. Mitchell, profusely illustrated; a revised edition, brought down to date, and printed from new plates, of Bryan's 'Dictionary of Painters, Engravers, and Sculptors'; 'Stone Sculptures of Cópan and Quirigua,' from the German of Julius Schmidt, by A. D. Savage; 'The Northwest Coast of America,' also from the German, and ethnologically illustrated from the collections at Berlin; 'The Basé Country,' travels in Sudan, by Frank James; a new edition of Curzon's 'Monasteries in the Levant'; Prof. Alfred J. Church's 'Stories from Herodotus,' and 'Stories from Livy'; and 'The Chronicle of the Cid,' edited by Richard Markham, with fifty designs expressly made for this work. *Harper & Bros.* : 'Autobiography of Anthony Trollope'; 'Life of Bulwer Lytton,' by his son; and 'Folk-Lore of Shakspere,' by the Rev. T. F. Thiselton Dyer. *Macmillan & Co.*: 'Egypt and the Egyptian Question,' by D. Mackenzie Wallace; 'Notes on the Caucasus'; 'Travels in New Zealand,' by the Rev. W. S. Green; 'Samoa a Hundred Years Ago and Long Before,' by Dr. George Turner; 'Camping among the Cannibals,' by Alfred H. Johnston; 'Isaiah of Jerusalem,' by Matthew Arnold; and 'Investigations in Currency and Finance,' by the late Prof. W. S. Jevons. *G. P. Putnam's Sons*: Edward Armitage's 'Lectures on Painting'; and 'The Secret Service of the Confederate States in Europe; or, How the Confederate Cruisers were Equipped,' by James D. Bullock, late naval representative in Europe of the Confederacy. *R. Worthington:* Ihne's 'History of Rome'; and 'Types of Spanish Story, or the Manners and Customs of Old Castile,' by R. De Los Rios, with thirty-six proof etchings on Japanese paper. *S. E. Cassino & Co.*, Boston: A cheap edition of Sir J. Gardner Wilkinson's 'Manners and Customs of the Ancient Egyptians'; and Fergusson's 'History of Architecture.' *Estes & Lauriat:* Gray's 'Elegy,' with original designs by Birket Foster, W. L. Shepard, W. L. Taylor, and Francis Müller. (This poem, by the way, seems an especial favorite this year with our holiday-book makers; witness the "Artists' Edition" promised by J.B. Lippincott & Co., with the aid of Richards, W.H. Gibson, Thomas Hovenden, A. B. Frost, and others, and the "Harry Fenn Edition," in preparation by Roberts Brothers, that artist being the sole illustrator.) *Houghton, Mifflin & Co.*: 'History of Georgia, from its Settlement to the End of the Revolution,' by Colonel Charles C. Jones. *Little, Brown & Co.*: 'Addresses and Orations,' by the late ex-Gov. Alexander H. Bullock: and 'Shakspere as a Lawyer,' by F. F. Heard. *D. Lothrop & Co.*: A 'Life of Oliver Wendell Holmes,' by E. E. Brown; a 'History of the American People,' by Arthur Gilman; 'American Exploration in the Ice-Zones, compiled by Prof. J. E. Nourse; and 'Through Spain on a Donkey-back.' *Roberts Brothers*: 'New England Legends and Folk-Lore,' by Samuel Adams Drake; 'The Expansion of England,' by Prof. J. R. Seeley; 'In Nazareth Town, and Other Poems,' by the Rev. John W. Chadwick; 'Sarah and Angelina Grimké,' by Mrs. C. H. Birney (in the "Famous Women Series"); a 'Short History of the City of Philadelphia,' by Susan Coolidge; and a new edition of 'Robinson Crusoe,' with Stothard's illustrations. (With this last may be mentioned the edition to be issued by John E. Potter & Co., Philadelphia, with Ernest Griset's illustrations.) *J. B. Lippincott & Co.*: 'Palgrave's Golden Treasury of Songs and Lyrics,' continued by selections from recent and living English poets, under the editorship of John Foster Kirk. *John E. Potter & Co.*: A reprint of Whitehead's 'Life of Wesley'; a 'History of the Methodist Episcopal Church in the United States,' by the Rev. Douglass Garrie; 'Lorenzo Dow: His Life, Travels, Labors, and Writings,' by Peggy Dow; and Kitto's 'History of Palestine from the Patriarchal Age to the Present Time.' *J. A. & R. A. Reid*, Providence: 'Picturesque Washington,' by Joseph West Moore. *Townsend McCoun*, Chicago: 'A Dictionary of Music and Musicians,' by W. S. B. Mathews; and a new edition of the same author's 'How to Understand Music.'

Peter Paul & Bro., Buffalo, N. Y., publish next month 'The Poems and Swedish Translations of Frederick Peterson, M.D.,' which include a version of Tegnér's 'Axel.'

The September number of Mr. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* (F. Leypoldt) guides the student of the Treaty of Peace of September 3, 1783, or of Social Life in New England in the seventeenth century.

In the September number of the *American Journal of Science* is an article by Messrs. Hague and Iddings, of the U. S. Geological Survey, on the volcanoes of Northern California, Oregon and Washington Territory, to which the attention now called to the great Northwest by the opening of the Northern Pacific Railroad lends additional interest. In the latter part of the summer of 1870 members of the geological exploration of the fortieth parallel commenced a survey of these volcanoes, with a view of preparing a series of monographs on the phenomena presented by them, accompanied by accurate and detailed maps. Mr. Clarence King, who was in charge of this exploration, examined Lassen's Peak and Mt. Shasta in California, Mr. Arnold Hague Mt. Hood in Oregon, and Mr. S. F. Emmons Mt. Rainier in Washington Territory. Owing to the late season at which it was commenced, their work was only partially completed, and as the authorities at Washington did not approve of its continuation another season, none of the scientific results obtained, except the fact that actual glaciers were discovered on all the peaks except Lassen's, have ever been published. Messrs. Hague and Iddings have recently been engaged in making a thorough microscopical study of the specimens from these four peaks, the results of which, together with a short description of their physical characteristics, are embodied in the above article. The composition of the lavas in these volcanoes, which are mainly andesitic, are shown to be remarkably uniform, even the so-called granitic rhyolite from Lassen's Peak, which had been considered by Richthofen a type of his nevadite, being found, in the light of recent advances in lithological study, to be, like the other rocks, an andesite.

The two handsome volumes of the *Wheelman* testify, both externally and intrinsically, to the social standing of the devotees of bicycling in this country in a manner worth remarking. No other "rage" that we remember has produced a periodical so excellent in tone, taste, or literary standards, or so apparently prosperous. All this the Boston *Wheelman* has been "from the start." Book notices form a regular feature of each number.

The names given to translations into English of foreign books are a source of some confusion to the reading public. Frequently there is no relation between the name in the original and the name given to the translation. A worse trouble arises, however, when two or more translations appear of the same book with different titles. In 1879 a translation of E. Bürstenbinder's novel 'Um hohen Preis' was published in Boston with the title 'At a High Price'; a few months ago a New York publisher issued a new translation of the same book with the title 'No Surrender.' The same author's 'Vineta,' published in Boston in 1877 with the same title as the original German, now appears in a new translation issued in New York with the title 'Under a Cloud.' No doubt many persons bought these new translations, thinking they were new books and not old friends with new names.

Eminently gratifying is the evidence of an attempt at the South to stem the flood of obscene periodicals that comes from the North. A Richmond Grand Jury has indicted the newsdealers of that city for selling these prints, and the newsdealers have not awaited trial and conviction, but have agreed to discontinue the miserable traffic at once. Within a few years—and it is only within a few years—these papers have been excluded from certain Northern railway lines, at least as regards sale in the cars. The great news companies have been highly culpable in consenting to deal in them. The eye of the passer-by is offended, as the morals of the young are corrupted, by pictures whose exposure it ought to be a common police duty to suppress.

Mr. Henry Brooks, of Boston, has prepared a useful series of specimens of the wood of several of the important timber trees of the Eastern States for the use of teachers and students of natural history. Each species is represented by three thin transparent sections of wood framed together and cut in the direction of the layers of annual growth, at right angles with the grain, and in a manner to show a cross-section of the trunk. The specimens mounted between thin sheets of mica permit a satisfactory examination of the position and size of the different ducts, cells, medullary rays, etc., besides showing admirably the color and general character of the different woods. Architects and builders, therefore, as well as teachers, will find Mr. Brooks's contribution to a knowledge of our trees of considerable practical value. Complete sets representing seventeen species, or single sheets, can, we believe, be obtained by addressing Mr. Charles W. Spurr, 35 Bedford Street, Boston.

M. de Saint-Heraye has a long paper, and an entertaining one, in *Le Livre* for September, on the "Literature of the Cholera," and contrives to overlook Sue's 'Wandering Jew.' M. Émile Colombey endeavors to rectify the tradition concerning Mirabeau's apostrophe to the Marquis de Dreux-Brézé—"Allez dire à votre maître

que nous sommes ici par la volonté du peuple," etc. A copy of the Bodleian portrait of Mary Stuart accompanies an account, with specimens, of her French versification.

Brentano, Union Square, has received 'Paris—Ischia,' the production of the committee of the Paris press for the relief of the recent sufferers from earthquake. The first literary contribution is by Renan, who tells of his happy sojourns on the island, during which he composed his 'Souvenirs.' Rochefort has a clever reflection on the disadvantage of marble palaces in an earthquake country, and the consequent gain to France in sober living if a volcano existed on her soil, and compelled people to live under thatched roofs. The best of the illustrations are those not evoked by or symbolical of the catastrophe.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us two panel photographs of Monsignor Capel, of large size and beautiful execution, and, as we can testify, excellent likenesses of the celebrity of the hour.

The *Revue Critique* quotes from a discourse by M. Person, of the Lycée Condorcet, an enumeration of the memorial statues and busts that have been set up in France in the last twenty years. He gives the name, date of inauguration, and place of 223, not including the 93 statues of the new Louvre and the 117 of the new Hôtel-de-Ville. The *Revue* may well complain that France is a prey to what the Germans call the *Denkmalsucht*.

The fourth half-volume of Dr. Otto Zöckler's 'Handbuch der Theologischen Wissenschaften' (see the *Nation*, No. 893) has lately appeared (New York: B. Westermann & Co.).

— A glance at Macmillan's new *English Illustrated Magazine* shows that it is not a competitor in kind with *Harper's* and the *Century*. The scheme, in other words, is distinctly English: the contributors are everything, the editor nothing (except purveyor); there are no "departments"; there is a uniform typography. We have seen this already in the *Cornhill*, and later in *Longman's*. Indeed, compare the eight papers of *English Illustrated* with the eight of the October *Longman's*, and the variety is nearly the same—Miss Yonge's "Armourer's Prentices" being matched by Bret Harte's "In the Carquinez Woods"; Grant Allen's "Dormouse at Home," by E. Kay Robinson's "Toads, Past and Present"; Swinburne's "Les Casquettes," by U. Ashworth Taylor's "'Till Death do us Part'"; Carr's "Rossetti's Influence in Art," by Haweis's "Richard Wagner's Grave"; and (in a fashion) Huxley's "Oyster and the Oyster Question," by Dr. B. W. Richardson's "Cycling as an Intellectual Pursuit"; while Mr. Maitland's "From the Old Law Courts to the New" is, if not paralleled, at least offset by Mr. Freeman's "Titles"; and William Black's short "Supernatural Experiences of Patsy Cong" by chapters of James Payn's "Thicker than Water." But *Longman's* gives no pictures, and adheres to page-broad lines and large type, while *English Illustrated* is printed in double columns with a smaller letter, and presents a very ornamental appearance by means of head-pieces and initial letters and a large assortment of engravings. The best of these last are very good indeed, and the series illustrating Rossetti's art is interesting in a high degree; but the average is hardly up to what we are now accustomed to. Coming to the contents of the magazine, we find Mr. Swinburne's performance not worth the trouble to understand it, and Professor Huxley's (half-finished) lecture on the oyster better adapted for the columns of *Nature* than of a popular monthly. Mr. Grant Allen has given us more satisfaction than any of his colleagues, for he clearly and lightly and with proper brevity indicates the utility of the dormouse as a connecting link in the evolution of the rodents. On the whole, therefore, the British invader at present has no terrors for cis-Atlantic publishers. Nevertheless, the attractiveness and (absolute, not relative) cheapness of *English Illustrated* will, doubtless, secure it purchasers, if not subscribers, in this country, and to that extent diminish the circulation of the native products Time will show whether the English or the American idea is better calculated to win the favor of the Anglo-Saxon reading public.

—Dr. E. J. James, Professor of Political Economy and Administrative Law in the University of Pennsylvania, has contributed an interesting and valuable paper to Conrad's *Jahrbücher für Nationalökonomie* on the "Study of Political Science in the United States." The ground is taken that in no other country are the Elements of Political Economy so widely studied as in America, and nowhere else has so great progress been made within the past few years in the more advanced studies of the science. Some fifteen pages of the article, or nearly half of it, are devoted to a description of the work done in the schools and colleges to promote a more or less general elementary knowledge of the various phases of the science of government. The author then turns to a more careful consideration of the three schools established within the past few years for the promotion of more advanced studies in this direction; viz., the Schools of Political Science in the University of Michigan and Columbia College, and the Wharton School of Finance and Economy at Philadelphia. The courses of study in each of these schools are given and the peculiarities of each one pointed out. Attention is called to the fact that while the school at Ann Arbor is particularly strong on the side of History, the school in New York devotes itself more especially to Constitutional and Administrative Law, and that in Philadelphia to Political Economy and Finance. The terms of admission to the several schools are also pointed out. At the close of the paper the author devotes a few paragraphs to a consideration of the probable future of these studies in America. The most formidable obstacle in the way of any very great popularity of the schools is the fact that they lead directly to no one of the professions except the academic, in which the demand must always be limited. As yet the civil service has made no call for the technical information these schools are designed to impart. The sphere of the schools, therefore, is not so much to fit their students for professional economists as to elevate and inform that class of educated persons which is to take the leading part in moulding and directing public opinion on political affairs. Dr. James is of the opinion that schools of Political Science in this country will most successfully fulfil their work when they carry it on at the great seats of learning, and especially in connection with the great law schools. Not only do the studies form an admirable preparation for a knowledge of Law and Jurisprudence, but the knowledge thus acquired is likely to be most successfully disseminated among the masses of the people, and for that reason most influential in improving our political methods. The paper is well worthy of translation and publication in accessible and popular form.

—The assumption that professional training is always traceable in literary style has suggested many ingenious and interesting researches, but few more curious than the work of Dr. Hobart on the 'Medical Style of St. Luke,' recently published in the Dublin University Press Series. Dr. Hobart has undertaken to show (and has fairly succeeded in showing), from the language employed in the third Gospel and the Acts of the Apostles, that both are the works of a person well acquainted with the language of the Greek medical schools. This, of course, confirms the traditional view that the author of both was "Luke the beloved physician," and disposes of any patchwork theory as to the origin of the Gospel. The first part treats of what may be called the medical cases, the miracles of healing, in which the writer is more circumstantial than the other Evangelists, shows more professional knowledge, and uses technical language such as we find employed in the extant Greek medical writers, especially Hippocrates, Aretæus, Dioscorides, and Galen — language such as a layman would not be likely to use. Here the internal evidence is stronger and more satisfactory than in the second part, which deals with the medical coloring of the general narrative. Dramatists and novelists of the old school have greatly exaggerated the tendency of professional men to use technical terms in every-day speech and writing. The professional man of our time certainly does not betray himself in any such crude fashion, and perhaps the consciousness of the profession may keep down the technical. Still, such evidence is not to be set aside even when it stands alone, and, when it confirms the technical treatment of professional cases, must be allowed to have cumulative force. If, for instance, the authorship of "Kabale und Liebe" were disputed, the medical imagery of Schiller's younger days might be suffered to have weight, and the legal compounds with "where" and "there" are apt to peep out in the popular writings of lawyers. While, then, exception may be taken to details in this part of the work—as, for example, to the "medical" character of παρακολουθεῖν—there are many points of great interest and cogency, such as the technical character of the word employed for the "corners" of the sheet in Acts x., 11. The well-known predominance of σύν in St. Luke as compared with the other Evangelists is to be explained by the conservatism of medical Greek, which continued on the same lines from Hippocrates to Galen. Σύν, strictly speaking not a prose preposition, would naturally hold its own in prescriptions as in business contracts and in religious formulæ. The book is a fascinating study to every investigator of the New Testament idiom, and even those who take no interest in the Greek part of it may pick up some significant points. Grace must have done much for St. Luke when we reflect that he is the only one of the Evangelists that records the proverb cited by Jesus, "Physician, heal thyself"; and it may be worth while to notice that in the narrative of the woman with an issue of blood St. Matthew, who never spares the publicans, spares the physicians, St. Mark emphasizes the sufferings of the patient at the hands of her medical men as well as the expense of the treatment and its futility, while St. Luke looks on the pain of the treatment as a natural concomitant, dwells only on the exhaustive fees, and half throws the blame on the want of recuperative energy in the woman's system.

—The Leipsic publishing house of F. A. Brockhaus not long since completed the new edition, elaborated by Ernst Klein, of Fessler's famous 'History of the Hungarians.' The original work appeared in Leipsic in 1815-25, in ten large volumes, under the title 'Geschichte der Ungarn und deren Landsassen.' It almost completely superseded the earlier German publications of Gebhardi ('Geschichte des Reiches Ungarn und der damit verbundenen Staaten,' 4 vols., Leipsic, 1778-82) and of Engel ('Geschichte des ungarischen Reiches,' 5 vols., Vienna, 1813-14)—both

of which were issued as component parts of very extensive universal histories—in spite of great merits which render them still useful; and it found no worthy rival in German in Majláth's 'Geschichte der Magyaren' (5 vols., 1828-31), though this work, less learned but more popular, obtained a wide circulation. Nor have the German translations from the Magyar of the more recent national histories of Horváth and Szalay thrown Fessler's bulky volumes into the shade. It is, however, this very bulkiness of the original publication which has always limited the sphere of its readers, and has made a reëlaboration in an abridged form desirable. The new edition embraces only five volumes of more moderate size; its title is, 'Geschichte von Ungarn, von Ignaz Aurelius Fessler; zweite vermehrte und verbesserte Auflage, bearbeitet von Ernst Klein' (1867-83). The change in the title and the word "vermehrte"—while the work is so considerably reduced in extent—sufficiently indicate that the editor was not content with merely condensing the author's diffuse narratives and omitting some of his now uninteresting details and excessive historico-philosophical speculations. Herr Klein, a German Protestant clergyman of the extreme north of Hungary, where also Engel belonged, has to a considerable extent modified the tenor of the book by frequently substituting his own views of events, actions, and actors for those of Fessler. Thus, what is designated as a new edition is virtually a new book, following the plan, the arrangement and divisions, and the choice of topics of the old, and generally borrowing its narrative style.

—Few careers of authors have been as strangely checkered as Fessler's, and one wonders how a man so migratory and eccentric, doomed to so many changes of position, occupation, and study, could find time and tranquillity to carry out a literary enterprise of such weight and magnitude as was his. We exhibit only a portion of his vicissitudes—which form the subject of a very interesting autobiography ('Rückblicke,' etc., 1826)—when we mention that he spent ten of his youthful years, from 1773, as a Capuchin monk in various convents of Hungary and Vienna, but eventually denounced convent life to the Emperor Joseph II.; was four years professor of Oriental languages and Old Testament hermeneutics in Lemberg, and was thence forced, in 1784, by fanatical persecution to flee to Prussian Silesia; educated a prince's children, adopted Protestantism (1791), reformed with Fichte a masons' lodge in Berlin, and became royal ecclesiastical "consulent" in Prussian Poland, but renounced Masonry in 1801, and lost his position after the battle of Jena in 1806; was in 1809 called by Alexander I. as professor of Oriental languages and philosophy to St. Petersburg; was denounced as an atheist and deposed, but made a member of the Legislative Commission, and sent to the Government of Saratov, to realize some philanthropic schemes; was deprived of his salary in 1815, regained it two years later, joined the Moravians at Sarepta, was appointed, in 1819, Superintendent of the evangelical communities in Saratov, and, on the abolition of the Saratov consistory by Czar Nicholas in 1833, superintendent-general of the Lutheran congregation in St. Petersburg, where he died in 1839, at the age of nearly eighty-four. He was the author of several historical novels and other writings, but only his great history survives in universal literature.

—Among the restorations of modern times perhaps none is more remarkable than that of the tapestries called *la dame à la licorne*. They were found in a château in Boussac, which had been converted into a sous-préfecture. The officials had cut them up to fit the panels of the walls—a head here, a body there—and what they could not use that way served as carpets and mats. In such base uses M. Sommerard, agent of the Commission des Monuments Historiques, found them, and after some bargaining secured them for 25,000 francs. At the Hôtel de Cluny the fragments were spread out, fitted in place, and after some months of labor perfectly repaired. There are six pieces, each about 3 mètres long by 3.7 high. Each represents a scene in the life of a great lady of the fifteenth century. She is richly dressed in gold brocade and velvet, and has at her sides a lion and a unicorn holding lances with oriflammes and other banners. The background is a bright red; the lady and the animals stand on a green parterre. In one scene she is presenting dainties to her falcon; in another she is wearing a crown of roses, in another playing on the organ; in a fourth she is coming out of a tent bearing the device *À mon seul désir;* in another she holds the unicorn on her knees and its image is reproduced in a mirror. It is said that the rich tones, the delicate design, the brilliancy and harmony of color are not surpassed by any known tapestry. And this is what the good people of Boussac were using for door mats. They are now building a market with the proceeds. It has been discovered that the lady's name was La Viste, that she lived in Lyons, and that Pierre d'Aubusson, being desperately in love with her, had this tapestry made for her pleasure.

—The Germans do claim Copernicus as a countryman, but they leave King John Sobieski, "with his glory," to the Poles. The London *Times*, however, in reproducing the inscription of the memorial stone unveiled on the summit of the Kahlenberg, on occasion of Vienna's great anniversary, translates it thus: "From these heights, on the morning of the 12th of September, 1683, John *Römisch* Sobieski, King of Poland, . . . John George *Römisch* of Saxony, . . . and other commanders, descended with the troops of the Emperor Leopold *Römisch*, . . . to the battle for the deliverance of Vienna." (The italics are ours.) The natural inference is, that, like the Elector of Saxony, John Sobieski, though King of independent Poland, was a member of the Empire of which "Leopold Römisch" was the head—all hitherto written history to the contrary notwithstanding. But the thing is not so, and we have irrefragable evidence for our assertion. We have the original German inscription in the most authentic form before us, and in this the words corresponding to "John Römisch Sobieski," "John George Römisch," and "Leopold Römisch" are: "Johann III. Sobieski," "Johann Georg III.," and "Leopold I." Nor is the explanation of the substitution by the *Times* of "Römisch" for "III." or "I." difficult to find. The Vienna correspondent of that journal dictated his correspondence to an amanuensis, in German, thus: "Johann drei (Römisch)," "Johann Georg drei (Römisch)," "Leopold eins (Römisch)." That is, he told him not to write "der Dritte," "der Erste," or "Johann 3," "Leopold 1," using Arabic numerals, but to write "III.," "I." in *Roman* (*Römisch*) figures; and the amanuensis, strictly obeying, wrote "Johann drei Römisch," "Johann Georg drei Römisch," "Leopold eins Römisch." As the English translator of the correspondence could discover no meaning for "drei" and "eins," he left out these words without daring to alter the three times repeated "Römisch," which he probably considered an indubitably integral word of the inscription, referring to the Roman Empire.

—But even our New York dailies will nod like the "Thunderer." We recall instances, now tolerably old, when we read how "The Czar declares that Lithuania is even worse governed now than under the Emperor Nicholas," the reference being to the *Czas*, a Polish newspaper of Cracow; and again: "The Austrians have cut the railway in the rear of the Prussians, between Abo and Lepanto," towns of Finland and Greece respectively, separated by twenty-two degrees of latitude. The latter piece of news, however, given without comment, was incomparably less striking than the following cable despatch with ample geographical explanation — the latter copied from Lippincott's 'Gazetteer' — which appeared a little more than a month ago in one of the most prominent American journals:

"CONSTANTINOPLE, Aug. 21.—Brigands have captured the Governor and several councillors of Florian, near Salonica. They demand $20,000 for the ransom of the captives"

"Florian is a suburb of La Valetta, a seaport city and capital of the island of Malta. It contains the dwellings of many English families, and has barracks, a botanic garden and a house of industry for female children. Salonica is a seaport city in European Turkey, in Roumelia, capital of a sanjak. The population is estimated at 80,000, of whom 25,000 are Jews, 5,000 Turks, and the rest Greeks and Franks."

CURTIS'S BUCHANAN.—II.

Life of James Buchanan, Fifteenth President of the United States. By George Ticknor Curtis. Harper & Brothers. 2 vols., pp. 625, 707.

THE campaign of 1856 was fought, on the Democratic side, upon the doctrine that the Territories of the United States were none of them closed against slavery, and could not be closed, except in the act of adopting a State constitution prior to admission into the Union. In short, it put all the Territories in the same category that Southern territory, south of the Missouri Compromise line, had before been in. The practical application of it was the Kansas-Nebraska struggle, in which the attempt was made to force Kansas into the Union under a constitution establishing slavery against the will of an overwhelming majority of her citizens. The success of the South in dividing the North by the aid of its leading politicians, while the slave States were an absolute unit in all that affected the slave interest, led to an over-confidence that hastened their ruin. Their repudiation of all compromises in 1854 led, as we have already said, to the organization of the Republican party, and to the absorption into it of all other political organizations opposed to the Democrats. The challenge of the disunionists was accepted; the old compromises were admitted to be dead by the hand of the slave propagandists, and the exclusion of slavery from all the national territory outside of organized States was made the new platform. Mr. Curtis tells us that Mr. Buchanan did not approve the repudiation of the compromises by his party; but (as we have before said) he gives us no proof of it, and Buchanan himself contradicts him, for he lauds the platform of 1856 as just, fair, and worthy of acceptance. In addressing his neighbors after his nomination (vol. ii., p. 176), he calls it "a plain and elementary principle of all popular governments." In his inaugural he calls it "a happy conception," and in his speech at the White House in 1860 (vol. ii., p. 292) he declared it confiscation of property for a Territorial legislature to prohibit slavery.

It was the fashion among Democratic politicians of that time to talk vaguely of the aggressions of the abolitionists, which made the life and property of Southern slaveholders insecure, and naturally accounted for, if they did not justify, the threats of disunion at the South. We cannot too carefully recall distinctions which it was their policy to hide and confuse.

The "abolitionists" were a small body of earnest people who kept outside of all political parties, and devoted themselves to preaching against slavery as a great moral wrong, which ought immediately to be abolished by the conscientious act of slaveholders themselves. To suppress them would be to crush liberty of thought, of speech, and of the press. Putting them down "by an enlightened public opinion," which Mr. Buchanan recommended, had been tried by mobs when they were few and feeble, and had failed. It failed because the agitation was in favor of eternal right and justice against a horrible wrong; because the reform was one of those great movements in human progress, like the abolition of feudalism and the establishment of representative government, sure to take its place, as it has done, among the most sacred struggles for the elevation of man. As its methods were only moral ones, its suppression would directly attack every intellectual and personal liberty that freemen could hold dear. To say that the South could not live under a government which did not put this agitation down, was to say that discussion of fundamental human rights was inconsistent with their system. Yet this position Mr. Buchanan adopted.

Turning to the political movements against slavery, we find they were directed carefully and wholly against its spread. No political organization in the United States ever claimed the right, under the Constitution, to meddle with slavery within the slave States. That these parties were aggressive is untrue. Their action always responded to aggressions of the slave power, and they never reached formidable proportions in numbers till the audacious repudiation of all compromises by the Democratic party in 1854. Then the Republican party was formed, and simply accepted the issue forced upon the country, as we have already noted. When the Constitution was adopted, every foot of territory which the nation owned was for ever dedicated to freedom by the ordinance of 1787. The Union was therefore formed with the necessary understanding that no more slave States could be formed except by the subdivision of States already existing. But soon Louisiana and Florida were added to the South. It would have been right for the free States to insist that they should not be received except as free territory; but they did not. In 1819 they objected to the admission of Missouri as a slave State, because it was not a fair division of the Louisiana purchase, and was north of the Ohio River line which had been the boundary between the two sections. The Missouri Compromise followed, admitting that State with slavery, but agreeing that no more slave States should be made north of 36° 30′. Was that aggression? Then came the reduction of our limits on the northeast, and the double-faced dealing which brought the northwest boundary nearly six degrees of latitude southward. Was that aggression? The shameful history of the Mexican war was next in order, with the annexation of Texas and the boundless room for the peculiar institution to spread. The Wilmot proviso was the attempt of Northern men of all parties to offset the increase of slave territory in Texas by providing that any other taken from Mexico should be free. It was at first conceded by the South, but, failing to become law by a mere accident, the Southern demand enlarged, and the proviso was bitterly opposed and defeated. The aggression here was surely not Northern. Then came the Fugitive Slave Law and the repudiation of compromises, with the bold demand that the law of personal property should be applied to slaves everywhere within the national territory. In the face of such a history, the talk of free-State aggression was simply impudent, and, on the part of Northern politicians like Mr. Buchanan, deserved still harsher characterization.

But, it was said, your Northern States passed "personal liberty" bills. Not till after the passage of the Fugitive Slave Law, which deprived the personal liberty of free citizens of the protection of jury trial. But, if a balance were to be struck, we must look into Southern State legislation. Before that time, several Southern States had passed laws imprisoning free colored sailors on Northern ships all the time they might be in their ports, and charging the expense of the wrong upon the ships. No obstacle was made in Northern States to making cases for decision in Federal courts on any disputes arising under our laws; but when Massachusetts sent Judge Hoar to make a test case for her seamen in South Carolina, the Legislature by resolution called upon the Governor to expel him, and he was violently prevented from bringing the suit. Substantially the same was done in Louisiana. The war of 1812 with Great Britain was made for a less cause. When to these things are added the State laws interfering with the mails and with the freedom of the press, the laws against the residence or immigration of free colored citizens of the North, the balance of grounds of complaint was so greatly against the slave power, that the pretence of Northern aggression here, as in the case of Federal action, is contemptible. It is sad evidence of the deep root which early prejudice takes, that Mr. Curtis can to-day summarize those events in nearly the tone and sense of the pro-slavery politicians of 1860.

This brings us to the critical time in the life and career of Mr. Buchanan, to which all the rest was prelude. He was President of the United States. The determination of the disunionists to break up the Union, which he had described in 1850, and again in 1856 (vol. ii., p. 182), had not grown weaker, but had increased with their numbers and their power. Admit that the election of 1860 had shown that the Republican party had the power and the will to prohibit the further extension of slavery: their constitutional right to do so they thoroughly believed, and it was never really doubtful. They would do only what the fathers had done in the ordinance of 1787. The election of Mr. Lincoln was confessedly legal in form and in fact. How, then, should a patriotic President act in the face of expected secession? Mr. Curtis assumes that Buchanan had never adopted the heresy of the right of secession. The evidence is against him; but let it be assumed that it is true: what should he do? He was on personally friendly, even intimate, terms with the leading disunionists. Two of them, Cobb and Thompson, were in his Cabinet—three, if we do not accept the theory that Floyd only joined them when his peculations were discovered. His relations to Thompson were even affectionate. It is as certain that he knew the purposes of the Southern leaders as any historical conclusion can be. Yet down to the meeting of Congress in December, not only was no preparation made to meet the storm, but no word of warning was spoken. The Governor of South Carolina sent his message to the Legislature on the very day of Lincoln's election, recommending the call of a convention to consider "the mode and measure of redress," using the very words of the resolutions of '98 which have been before quoted. This was the 5th of November. On the 7th the Judge of the United States Court in South Carolina resigned, and the Grand Jury refused to act, the whole scene being only too plainly a prearranged tableau with an eye to public effect. It would help Mr. Buchanan's reputation if it could be shown that it was not also intended to meet his opinion that he could not enforce the national laws if there were no national officers through whom to do it. On the 12th the bill for the convention passed, calling it as soon as the forms of election could possibly allow. It met on the 17th of December, and was told by W. Porcher Miles that he was just from a consultation in Washington of friends from every Southern State, who unanimously urged instant secession. The Senators of the cotton States (those of South Carolina having already resigned), in a meeting on the 5th of December, had resolved that their States should secede "as soon as may be" and hold a meeting to organize a Southern Confederacy at Montgomery not later than the 15th of February. The calls for secession conventions in most of those States were already out. These facts were no secret to the country; the President knew them all, and a great deal more. No other man knew so well the purposes of the disunion leaders. Had he broken with them? So far from it that he submitted the draft of his annual message to Jefferson Davis, and the latter tells us that all the modifications which he (Davis) suggested were accepted ('Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government,' p. 59). Davis tells us further that he had gone to Washington on the urgent request of two of the Cabinet (no doubt Thompson and Cobb) "on account of the influence which it was supposed he might exercise with the President in relation to his forthcoming message." Afterward the message was changed so as to displease Davis; but unless the latter falsifies the fact (and Mr. Curtis expressly declines an issue of veracity with him), the message was at first such as the leader of the secessionists was content with.

What shall we say as to the disunion members of the Cabinet? They resigned on their own motion when they were ready, Thompson on the 8th of January, 1861, because, as he alleged, of a purpose to send troops to Fort Sumter. Writing to the President on the 10th, he says: "For more than forty days I have regarded the display of a military force in Charleston or along the Southern coast by the United States as tantamount to war. Of this opinion you and all my colleagues of the Cabinet have been frankly advised." The character which Buchanan gives Thompson in the correspondence stops the mouth of any advocate of the former from raising the question of veracity, quite as much as in the case of Davis. Before the 1st of December, therefore, Buchanan knew of these views of Thompson, if not for a much longer period. But there is evidence still more startling, if possible. The *Nation* formerly called public attention to the disclosures of Senator Clingman, of North Carolina, in his published volume of speeches (p. 526. See the *Nation*, vol. xxv., p. 171, No. 637). Clingman there tells circumstantially of Thompson's visit to North Carolina in December, 1860, as a *commissioner from Mississippi to promote the secession of North Carolina*. Clingman himself questioned the honorable character of the action unless Buchanan knew of it. Thompson assured him that he did. Clingman being still sceptical, Thompson made a second full explanation, and declared that Buchanan still wished him to go, and hoped he might succeed. Clingman adds: "I could not help exclaiming, Was there ever before any potentate who sent out his own Cabinet Minister to excite an insurrection against his Government!" Can Mr. Curtis be ignorant of all this?

Can any rational person doubt that a patriotic President would have insisted upon ridding his Cabinet of secessionists at the first movement of South Carolina on the 5th of November, if he had not done it before? It is only too plain that he was with reason regarded by the secessionists as one of them. No other theory accounts for their conduct or for his. The growing wrath of

the Northern people made him insert in his annual message of December 3 a denial of the right of secession which was not there when Davis approved the draft; and the substitution of Holt, Dix, and Stanton for Cabinet officers who resigned introduced more wholesome influences among his advisers. His message, however, remains one of the most astounding documents ever issued by the head of a government. He puts upon the North the responsibility for the rebellion, while he admits that the South had nothing to complain of but agitation. He denies the technical right of secession, while he admits that the South had the right of revolution, which the Federal Government would have no right to resist. He says it would be his duty to sustain officers of the Government in the South, but, since all have resigned, no embarrassment to them can arise from that duty. He alleged the duty to hold the forts as real estate, but the directions given to the handful of men in them "to act strictly on the defensive," and the unconcealed intention to withhold reinforcements, would naturally indicate that this annoyance would be only temporary. When the message is read as the production of a man who had committed himself absolutely to the disunionists in the belief that, used as stage-thunder, secession would scare the North into humble submission, but who was now awakened to the knowledge that an actual gulf was at his feet into which he dared not leap, it is intelligible enough. Read in any other light, it is a farrago of nonsense, and calling it "statesmanship" is the most conclusive proof of the hardihood of Mr. Curtis's advocacy.

Compare it with some of the phrases of Jackson's proclamation against South Carolina. "Treason," he said, "is an offence against sovereignty, and sovereignty must reside with the power to punish it." "Every one must see that the other States, in self-defence, must oppose it [secession] at all hazards." "The laws of the United States must be executed." "Those who told you that you might peaceably prevent their execution deceived you—they could not have deceived themselves. . . . Disunion by armed force is TREASON—are you ready to incur its guilt?" It was the remembrance of these words that made the loyal men of the country, in that autumn of 1860, cry out, as in an agony: "Oh! for one hour of Andrew Jackson." Could Buchanan have caught his spirit, and appealed to the country in his very language, what Dix and Holt and Stanton did would have been done by the whole Democratic party of the North, and the spectacle of the party standing shoulder to shoulder with the Republican party for the Constitution and the Union, would have put a bloodless end to the attempted revolution, by rebellion's quick collapse. But Buchanan had tampered too far with the crime; he could speak no denunciation of it without hearing a mocking hollowness in his own words. Yet he could not complete the transfer the revolutionists demanded and expected of him, and, caught by their own devices, they found themselves committed to a gigantic war that was to destroy them and their idol, when they had reckoned only on a martial parade.

FRANZ LISZT.

Franz Liszt, Artist and Man. 1811–1840. By L. Ramann. Translated from the German by Miss E. Cowdery. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1882.

Liszt. Von Ludwig Nohl. Leipzig: P. Reclam, jr.

OF all the questionable doctrines preached by the *laudatores temporis acti* the silliest is doubtless the assertion that ours is not a great musical epoch, and that the composers of the present day are inferior in creative power to their predecessors. The truth is, that neither the period of Bach and Handel, nor the "classical" period of Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven, nor the post-classical period of Schubert, Weber, Mendelssohn, and Schumann contributed so many original and valuable ideas to musical literature, or effected such a complete revolution in taste, as the last fifty years. It would be useless to search in Italian history for a greater composer than the author of "Aïda." Gounod has produced the best operas France has given to the world, and, as far as ideas are concerned, Saint-Saëns is her greatest instrumental master, Berlioz not excepted. Rubinstein, like Mendelssohn a Jew, does not always equal the latter in formal elegance, but his ideas are more vigorous, manly, and inspiring; his chamber music and his symphonies are at least as good as Mendelssohn's, and he has written some operas which would now perhaps lead the repertory were they not eclipsed by the gigantic works of Wagner. Brahms may ultimately be ranked with Schumann. Franz, Rubinstein, Liszt, Brahms, and Jensen have written songs equal in beauty to any in existence. The music dramas of Wagner are as immeasurably superior to all preceding operas in originality of conception, unity of form, dramatic expressiveness, beauty of coloring, and wealth of musical ideas, as the pianoforte compositions of Chopin (who died only thirty-one years ago) are superior in poetic beauty and formal finish to all other works written for that instrument. Bargiel, Raff, Hofmann, Gade, Kiel, Dvořak, Strauss, Bizet, and other less-known composers, have all written works equal in beauty to all but the very greatest of the classical periods. And, finally, we have a figure almost as unique as Wagner—a Hungarian, of whose wide-reaching significance and influence the general musical public has as yet but a vague notion. Liszt is acknowledged on all sides to be the greatest pianist the world has ever seen, and to have developed the mechanical resources of that instrument so thoroughly that hardly anything was left for his successors to add. He has created the symphonic poem, which marks a step beyond the classical symphony somewhat analogous to the position of Wagner's music-drama in relation to the old-fashioned opera. He introduced the Hungarian element into German music, which, like a refreshing shower, stimulated its growth in several new directions. He revived Catholic church-music, and gave it a new course and impulse. As director, performer, and critic, he devoted much of his time and influence to fostering the popularity of youthful or neglected composers; and the services of a similar kind done by Mendelssohn and Schumann, for example, seem insignificant when compared with the indefatigable efforts of Liszt to introduce the works of Chopin, Beethoven, Schubert, Wagner, Berlioz, and others to the public in all parts of Europe. Any one of these achievements would suffice to give Liszt a very high rank among musicians; together they constitute a power which cannot be easily overrated.

Biographic essays and sketches of Liszt exist in large numbers in various languages, but the first attempt to give a full and detailed account of his life and doings is Lina Ramann's, whose work bids fair to fill half-a-dozen volumes, since the two so far issued extend only from 1811 to 1840, leaving more than forty busy years "to be heard from." Frau Ramann gives evidence of acute musical and æsthetic intelligence. She is personally acquainted with Liszt, and her statements may evidently be relied upon, as it is expressly asserted in one place that she read the first sketch of her work to him in 1874, on which occasion he denied the report that his mother wished him to enter the priesthood, and "was also angry because his mother had been represented to the public as a very pious woman." In another place she demolishes a few more popular myths by stating that "Liszt's excellent memory . . . could in no wise recall the musical echo-play on the terrace at Nohant, as little as it could the evening when, with the lamps extinguished, he imitated Chopin's playing so deceptively—in revenge for a little defeat—that the hearers seriously thought Chopin was sitting at the piano." Frau Ramann has not been able to avoid occasional flights of sentimental rhetoric, and sometimes pitches the note of eulogy too high; and she would have improved her book by striking out some fifty pages of social philosophizing. But these blemishes are more than atoned for by the narrative, and especially by the lucid account of the different artistic, religious, and social phases through which Liszt passed in his early life. Good use is made of contemporaneous estimates and descriptions by critics and composers, and also of Liszt's own essays and books on art and artists which have recently been collected and reprinted by Breitkopf & Härtel. The English translation of Ramann's work is, unfortunately, very slovenly in many parts, and the technical and grammatical blunders are so numerous that it is useless to attempt to give a list of them. However, as they are mostly of a harmless nature, they need not interfere with the popularity of the book. The other book we have placed at the head of this article is quite unworthy of its author, whose admiration for Liszt should have prevented him from printing a loose and rambling essay consisting almost entirely of irrelevant episodic matter, interspersed with a few facts taken from Ramann's biography, and some descriptions quoted from Miss Amy Fay's 'Music Study Abroad.' This latter entertaining contribution to the Liszt literature gives a very vivid picture of the artist's appearance, habits, and methods of teaching, and has been translated into German at Liszt's desire.

It appears to be a law of nature that all prominent composers must either die very young or live to a very advanced age. Mozart, Mendelssohn, Schubert, Chopin, Bellini are among those who died before they had time to develop their fullest powers, while Bach, Handel, Haydn, Beethoven, Rossini, Verdi, Wagner represent the other extreme. To this class also belongs Liszt, who will be seventy two on October 22, and who does not differ from his famous predecessors in respect to the untiring energy and creative power displayed in his old age. A minute survey of the life of Liszt would give an almost complete bird's-eye view of modern music. His grandfather was steward to Prince Esterhazy, and his father occasionally assisted in the performances of the famous orchestra directed by Haydn, who died only two years before the birth of Franz Liszt. From his father Franz received his first instruction on the piano at the age of six, and three years later he made his first public appearance. We are told that Franz, who was a delicate and well-behaved child, displayed such a great interest in music even before he began his lessons, that he would often forget his playthings and listen when his father was playing. After his lessons had commenced, his devotion to the instrument became so passionate that he had to be repressed instead of encouraged; and from the beginning he gave evidence of a remarkable memory. Prince Esterhazy was present at his first concert, and was so much pleased that he made him a present of fifty florins. His second concert, shortly thereafter, was even more fruitful in results, for

it induced several Hungarian noblemen to get up a purse insuring Liszt an annual income of six hundred florins for six years. With this he was enabled to live in Vienna and enjoy the instruction of the most noted teachers of the time—Salieri in theory, and Czerny on the pianoforte. He also had the privilege of seeing and hearing Beethoven, whom he had the courage to beg for a theme to improvise upon at his farewell concert, in accordance with the custom of those days. Beethoven refused the theme, but attended the concert, at the end of which he hurried on to the platform and kissed the youthful performer.

Liszt was now eleven years old, and his father determined to take him to Paris and put him into the Conservatoire. But the rules of that institution forbade the introduction of a foreigner, and the pedantic Cherubini was unwilling to make an exception in Liszt's favor, notwithstanding the proofs of his extraordinary talent. Franz was thus thrown on his own artistic resources. Under the guidance of his father, he gave a series of successful concerts in Paris, London, and elsewhere, and when his father died, in 1827, he brought his mother to Paris and began to give lessons for a living. Before long he became a general favorite in aristocratic circles, where "le petit Litz," as he was incorrectly called, found abundant opportunity to cultivate his mind, which had hitherto received a purely musical education. How great was the impression made on all circles by his playing is shown by such incidents as these: that after one concert the actor Talma pressed him to his heart and prophesied a great future for him; while at another the orchestral players were so completely carried away by his playing that they forgot to take up their interlude at the proper moment. Already, however, a vague dissatisfaction with the life of a virtuoso appears to have made itself felt in his conscience, and he now passed through a period of religious excitement in which he resolved to become a priest—a craze which was fortunately overcome, but which reappeared at different intervals in his life. His musical enthusiasm was again stimulated by the appearance in Paris of Paganini, whose incredible performances and feats on the violin aroused in him the ambition to transfer them to the pianoforte, not literally, but with due respect for the peculiarities of that instrument; and thus commenced that series of technical achievements by which piano-playing was revolutionized. Berlioz, the creator of descriptive or programme-music, and Chopin, the musical Heine, the lyric poet of the pianoforte, stimulated his mind in other directions, as was manifested in his performances and, later, by his original compositions.

Although Liszt was distinguished above all other artists by the favors shown him by the aristocracy, which swept away the traditional barriers of social intercourse, he was prevented from marrying his first love by considerations of rank, and this fostered in him sympathies with the revolutionary movement. Still another leading motive in his life was St. Simonism, the proprietary and matrimonial communism taught by which accorded with a morbid condition of his mind and with the teachings of the early novels of his friend George Sand, and led him, apparently against his will, to form an alliance after the fashion of the time with the Comtesse d'Agoult, who subsequently acquired literary fame under the pseudonym of Daniel Stern. Ten years were thus spent, chiefly in Switzerland and Italy, during which Liszt seldom came in contact with the public, although he was by no means idle. His final separation from the Countess was apparently due partly to a growing incompatibility, provoked by a desire on the part of the Countess to "guide his inspiration," and partly to the wish to provide for the future of their three children, one of whom, Cosima, is the widow of Richard Wagner. This wish he was enabled abundantly to gratify during the next ten years, which include the most brilliant period of his career as pianist. In 1847, tired of the life of a virtuoso and of his very triumphs, he accepted a position as director at Weimar, and through his efforts the insignificant capital became once more, in a musical sense, what it had been for literature in the days of Goethe, Schiller, and Herder. Here were the headquarters henceforth of the neo-German school, the place where ambitious young composers and artists—among them Bülow, Tausig, Cornelius, Raff—found a protector, and where epoch-making works like Wagner's "Lohengrin," Berlioz's "Benvenuto Cellini," and Schumann's "Genoveva" were for the first time produced in full accordance with the intentions of the composers. To Weimar musicians flocked during those years as they have lately done to Bayreuth; and the general appreciation of Wagner's works was greatly facilitated and forwarded by the able analyses of three of them—the "Flying Dutchman," "Tannhäuser," and "Lohengrin"—which Liszt published. Here also Liszt wrote his greatest works, the symphonic poems. A conservative cabal, apropos of the production of an opera by Cornelius, induced him in 1861 to leave Weimar, and since that time he has lived alternately at Rome (where he became abbé in 1865), at Pesth, and lately again at Weimar. Artistic or general charity has been almost the sole motive during recent years that could induce him to appear in public. But the noblest of all his acts was accomplished in 1839, when he agreed to furnish the 50,000 francs required for the proposed Beethoven monument in Bonn, to which a hypocritical world had only contributed 600 francs in six months. His only stipulation when he made this offer was that he should have the privilege of choosing the sculptor.

During the first half-century of his public life, it may be said in general terms, Liszt was almost solely known to the public as a pianist and as a skilful adapter of the works of other composers to his instrument. To some extent this estimate was justified by the history of his development, since it was at a comparatively late period that he began to devote himself seriously to composition. His change of attitude is usually attributed to the fact that after having exhausted the possibilities afforded by the pianoforte, he longed for new and larger worlds to conquer. But the true explanation must be sought deeper down, in the regions of paradox. Although Liszt is the greatest pianist the world has seen, nature did not really intend him for an apostle of that instrument. A comparison with Chopin will make this point clear. Chopin was inseparably connected with his instrument. The piano was his body, and his genius its soul. For other instruments he wrote but little, and the orchestra seemed superfluous to one who could conjure such variety of color from the keyboard alone. But Liszt was never really satisfied with the piano. Almost his first great achievement was the attempt to change it into a violin by arranging for it the difficult "Capricci" of Paganini; and this was followed by the effort to *convert it into a miniature orchestra* by his transcriptions of Berlioz's "Symphonie Fantastique," "Harold," "Faust," Beethoven's nine symphonies, countless songs by Schubert, Mendelssohn, Franz, and others; selections from all the principal operas, etc. He thus accomplished results which appeared like witchcraft to the greatest pianists of his age. He could read the most complicated score at sight, and, as a mere boy, had asked Beethoven which one of Bach's fugues he wished him to play, and *in what key!* He made the piano sing like a human being, as shown by his song-transcriptions, where the words are hardly missed; he produced startling effects by doubling up melodies and chords, by introducing wide stretches. In the words of Berlioz, he produced "accents and nuances which have been unanimously declared impossible, and which until now have been unattainable"; or, as Liszt himself writes, "we make broken chords like the harp, long-drawn tones like the wind instruments, *staccati*, and a thousand kinds of passages which formerly it only appeared possible to bring forth from this or that instrument." His free and poetic "translations," as they have been aptly called, differed in spirit and result so widely from the literal ones in vogue before his day that Liszt was quite justified in referring to the latter as *derangements* rather than *arrangements*. Admitting all these things, and bearing in mind the great influence they have had in the development of pianoforte music, we are still obliged to revert to our paradox. The very language in which Liszt refers to his achievements on the piano shows that he is ever thinking of the orchestra. His ideas were too soaring, broad, impetuous to be expressed on one instrument. His compositions, therefore, like Beethoven's sonatas, frequently suggest the orchestra, and present in this respect a great contrast to those of Chopin, which are of a more esoteric nature, and never go beyond their chosen sphere. Beautiful as many of Liszt's pianoforte works are, they have not the deep significance of his later orchestral works, the outcome of his intellect in its maturity.

The apparent suddenness with which this maturity was attained has been explained, with his usual critical acumen, by Richard Wagner. Liszt, he says, did not, like other composers, pass his first period at the desk, writing weak and crude compositions based on admired models. This period, in his case, was passed at the piano, where he did not so much reproduce as actually ecreate the works of the great masters. And so thoroughly did he assimilate their ideas and master the traditional forms, that he was subsequently privileged to ignore the latter and create a new form, as suggested by the natural flow and character of his ideas. This form—the symphonic poem—has received more abuse at the hands of ignorant critics than any other form, except Wagner's music-drama. Indeed, the most common charge is, that it is no form at all. The symphonic poems of Liszt, we are told, are formless—a chaotic conglomeration of melodies and harmonies. To which we reply boldly, but calmly, that they represent a higher æsthetic type than the symphony with its four separate movements. Except in some of the greatest modern works, there is no connection between the different symphonic movements, no organic union of the parts, no relationship of ideas. The symphony is based on dance-forms—as suggested by the minuet, the predecessor of the scherzo—and its principle is the alternation and contrast of slow and quick movements. Very often the writer's interest in his task is exhausted prematurely, and the remaining regulation movements are added as mere padding. To this temptation the writer of a symphonic poem is not exposed. He invents a characteristic motive based on some striking poem or real event, and develops it in accordance with the chosen mood, making it as long or as short as he pleases. In other words, the development of a single motive here takes the place of the loose concatenation of independent movements in the symphony, and for this reason the reform introduced by Liszt is as significant for pure orchestral music as Wagner's substitution of continuous melody

and leading motives for the separate arias, duos, etc., is for dramatic music. The descriptive definiteness of Liszt's motives is so great that Wagner said he often felt tempted to exclaim in astonishment, after the first sixteen bars: "Sufficient! I have it all." And these primitive motives he develops with such a thorough knowledge of all the resources of his art, that one is compelled to acknowledge that he has ended by becoming as great a virtuoso of the orchestra as he had been of the piano.

In the symphonic poems of Liszt we constantly meet with certain peculiarities which point to the author's native country. Greater prominence is given to these peculiarities in his Hungarian rhapsodies, whose chief value lies in this, that they introduced a new national element into European music. At one time this music was too exclusively Italian, and since Beethoven it has threatened to become too exclusively German. The Polish Chopin, whose influence on the younger generation of composers is much greater than is generally known, to some extent modified this tendency; and an equal amount of grateful novelty and variety is now being introduced through Liszt's "gypsy-epic," in which he has embodied some of the most individual artistic traits of a unique nation. How far gypsy music is Hungarian or vice-versa need not be discussed here. For practical purposes they may be considered as identical. The four principal peculiarities of this music are abrupt harmonic progressions, unusual melodic intervals, great rhythmic variety, and a superabundance of ornamental passages, which often completely hide the melody, or, in the words of Liszt, "surround it like a rainbow with an iridescent halo." Schubert, Beethoven, and other Viennese musicians were struck by these features, and made some slight use of them. What impressed them chiefly, however, was the broad melody, while the harmonic peculiarities were seemingly regarded by them as "barbarisms and pleonasms" rather than legitimate artistic traits. It remained for Liszt to penetrate their inner spirit and justify their existence. In his childhood he had had frequent opportunities to mix freely with the gypsies and hear them give vent through their instruments to their feelings of joy, sadness, and pride. The impression thus made on him was as deep as that subsequently made by Chopin, Berlioz, and Wagner, or even deeper, and enabled him to become the European interpreter for the gypsies. With delicious irony he describes the attitude of the conservatives on first hearing the Hungarian intervals and modulations. They were fascinated in spite of themselves, and obliged to exclaim that "this would be quite beautiful if it were only correct!" The people submitted more readily to the charm, captivated by the insinuating melodies, and still more by the animated, coquettish rhythms. Liszt says he knows no other nation from which European musicians could learn so much in the invention and varied use of rhythms. Almost every new fragment of melody seems to have its own rhythmic peculiarity; and by calling attention to this rich mine of emotional expression Liszt has earned the gratitude of musicians for all time to come. The wild capriciousness and lawlessness of the gypsy rhythms eminently suited his temperament, which, be it well understood, is purely Hungarian, and not sensational and effect-hunting, as those charge whose acquaintance does not go beyond the dignified German and the languid Italian music.

In his old age Liszt's impetuousness has been somewhat modified and toned down, partly on account of his later sphere of composition, which has been chiefly ecclesiastic or, at least, sacred. But even here his independent and original disposition has asserted itself. The mediæval, ascetic notion that the Church must dispense with all the charms of secular art could find no sympathy with a friend of Heine's. Liszt's avowed aim was to unite the Church and the theatre in a new style, and his oratorios, while preserving the proper calm and epic breadth, make full use of all the resources of modern instrumental and harmonic devices of coloring. At the same time, his sacred compositions are not intended for one denomination, but appeal alike to all convictions. In this country they are, unfortunately, almost unknown. With a trifling exception, Liszt never wrote for the theatric stage, and has hence been obliged to wait longer for general recognition than even his friend Wagner. But his day will assuredly come, and already we are able to boast that cosmopolitan America admits his orchestral works more freely at first-class concerts than do the leading capitals of France, England, or even Germany.

THE ART OF ENGLAND.

The Art of England. Lectures given in Oxford by John Ruskin, D.C.L., LL.D., etc., etc., during his Second Tenure of the Slade Professorship. John Wiley & Sons. 1883.

To most studious people there are so serious antagonisms involved in the views of Professor Ruskin that they will rejoice at such a mature summing up of his views as his return to his Oxford professorship furnishes, and at the expression of his definite conclusions as to the relations of art and nature, to which for nearly or quite forty years he has devoted himself with a sincerity which has no parallel in art literature, and with the entire moral energy of a singularly exalted and unselfish nature. But the large tribute due to his noble and profoundly religious character—a tribute irreconcilable with a disrespectful regard of his views on any subject he considers worth his study—must not interfere with a critical estimate of views whose widely-accepted authority gives them a grave importance in æsthetic culture. Such an estimate is made the easier by his more conclusive return to the opinions and standard of values with which he startled and confused the critical world in the 'Modern Painters.'

Professor Ruskin had the misfortune in that book to open his battle with the critics, to use his own figure, with a fleet which was ill-equipped for so great an undertaking; and whatever may be his own confidence, or the faith of his numerous adherents, it is clear that the battle is to him a substantial defeat. It needs no census to show that the deliberate opinion of the thinking art-public has recovered from the audacity and energy of his attack, and that his doctrines are losing weight every day. He admits in these lectures pathetically that ninety-nine out of a hundred artists do not believe in his painting; there is probably not one in a hundred artists, who are at the same time clear thinkers on æsthetics, who accepts his theories of art. He began his career of critic at an age when no man's critical views are worth serious consideration—when, whatever may be his genius and native thinking powers, his comparative estimates must necessarily be lacking in breadth and comprehensiveness, especially in so wide a field as art, where we have no scientific basis, no recognized canons, and no authoritative arbiter. The young man, full of enthusiasm and onesided admiration, starts as an advocate, attacks and defends in a small part of the field; but the judge requires a longer study and a colder nature, and, to begin with, a wider range of likings than Professor Ruskin possesses. He began as an advocate, and unfortunately remains an advocate to the last. His diatribes against Dutch painting, which, as art, contains some of the subtlest and purest the world has seen, and in which, as in Turner, nature is used for, and subsidiary to, art, show that he never understood entirely the relations of the two, as do his judgments of Turner's work, in which he terms some of the artist's most artistic and sublime motives "nonsense pictures"; and in these lectures he shows the same narrowness of view, especially in the comparison of Rossetti and Holman Hunt. To class both these painters as naturalistic, and then to compare them in the superlative language he uses—"Beyond calculation greater, beyond comparison happier than Rossetti in this sincerity"—is to show that he still utterly confounds *art* with representation of nature.

This conclusion is forced to greater definiteness by his declaration that he is "not a poet, nor in any articulate manner could I in the least explain to you what a deep element of life for me is in the sight merely of pure sunshine on a bank of living grass. More than any pathetic music—yet I love music; more than any artful color—and yet I love color; more than any other merely material thing visible to these old eyes in earth or sky." This is what all artists who devote themselves to art rather than to nature-painting have always felt of Ruskin—he loves nature and preaches nature, and only art as subordinate to her. This is the moralist's view, but not the artist's. There is not, and never has been, a consummate artist who would hesitate to sacrifice nature to his art whenever he found that the latter required it. This Rossetti did; this Holman Hunt is incapable of doing, because he is primarily a naturalist—not, like Rossetti, an artist. When Rossetti called on nature, it was to give him matter for his art; Hunt only calls in art to help him give his views on nature; and any comparison of them as on the same level drags the former down from a height where he was supreme to a level with a man who has, in the proper sense of the terms, no imagination and no ideal. The most wonderful gift of Rossetti, and one in which he had no contemporary equal, was his power of purely imaginative conception—his most powerful compositions being struck out at a heat and without any model even for his accessories. Many, and some of his best, drawings in water-color were done in the same way. How far Hunt is from this will be shown by a story told by one of his friends of his "Pot of Basil" picture. He and this friend were walking in the country one day, while Hunt was painting this picture, which represents Isabella embracing the pot of basil in which the head of her lover was concealed. Hunt, unable to find a pot which suited him, had modelled one, had it painted to his own design, and then painted it in his picture. During the walk his friend noticed that Hunt was in a deep study and seemed distressed. He thought of bad news or trouble, but asked no questions, when finally Hunt broke out, saying that he was not sure if the pot were large enough to contain a man's head, and went home directly to measure it, when, finding that it was too small, he broke it up and had one made of the proper size.

Rossetti, again, was a colorist of the largest type—a man who, if he had been trained in the school of Bellini, would have ranked with the greatest of the great Venetians. When Professor Ruskin says that "Holman Hunt, in the very beginning of his career, fixed his mind as a *colorist* on the true representation of actual sunshine, of growing leafage," etc., he only shows clearly, what was tolerably evident from his early attempts to show that Turner's color was studied from nature, that he has never recognized the vital law of color-art—that it is

conceived and felt exactly as music is, and never was, in any of the work of the great colorists, nor ever can be, found by imitating the tints of nature. The term *colorist* no more applies to Holman Hunt than that of musician (in the sense of composer) would apply to a man who imitated the songs of birds and the voices of animals. None of the great schools of art have had their beginnings in naturalistic study, though more or less they have ended there, and then fallen. Rossetti is the only great colorist who began with realistic study from nature, and this is probably the root of his failure where he failed, perplexed by two antagonistic systems. Turner has never, in all his range of study, attempted a realistic rendering of the color of any natural object. This will show the fatal error of Professor Ruskin's system of teaching if the development of a school of art is to be aimed at. If only a keen and passionate study of nature is wanted, it is an excellent system to make amateurs and painters of natural history. The world has immense cause of gratitude to Professor Ruskin for his opening of its eyes to the value of pure natural beauty and the morality of the love of nature; but none for his teachings on art, in the true acceptation of the word: there be is utterly misleading.

A curious instance of the disregard of local color by Professor Ruskin, when he is making a plea, is his describing the lodgings of Mr. Rossetti as "a garret in Blackfriars." Rossetti had a comfortable and delightful suite of rooms on the first or second floor of a house looking on the Thames, with Stanhope above him, and some one still above *him*. Few painters in London at that date had better, and few so luxurious, quarters as Rossetti.

THE ECONOMIC REVOLUTION IN INDIA.

The Economic Revolution in India and the Public Works Policy. By A. Connell, M.A., author of 'Danger and Discontent in India.' London: Kegan Paul & Co. 1883.

WHAT Mr. Connell very truly describes as 'The Economic Revolution in India' dates from the Governor-Generalship of Lord Dalhousie, but it was not until the suppression of the insurrection of 1857 that the Indian Government adopted the policy of subordinating all its other functions to the one paramount object of giving effect to this economic revolution. When the fears and antipathies excited by the great outburst of 1857 had in some measure subsided, and Englishmen could investigate the causes of that event with at any rate some approach to reasonableness, the extraordinary poverty and wretchedness of the people were facts too patent to be denied or unperceived. The extinct East India Company was still useful as a scapegoat which could be held responsible for all the ills that afflicted the Indian peninsula, and this poverty and depression, without further inquiry, were set down to the neglect of the Company to develop the wealth of the soil by means of great public works. A more excellent method, it was determined, should now be followed. India was to be brought, through the agency of a wise and beneficent government, as a borrower into the money markets of Europe, and with the funds thus obtained the productive power of the soil was to be enriched, the people protected against famine, and the interior of the country opened up by a network of railways. Even thus early there were not lacking voices which sounded a warning respecting the dangers and difficulties that might be revealed upon this seemingly short and easy cut to prosperity; but their remonstrances were addressed to deaf ears. Amid the plaudits of all "the experts," the Indian Government transformed itself into a great speculative company for the improvement of its Indian estates, and for a time all went, or at least seemed to go, as merry as a marriage-bell. The introduction of huge quantities of "plant" for the construction of railways, etc., swelled the imports into India; the obligation to pay for this "plant" caused a corresponding inflation of the exports; and none of the authorities cared to remember that it was mainly food which was being carried away from India, and only iron rails imported in its stead. The first shock to the pleasant dream of India's rapidly-increasing prosperity was given by the Behar famine of 1873. This was followed by the far more terrible dearth of two or three years later, which, beginning in Madras, swept from province to province until it had ravaged fully three-fourths of the continent, and swept away eight millions of human beings, besides cattle innumerable. In the face of such an appalling calamity, it was impossible to deny that the new public works policy had signally failed in its most important objects. It had neither averted famine nor had it placed the population in a better position to battle with a season of scarcity.

The advocates and agents of this policy were constrained to admit this, but they contended that, although it had not fulfilled all that was anticipated, it had accomplished much. Great as had been the mortality, it would have been far greater but for the railways and canals which had been constructed during the last quarter of a century. The opposite party contended, on the other hand, that these public works were a main cause of the famine, because, in order to pay for them, the people had been stripped of all their wealth, till their sole means of subsistence consisted of the crop actually in the ground. And if that perished, they had no escape but to perish also. This is Mr. Connell's contention. Both sides are agreed as to one important point—that the population which was to be injured or benefited by the "economic revolution" was extremely poor. Its normal burdens (so to speak) were an alien Government imported from a distant country at a tremendous cost, and a foreign army of 60,000 men permanently quartered upon the country, also at a cost far in excess of what any similar body of men would cost in Europe. The difficulty experienced in raising a revenue adequate to meet these burdens was shown by the existence of a salt-tax of almost incredible severity. A ton of Cheshire salt, which in England was valued at ten shillings, could not be landed in Bengal until it had paid a duty of upward of £8, and, with freight and other charges, cost £10 10s. to the people of the country. It is plain that to a people thus circumstanced the least aggravation of their burdens involved a serious decrease of the barest necessities of life, for no government of ordinary humanity would have imposed so monstrous a tax upon salt had there been aught else which it could tax. Now, in the working out of their calculations, the advocates of the "economic revolution" wholly ignored the element of time. They reasoned and acted as though for every rupee of additional taxes taken from the Indian agriculturist he would receive an immediate equivalent in the shape of a canal or railway or some other beneficent public work. They forgot, or at any rate acted as if they forgot, that while the taxes necessary for the construction of these public works were a burden which must be immediately imposed, the benefits to be derived from them lay in a distant future. They forgot, also, that while the burden was universal, the advantages were circumscribed; for it was plainly impossible to construct railways, canals, embankments, or whatever else was required, all over India at one and the same time. So that, even on the assumption that the Public Works Department of the Indian Government was guided in all its operations by a spirit of perfect rectitude and infallibility—that it never jobbed, never blundered, was never deceived—the first results of its vast schemes were bound to be a serious aggravation of the general poverty. The people were brought nearer to the clutches of famine by the policy which was intended as a protection against it.

It is, however, unnecessary to say that the Public Works Department was not inspired by a spirit of infallible wisdom. Take, for example, the manner in which what are called the "guaranteed railways" were constructed. Companies were invited to form themselves in London for the building of these railways, and the Government of India undertook to guarantee 5 per cent. upon all the capital expended from the day on which the work was taken in hand. The result was that all economical checks were annihilated at the outset. It mattered nothing to the constructors of these railways whether their work was done cheaply or extravagantly; their dividends flowed in, not in proportion to the receipts, but in proportion to the expenditure.

"I think," said a distinguished Public Works officer, in his evidence before Parliament, "the understanding was rather of this kind: Here are these railway engineers: they are very fine fellows, and know their work a great deal better than you do, and are not to be controlled too closely. Then, too, the system of audit was extremely imperfect: it was what is called technically a post-audit—nothing was known of the money expended till the accounts were rendered. The result of the system was that, on one railway—the East Indian Railway—£4,000,000 sterling out of £20,000,000 had been disallowed on the capital account. The only thing, however, to be done under those circumstances was to allow it, and bring it all into the capital account again, because under the contract, as it was worded, it was quite impossible to disallow it finally, and it was quite understood that whatever was spent must be eventually passed."

The consequence of this laxity has been that no less a sum than £28,000,000 has been abstracted from the opulent Indian ryots as interest upon these guaranteed railways, and appropriated by millionaires resident in London. This huge sum is in excess of the receipts legitimately earned by these railways. Nor is this the only way in which the forced construction of the Indian railways has tended to deepen the general poverty. Before they existed, the entire carrying trade of the country was, of course, in native hands, providing a livelihood for hundreds of thousands of families; it has now passed into the possession of strangers, while its former possessors have been flung back for their subsistence upon an overcrowded and deteriorating soil. As for what are called the "state railways," these were avowedly constructed for military purposes. They have not developed, and were not intended to develop, the wealth of the country to any appreciable degree. Those whom the great extension of the Indian railway system has benefited are not the Indian agriculturists, but the private companies which constructed them, and the European middlemen who have contrived to appropriate nearly the whole of India's foreign trade.

The irrigation projects of the Indian Government threaten to be even more disastrous to the continent than the network of costly railways. Irrigation was a matter on which the authorities could not have gone astray had they condescended to take the people of the country into council with themselves; for the most careless observer who travels over India cannot fail to be struck by the abounding evidence of the thorough manner in which the advantages of artificial irrigation were appreciated and realized by the inhabitants.

"In Madras and Mysore," wrote the Famine Commissioners, "the ingenuity of man has been employed for many centuries in taking advantage of every locality in which water can be caught and stored, and prevented from running uselessly to the sea. Where a depression exists, with two or three square miles of catchment above it, an earthen embankment is thrown across it; some water is caught by this, to be guided to the fields below, while the surplus escapes, and flows past the flank of the embankment. Half a mile lower down another embankment is formed, and another beyond that, each larger and stronger than the one above it, as the drainage area of supply becomes larger. When the volume of water has become large, the embankment is often faced with stone; masonry sluices are formed in the embankment, communicating with channels which lead to the irrigated area below. The closing and opening of these sluices, so as to distribute the water fairly and in order, became the occupation of a hereditary servant of the tank. The duty of repairing and turfing the embankment, and keeping the stone revetment, the sluices, and channel in order attaches either to the villagers who benefit by the tank, or to some landowner (the heir, perhaps, of the original constructor), who is remunerated by the possession of rights over part of the land irrigated, or to Government, in case of the larger tanks. Some of these may be more properly called lakes. . . . The largest . . . are forty miles in circumference. . . . The same system of tank construction exists . . . in the eastern part of the Hyderabad State and of the Central Provinces. In Rajputana and Central India tanks are not unfrequent, and some of them are splendid works, made by throwing embankments or masonry weirs across the valleys between hills on either side."

Irrigation by means of canals, and still more largely by wells, was practised all over India long before the advent of the British power, and the notable fact was that these great works of public utility were nearly always the creation of private munificence, and were maintained in repair by the spontaneous labor of the village communities which profited by them. They enriched the land while they cost the state nothing, either for repairs or supervision. But under British rule all spontaneous action on the part of the people had been so emphatically discouraged by the authorities that not only had the stream of private liberality been thoroughly quenched, but the irrigation works over a great portion of India had been allowed to go to ruin. When the Government tardily awoke to a sense of their shortcomings, it was obviously their wisest policy to endeavor to revive the public feeling which had formerly found expression in these monuments of public utility. But this was far too modest a rôle to be adopted by a Public Works Department immensely wise in its own conceit. The traditional practice of the British in India had been to assume that the natives could teach them nothing, and the Public Works Department was not prepared to deviate from it. The people, as heretofore, must be content to stand still and see their salvation effected by their all-wise rulers. In a few instances the Department condescended so far as to repair the canals or embankments constructed under native rule, and it is hardly too much to say that these are the only works in India which are really remunerative to the state. By far the larger part have not returned and never can return an adequate profit upon the money sunk in their construction. These irrigation works were constructed by one of two methods, and it is difficult to say which method was the more ruinous to the taxpayers: either they were constructed out of revenue, or from guaranteed private capital. In the former case their progress was painfully intermittent—sometimes for months together they did not advance at all, the entire establishment doing nothing beyond drawing their pay with the greatest regularity; while the system of guaranteed private capital is described in an official report as

"a sham system of apparently independent action, by which the whole pecuniary responsibility is in fact thrown upon the Government, and the whole of the natural checks on bad management and extravagance, and the whole of the practical compensations to the community for the errors of individuals, are almost altogether abandoned or nullified. . . . One of the gravest objections to the present system of guaranteed joint-stock companies is this, that the operations of such companies have no necessary relation to any real wants of the community, still less to the most pressing wants. A party of speculators wish to make money; some scheme is hit upon which is declared likely to be productive of great profit; a company is formed to carry it out, and a guarantee is asked for. There is no attempt made to look at the real wants of the country, to balance the available means and the nature of the claims of various projects in various provinces. It is sufficient that so much British capital is available for expenditure on what are said to be works of improvement in India; and a cry is raised that the Government, if it refuse the guarantee, is obstructing improvement. There is no thought taken of how the guaranteed interest is to be raised, of who will pay it, or who will profit by the works constructed by such a company."

The situation reminds one of a scene in Burckhardt's 'Travels in Arabia.' He finds an Arab by the sacred well of Zem Zem in the dying throes of a fever. The poor creature has dragged himself to the spring under the impression that its miraculous properties will restore him to health. He has drunk prodigious quantities of the water, and thereby greatly aggravated his sufferings, but he remains convinced that these sufferings are owing not to the quantity he has drunk, but to the fact that he has not drunk enough. If only he could drink as much again, he would become quite well.

The Life and Achievements of Edward Henry Palmer, late Lord Almoner's Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge and Fellow of St. John's College. By Walter Besant, A.M. With portrait. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1883. Small 8vo, pp. ix.–426.

In one respect Palmer was the most brilliant English Orientalist of the century, perhaps unexcelled by any European in this or any preceding age; Professor Nicholl, of Oxford, calls him England's "greatest Oriental linguist and readiest Oriental scholar." Without being a scientific grammarian or philologist, he had a most astonishing capacity for learning to speak and write foreign languages—he was a modern English Mezzofanti. He picked up Italian (in all the dialects) and French from Italian and French residents and sojourners in London, and he knew a number of other European tongues. He began the study of Asiatic languages about 1860, being then twenty years old, and in five or six years from that time was able to speak and write Persian, Arabic, and Hindustani with the fluency and grace of a native. His account in Urdu, written for a native newspaper, of the Shah's visit to England was extolled by the editor as "charming and wonderful." A ghazal that he wrote was declared (of course, wrongly) by a learned Mavlavi to have been taken from the poet Khusru. During his visits to the Sinai peninsula he conversed readily with the various tribes, and with each in its own dialect. The minuteness and accuracy of his acquaintance with these three Eastern tongues were astounding, and were the result of unflagging energy and perseverance combined with linguistic talents of a very high order. That he was capable of doing excellent work of a more serious nature is shown by his translation of the Kuran, his Arabic, Persian, and Hindustani grammars, his edition of the Arabic poet Beha ed-din Zoheir, and his revision, in company with Dr. Bruce, of Henry Martyn's Persian translation of the New Testament. His 'Desert of the Exodus' is too well known to need commendation.

Palmer's private life is full of interesting traits. He was the opposite of the typical Dryasdust student of Eastern languages. He retained almost to the last the spirits of a boy. He was fond of outdoor life, of social gatherings of friends, of jesting and satirical poetry, of theatrical exhibitions, of mesmerism and spiritualistic tricks, of all strange and disreputable characters, especially of the gypsies, whose language he mastered, and whom he studied in company with Charles Leland. He grew impatient of the routine of academical life, and in his later years threw up his University position, tired of "teaching boys Persian grammar," and went to London to engage in newspaper work. It was here that he was found by Captain Gill, who came to him on the part of the Government, and with whom, after consultation with Lord Granville and Lord Northbrook, he determined to undertake the famous mission to the Arab tribes which cost him his life; and he greatly enjoyed the eager, busy life of the city. He liked being with men, and he liked letter-writing; a collection of his letters—English, Persian, Hindustani, and Arabic—would make an attractive volume.

Mr. Besant has made a very readable 'Life' of Palmer, with whom he was for a number of years intimately associated. He writes not with the coolness of the biographer, but with the affectionate enthusiasm of a personal friend and the emotion called forth by Palmer's tragic ending. The full account that he gives of the desert ride of the Sheikh Abdullah (so Palmer was called by the Arabs) is an interesting contribution to the history of the late Egyptian war. It was Palmer's negotiations with the Bedawin, says Mr. Besant, that made it possible to guard the canal by a patrol service of gunboats, and to conduct the operations that led to Tel-el-Kebir. He adds that there has been no recognition as yet by the English Government of the brilliant service performed at a critical moment by the only Englishman, except Captain Burton, capable of rendering it. In an appendix Mr. G. F. Nicholl, Professor of Arabic at Oxford, and of Sanskrit and Persian in King's College, London, gives a long and striking description of Palmer's work as an Oriental scholar, with quotations from his Hindustani, Persian, and Arabic writings. Mr. Leland also contributes an interesting account of his and Palmer's gypsy experiences.

Bibliothek aelterer Schriftwerke der deutschen Schweiz, herausgegeben von Jakob Baechtold und Ferd. Vetter. Frauenfeld. 4 vols. 1877–1882.

In this yet unfinished collection the enterprising Swiss publisher proposes to reëdit the more important literary productions of German Switzerland, written during mediæval and modern times, after the most approved methods of philological criticism and literary comment, and, whenever the contents of one volume are the products of a single author, to preface them with an elaborate and exhaustive biography embodying everything that can possibly throw light on his life and writings. The plan of this literary enterprise is not confined to the republication of authors known to the public, but embraces manuscripts newly discovered.

To this class belongs the 'Stretlingen Chronicle,' a curious legendary report in the prose of the fifteenth century, and its contemporaneous appendix "On the Origin of the Inhabitants of Schwytz and Hasli Valley," both dealing with the traditions and legends current in the Alpine valleys at that early epoch. These have been edited by Professor Baechtold, and form a vol-

ume of moderate size, the first of the series. Swiss poets and prose writers, like Ulrich von Zazikhoven, the minnesinger, and a score of others who lived before this time, will appear in subsequent volumes of the series, which does not follow any historical order.

Niclaus Manuel, the painter-poet of the city of Berne, and his writings form the contents of the bulky second volume, edited by Professor Baechtold. To the satirical productions of this young artist was due, to a great extent, the overthrow of the Roman Catholic worship and the introduction of religious reform within the limits of his State (1528); hence his dramatic, melodramatic, and lyric writings, all of which are carefully commented, possess a singular historic interest. The verses to Manuel's celebrated "Todtentanz" are reproduced in full, and a glossary is added to the volume.

Albrecht von Haller's quaint and amiable figure, combining the poet, moralist, naturalist, and physician in one and the same person, is met with in the third volume, which gives, in 960 pages, his biography and a detailed account of his literary achievements, his lyric poems, and his correspondence (hitherto unpublished) with Bodmer in Zürich. This has been edited by Prof. L. Hirzel. To the present generation Haller's style appears no doubt old-fashioned and clumsy, and his measures sesquipedalian; nevertheless, his contemporaries greeted his appearance by printing thirteen editions of his lyric poems. He was a reformer of the poetry and literature of his time, and succeeded by infusing into them a healthier, more serious tone, through the introduction of national subjects taken from nature and history, by discarding foreign (especially French) influences, and by relieving the poetic diction of his time from its bombast and excrescences. Some lyric poems of Haller contained in this volume had never seen the light before, and Hirzel was so fortunate as to discover and utilize many documents bearing upon Haller's life with which his former biographers had been unacquainted. It is difficult to find a more vivid picture of the literary life of the eighteenth century than is presented by this voluminous biographic sketch of the great scientist.

The popular songs of the German Swiss were always esteemed for their quaintness and expressive wording, even when their melodies were not above the level of those of the neighboring German provincials. Songs of liberty and political rhymes necessarily predominate in the "land of freedom," and become even profuse in times of revolutionary excitement; but pastoral, erotic, and satiric songs are those which best reflect the popular heart and sentiment. The earlier collections of Swiss popular poetry, epic and lyric, made by Wyss, Rochholz, H. Kurz, and others has just been supplemented by Professor Ludwig Tobler's 'Swiss Popular Songs,' forming the fourth fascicle of the meritorious series we are describing. Tobler, who is now busy editing the 'Dictionary of German-Swiss Dialects' (reviewed in the *Nation*, No. 910), has prefixed to the texts of the songs a readable historic and literary sketch of the popular poetry of his country, in which he treats of the formal (or linguistic and rhythmical) and the material aspect of this very interesting subject, gives a full chronological list of the historical songs, and also speaks of the channels through which the songs have come down to our time. The textual portion includes more than one hundred and twenty spiritual and secular, tragic and comic, satiric, erotic, and political songs, long and short, but always highly attractive, and manifesting the popular feeling without any bias or restraint. The smaller rhymes, which are not the least taking, amount to about a hundred, and many of the best-known lyrics were excluded because they are easily accessible through any of the older collections.

How to Get On in the World, as Illustrated by the Life and Language of William Cobbett, to which is added Cobbett's Complete English Grammar, with Notes by Robert Waters, Teacher of Languages and Literature in the Hoboken (N. J.) Academy. New York: Jas. W. Pratt. 1883. 12mo, pp. 285 and 272.

WILLIAM COBBETT, if not an attractive character, is a very interesting one, and the active part taken by him in all the public events and controversies of an important period makes him well worth knowing to all who are students of that period. For this purpose, Mr. Waters's life is well suited. He has resisted the temptation to make a big book—which would have been so easy in the case of a man like Cobbett; and the besetting temptation of biographers to make out their heroes to have been immaculate. He admires and defends him as a whole, without defending every act, and has given us in a small volume really all that one needs to know about this man. He has had the good sense, too, to let Cobbett tell his own story for the most part—an easy thing, in so voluminous and egotistical a writer, and a very desirable thing in a writer so racy and entertaining. He has done this so well that we will not quarrel with him for sometimes saying too much himself, instead of letting the subject of his biography speak. What he says, moreover, is generally good and pertinent. Cobbett's Grammar, which occupies the second half of the volume, is a desirable addition to it, as is the excellent portrait which faces the title-page.

Lancashire Gleanings. By William E. A. Axon. Manchester: Tubbs, Brook & Chrystal. 1883. 8vo, pp. 390.

OF principally local importance, this is an interesting and valuable book for Lancashire people, wherever they may be, and capable of affording entertainment and instruction to readers of any class. It consists of about fifty disconnected papers, of the variety and character which might be expected—some of them having been read before societies, others printed in periodicals, and others now appearing for the first time. Several of these have a more or less close connection with this country. The most valuable, we suppose, is that upon "Ann Lee, the Manchester Prophetess," who was, it will be remembered, the holy prophetess of the Shakers. Other more than local papers are the long one upon "Sunday in the Olden Time," "Robert Wilson and the Invention of the Steam-Hammer," "The Lancashire Plot (1694)," and "Prince Charles Edward Stuart's Supposed Visit to Manchester"; while the collections of stories, ballads, and proverbs, though not so numerous as one would have desired, are altogether acceptable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Benjamin, J. P. A Treatise on the Law of the Sale of Personal Property; with References to the American Decisions and to the French Code of Civil Law. Fourth American, from the latest English, edition. By E. H. Bennett. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6 50.

Betham-Edwards, M. Pearla; or, The World After an Island. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Bishop, W. H. Old Mexico and her Lost Provinces: a Journey in Mexico, Southern California, and Arizona. Harper & Bros.

Braddon, M. E. Phantom Fortune: a novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Brown, J. C. Finland: Its Forests and Forest Management. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd.

Bunner, H. C. A Woman of Honor. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 25.

Cooke, J. E. Bonnybel Vane; embracing the History of Henry St. John, Gentleman. Harper & Bros.

Dick, W. B. Games of Patience; or, Solitaire with Cards. Dick & Fitzgerald.

Frédéricq, Prof. P. L'Enseignement supérieur de l'histoire à Paris: Notes et impressions de voyage. Paris: Georges Chamerot.

Hale, P. M. In the Coal and Iron Mountains of North Carolina. New York: E. J. Hale & Son.

Hall, E. H. Ten Lectures on Orthodoxy and Heresy in the Christian Church. Boston: American Unitarian Association.

Henry Holt & Co.

PUBLISH:

MRS. ALEXANDER'S NEW NOVEL,

The Executor.

16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1; Leisure-Moment Series, 35 cents.

Symonds's Italian Byways.

By John Addington Symonds, author of 'Renaissance in Italy.' 12mo, $1 75.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 11, 1883.

The Week.

THE Republican State Committee has issued a very proper appeal for contributions toward the expenses of the approaching canvass, which we trust will be heartily responded to, and especially by those Republicans who have supported and pushed the recent changes in the law, which make the special pursuit of office-holders for such contributions a criminal offence. The contribution of money for legitimate party expenses according to his means is the duty of every voter, just as much as the casting of his ballot; because party organizations cannot be maintained and made effective without money. One of the worst results of the old system of relying on office-holders exclusively for the sinews of war was that it spread through the other voters of the party the feeling that the supply of money was the special and peculiar duty of the office-holders, and was not incumbent on any one else unless he was a rich man who expected office or had an axe to grind. It will take some little time for this feeling to die out, but we trust every voter who cares either for political purity or party efficiency will rid himself of it as soon as possible. The ability of a party to get from its members the means of conducting its canvass is one of the great tests of its earnestness and of its title to public confidence. The new system will not, however, work well till there is more openness about the disposition made of the money. As long as no accounts are kept and all vouchers are burnt after the election, conscientious men will be chary about giving.

The Virginia campaign has assumed an exceedingly alarming aspect. Mahone's workers are said to be giving notice in several counties that no "straightout" Republican meetings can be held. On the Democratic side systematic efforts are made to draw Mahone into a duel by "heaping aspersions upon his valor." Ex-Congressman Goode has published a card in response to some of Mahone's statements, in which he calls the Senator a "traitor" who has betrayed his constituents and sold his people for a price, who has "done more to debauch public morals and ruin the good name of the State than any other man who has ever lived upon her soil," and who "bears upon his forehead to-day the brand of liar and coward" placed there by Jubal Early. After these restrained expressions, Mr. Goode observes that such a man is unworthy any further notice, and dismisses him as "beneath contempt." Lest Mahone should not consider this card as sufficient provocation for a challenge to mortal combat, Mr. Bierne, the Richmond editor who proved his valor a few months ago by sending a charge of buckshot into the safest part of the person of a rival editor, speaks in his paper of Mahone as "one who has no courage of heart, mind, or body to meet any man in a fair field and a square fight." As a consequence of these threats the "question on every lip" is said to be: "What will Mahone do about it?" That places the campaign in a new aspect, with the pistol as the main argument on both sides.

A correspondence between the late President Garfield and ex-Governor D. H. Chamberlain, which took place in 1880, has been published, some portions of which would be useful reading for President Arthur. Mr. Chamberlain is rather prolix, but the sum and substance of what he says is that the great need of the South is good local government, and the great defect of the Republican party at the South is that it is largely composed of rascals who cannot make good local government. He therefore urged President Garfield to turn the rascals out when he came into power, and appoint none but good men to office, as the true way of commending the Republican party to the confidence of the Southern people; and he mentioned Mahone, the apostle of repudiation, as a person especially unworthy of any mark of trust or confidence from a Republican Administration. President Garfield, in his answer, expressed his agreement with Mr. Chamberlain's doctrines, all and singular, and especially with the view he took of Mahone and his party. One consequence of his death, therefore, was that Mahone was taken up and made a pet of at Washington, and had the Federal service prostituted in aid of his rascality, while a vigorous agitation, approved of by the President in his opening message, for the reform of the civil service, was going on at the North. An odder mixture of the good-lord-good-devil policy was perhaps never witnessed. It is not surprising, under these circumstances, that the Federal Government and the Republican party should still seem to many honest Southerners the incarnation of political wickedness.

Money still remains idle in the banks, and capital does not take hold of new enterprises. The list of failures for the third quarter of 1883 shows 1,806, with liabilities of $52,072,884, against 1,300, with aggregate liabilities of only $18,942,803, for the corresponding quarter of last year. The iron trade is by many persons considered the index of all other trades. If we accept it as such now, it does not promise much for an improvement in general business in the near future. It is asserted that the reduction of $1 per ton in the price of pig iron not long ago has not increased the consumption, and that the demand is less than the supply; and it is thought that production must be curtailed by more furnaces going out of blast. The coal trade, so intimately connected with the iron trade, is in a similar condition. During the last week there was a reduction in prices, and it is thought that the production will be restricted in order to allow the demand to overtake the supply. On the other hand, the export movement of both cotton and breadstuffs is increasing, and though it has not yet had the effect of reducing the rates of sterling exchange quite to the specie-importing point, one-half cent reduction in the rates for bankers' bills would probably necessitate considerable imports.

There is probably nothing more extraordinary in General Butler's career as Governor of Massachusetts than his sending delegates to the Charity Conference at Louisville to get a harrowing report on the Tewksbury Almshouse affair inserted in the proceedings. One of the delegates was a quack doctor named Flower, who travels from city to city, performing, according to his own account, "phenomenal cures," and possessing "miraculous powers"; the others were a Mr. Carrigan and Miss Alzire A. Chevaillier. These three got up a glowing report condemnatory of the management of Massachusetts charities, and comparing Butler to Jesus Christ and Julius Cæsar, which they got printed in the local papers, as having been received by the Conference as an "eloquent defence" of the Governor's course about the Tewksbury Almshouse. It was, however, voted by the Conference to strike all this portion of it out of the permanent report of the proceedings. Then Mr. Carrigan, having pledged himself not to say anything more about Tewksbury, got leave to print, as made, a short speech, which appeared in the newspapers next morning as a gross personal attack on Mr. F. B. Sanborn, the Massachusetts Inspector of Charities, and this fraud had to be denounced in a card by Mr. Wines, the President of the Conference. An odder row has probably never marked the proceedings of a philanthropic body, especially when we consider that it was instigated by the Governor of a State. The most comic feature in it was the flight of the quack doctor, who quitted Louisville in the middle of it—"phenomenal cures," "miraculous powers," and all—as soon as the fight grew warm.

Butler's strange infatuation for his "tanned human skin" issue has received another shock. It was shown long ago that the specimens which he exhibited as evidence of the horrible uses to which the bodies of paupers were put by the people of Massachusetts, never had any other origin than the freakish desire of a medical student to see what kind of leather the human skin would make. There was no evidence that the skin used had been taken from a Tewksbury pauper. Yet Butler goes on talking about it, circulating campaign documents with pictures of it, and even printing a Republican ballot on paper which is colored like it. He also paraded before the investigating committee a shoe which he said was made of human skin. The firm of tanners from whom the Governor obtained all his "samples" now come forward, and say that he is wilfully misrepresenting the facts about them, and that "there is no more human skin about the Tewksbury shoe than there is about a buffalo robe," it being made of dogskin. Yet we doubt if Butler will abandon his "issue" even now. It is about all he has, and he has succeeded so well in the past by appealing to the prejudices of

the lowest and most ignorant voters that he has little faith in any other kind of campaigning.

The renomination of Mr. Low as Mayor of Brooklyn has doubtless been assured by the action of prominent citizens of all parties last week. About 150 of them met informally, and, after expressing approval of the Mayor's administration, sent a committee to ask him if he would consent to a renomination. He replied that if a renomination were offered him by citizens, irrespective of party and with the same understanding as that on which he was nominated two years ago, namely, that he should be under pledge to no man or set of men, he would consider the offer an honor which it would be his duty to accept. A mass meeting has since been held, on Saturday, when he was renominated by acclamation. After this it is expected that the Republicans will formally approve the nomination, and it is believed that his re-election will follow without difficulty. The experiment in self-government which the citizens of Brooklyn entered upon two years ago will thus become an established success. Mr. Low has succeeded in the difficult task of keeping his administration completely aloof from political alliances of all kinds, and has given Brooklyn the purest and most genuinely economical government which it has had for years.

The despatch of General Pryor to Liverpool last week, for the purpose of defending O'Donnell for the murder of Carey, is a good specimen of the way in which the money of the patriotic Irish in this country is spent. A very large amount of it goes in travelling expenses of orators who want a trip to Europe. In this case the malversation really lies on the surface. The only justification for the despatch of American counsel to take part in O'Donnell's defence would be the probability that it would increase the chances of an acquittal. But there is and can be no such probability. It is all but certain that the English courts will not allow General Pryor to open his mouth in court, because he is not a member of the English bar. If he were permitted to speak he would be addressing an English jury, that is, an audience of whose mental and moral peculiarities he has no knowledge, and whom his very appearance and manner, and, above all, the circumstances of his retainer would prejudice against him at the start. He and his employers are probably both well aware of this, and if he were allowed to appear would expect nothing from him but a stump speech about the wrongs of Ireland, which would ensure O'Donnell's conviction. The prisoner's greatest misfortune just now is his having friends on this side of the water.

The Edmunds bill is acknowledged to be a complete failure as far as the suppression of polygamy in Utah is concerned, and the attachment of the Mormons to the institution appears to be unabated. At the recent Church Conference in Salt Lake City, the speakers strongly commended it to the support of the faithful, and rebuked the faint-heartedness and lukewarmness of those who were frightened by the recent Congressional legislation into sending away some of their wives. The Church has eighty-one missionaries at work here and in Europe, and reports great progress. It now numbers 127,294 members and 23,000 families. Probably the greatest impediment in the way of dealing with it energetically is the condition of popular sentiment about the marriage contract in nearly all parts of the country. In a community in which divorce is so easy and so frequent the indignation against polygamy does not, in spite of all that is said in Congress, easily become a consuming fire. In fact, as long as we tolerate a man's having so many wives in rapid succession, all attempts to frighten those who prefer having them all at once, must be rather lame and impotent. To the Mormon women the difference between the two systems must really seem a question of taste or convenience rather than one of morals.

A statement prepared by Director Burchard shows that 123,447,480 ounces of silver have been bought by the Government since the Silver Bill went into effect. Of this amount 119,206,224 ounces have been coined into silver dollars, and the remainder (less waste) has been used for subsidiary coins. The loss on waste has been $51,925, and the amount paid in wages for coining (which is likewise waste) $71,429. There has been an apparent profit of $15,581,713 on the coinage; but this profit is a matter of bookkeeping merely, consisting in an imaginary difference between the cost of the bullion and the legal-tender value of the unused coin. If the bookkeeping took account of the present value of the coined metal, it would show an enormous loss, the market price having declined steadily ever since the Government's purchases began. It is not to be supposed that another session of Congress will pass without a general debate on the silver question. The position of the Government in regard to it is wholly anomalous and unprecedented. No country since the world began ever bound itself to buy and convert, at its own expense, a given amount of metal into coin in a given time, and to continue the process indefinitely. Whatever may have been the reasons for adopting such a policy five years ago—and we do not care to enter into them now—they have ceased to operate.

We notice that in the reports of the Episcopal Convention in Philadelphia an English bishop, the Bishop of Rochester, who happened to be present and addressed the Assembly, is constantly spoken of, in distinction from his American brethren, as "the Lord Bishop." That this is ridiculous is, perhaps, the least objection to it. An English bishop is not spoken of at home, either in the press or in society, as "the Lord Bishop," except on some very formal occasion, but plainly "the Bishop of So-and-So." He is addressed as "My Lord," or "My Lord Bishop," not because he is a bishop, but because he has a seat in the House of Lords. Every thoughtful man in England, however, admits that it would be far better for him and the Church if he had no seat among the Peers and was not a lord. It would be perfectly proper and very desirable, when he is over here, where he is simply a bishop, to drop the lordship altogether. At all events there is no occasion to make more of it than Englishmen themselves make. "The Bishop" will do perfectly well as a title for the Bishop of Rochester, and all good churchmen must feel that he cannot have a higher one.

The Virginia Readjusters tried their best argument on a colored orator at a Republican meeting last week, through a Readjuster leader named "Sam" Gregory, known to local fame as the son of the Rev. "Joe" Gregory. The colored orator was first interrupted by Sam with insolent questions, and made replies which were so apt that Sam shot him on the spot. Sam and his father then took to the woods, and have not been seen since. The progress of the Republican canvass in that county has been arrested, and the chances are that the Readjusters will have the argument all to themselves for the rest of the campaign. Deep gloom over the affair doubtless prevails among the Rev. "Joe" Gregory's friends.

The English Postmaster-General, Mr. Fawcett, makes the welcome announcement that the present unsatisfactory method of despatching the American mails from England will not be continued upon the expiration of the existing contract in August of next year. The American plan of sending them by the fastest steamers, without regard to the company to which they belong, will be adopted after that date. This will not only materially shorten the average time of transmission, but will also have the effect of bringing the mails in here at regular intervals and in regular order. At present it often happens that the mails for an entire week are poured in on a single day, and not infrequently the later dates arrive a day or two in advance of the earlier ones, thus causing great inconvenience and confusion.

The passion occasionally displayed by quiet preachers and literary men for the ferocious use of military force against people whose ways they disapprove of is one of the mysteries of human nature. Men who seldom quit their libraries, and have not nerve enough to see an arm amputated, are sometimes found advocating the most bloodthirsty courses against their particular set of heathen. Carlyle and Froude are the two most conspicuous instances of this literary thirst for blood. Froude has always approved of having plenty of Irishmen put to the sword or tortured, while Carlyle was disposed to apply the same remedy to poor men of all races, beginning with the "niggers." Mr. Goldwin Smith also desires liberal gibbeting and shooting in Ireland. The Rev. Howard Crosby, also a quiet student, a year or two ago, if we remember rightly, was disposed to try the sword on the Mormons, and now the cruel and blatant Doctor Talmage, of Brooklyn, wants to have General Sheridan sent out to slaughter them all, as the only way of putting down polygamy, and strongly urged this policy from his pulpit

last Sunday. If he is wise, however, he will drop this view, because if the practice of suppressing disagreeable people by "the sword" should ever creep into American life, he himself would certainly perish by violence. Thousands in this city already favor the use of the army against him, and are only restrained by that general peaceableness and humanity of the American character which he is trying to break down.

The Ministerial confusion in Paris continues, and the importance of the Alfonso incident is daily becoming more apparent. France has for ten years been looking about for an ally to aid her against Germany. She lost all hope of Austria very early. The Russo-Turkish war and the Nihilistic troubles have made Russia a very uncertain reliance. She alienated Italy by the Tunisian expedition. She has almost quarrelled with England over Egypt and Madagascar. Spain alone remained as a possibility, and now all chance of Spain is gone, for the Paris mob have thrown her into the arms of Germany. A Spanish alliance is desirable to France rather on account of the damage Spain could do as an enemy than the assistance she could render as a friend. In a war the Spanish fleet, in combination with the German, could give the French fleet all the work it needed, and, although a Spanish army might not be able to invade France, it could keep 100,000 Frenchmen watching the passes of the Pyrenees when they would be sorely needed on the Rhine.

The Pope's latest allocution contains no indication of any reconciliation with the Italian Government. He keeps up the wail which has been issuing from the Vatican about the state of the Church and the world ever since 1848. He is apparently not a whit more cheerful or hopeful than Pius IX., although undoubtedly a good deal more prudent and sensible. The continuance of the lamentation over the loss of the temporal power, and the steady refusal to acknowledge in the smallest degree the legitimacy of the new rule in the old Papal dominions, is becoming fast one of the puzzles of European politics. People find it impossible to believe that as astute observers as the Pope's advisers expect a restoration of the temporal power, but they also find it impossible to guess what they are driving at in keeping up the assertion that it is necessary to the Church's efficiency. Money is undoubtedly obtained more readily from the faithful by these lamentations, but a larger and surer income might be got from giving them up and coming to terms with King Humbert. Moreover, it is not, and probably never will be, an article of faith that the successor of St. Peter must be a petty prince. On the other hand, curiously enough, it is stated on very good authority that Humbert believes himself to be the last King of Italy, and looks forward to seeing his son living in a republic, and has educated him with that possibility in mind.

The Comte de Paris is now acknowledged as the head of the House of France by all the leaders and spokesmen of the Legitimist party in France—dukes and duchesses, Vendean generals, priests, orators, and journalists—but he is not by "Princess Amélie," her three brothers, the "Princes de Bourbon," and their venerable mother. On the contrary, all these personages have solemnly protested in Paris journals against the assumption by the grandson of Louis Philippe of a dignity which, as they asseverate, and have been asseverating for so many years, does not belong to him, but to "Princess Amélie's" oldest brother, "the son of Louis XVII." This "genuine Louis XVII.," their father, was in his best years known as an honest and diligent German-speaking watchmaker — Karl Wilhelm Naundorff by name—of the Prussian town of Crossen, on the Oder, though he occasionally revealed himself in his royal character, relating (as many other humble claimants to the throne of France did in his time), his flight from the Temple, and also addressed himself for recognition to the Duchess of Angoulême, the daughter of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette, and as such his "sister." After the fall of the Bourbon throne in 1830, he repaired to France, where he found many believers in his story, owing to his strikingly Bourbonian features, and entered into negotiations with Louis Philippe, offering to acknowledge him as king if he were himself recognized as royal prince. After some years he was arrested, tried as a false pretender, and eventually expelled from France. He died in 1845 in the Netherlands, where he met with recognition in high circles, and where his eldest son, an officer in the Dutch army, succeeded him as pretender. His daughter married a Frenchman of the non-princely name of Abel Laprade, but has since constantly figured at the expiatory commemorations in Paris, on January 21, of the execution of Louis XVI. In 1873, when the Comte de Chambord came near ascending the throne of his grandfather, Charles X., the Naundorff-Bourbons began a suit against him in the Paris courts, as a usurper under false pretences, but their effort proved futile. They now declare his successor of the House of Orleans to be a usurper of the same stamp, and offer to "redeem France from her deep degradation," if their right is acknowledged.

There has been another revolution or quasi-revolution in Bulgaria, the Prince having at last thrown off the Russian influence under which he has acted ever since he ascended the throne of the Principality. His inaugural address gave offence to Russia by its failure to pay her a fitting tribute of gratitude for the deliverance of the country. But his first cabinet was not unfriendly to that Power. It was conservative, and soon excited the wrath of the Assembly, which was swayed by the Radicals and Propagandists. The Prince first modified it, and then replaced it by a coalition ministry, of which the liberal "patriot" Zankoff, the more radical Karaveloff, and the Russian General Ernroth were the foremost members. Alexander incurred unpopularity by taking the part of his Moslem subjects against their Christian oppressors, and was more and more pushed into the shade by his native ministers. Galled by ministerial usurpation, factious partisanship in the Assembly, corruption in office, and Panbulgaric demagogy, he carried out, in the summer of 1881, with the help of Ernroth and other Russian officers and the sanction of a packed extraordinary Assembly, a *coup d'état*, which gave him an almost undisguised dictatorship for seven years. The fundamental laws were modified and rendered less democratic. Zankoff, Karaveloff, and other opponents were imprisoned, banished, or otherwise silenced. But the agitation against the Prince and his Russian tools could not be suppressed. He in vain sought rest, and perhaps safety, in frequent journeys to St. Petersburg and other capitals, and in vain formed a new ministry in July, 1882, in which, however, Russian generals, Soboleff and Baron Kaulbars, received the leading posts. The popular animosity against the foreign ministers and officers of the national army was fanned to a dangerous pitch, the Russians lorded it over the Prince himself, and some of them intrigued behind his back with Zankoff, with the conspirators of Eastern Rumelia, and even with Nihilist plotters.

In the beginning of 1883 the situation became intolerable. The Prince had been in St. Petersburg during the explosion in the Winter Palace, again shortly after the assassination of Alexander II., and a year later; he now accompanied Alexander III. to his coronation in Moscow, but he returned with thoughts of self-emancipation from Russian tutelage. He was suspected of meditating an entry into the Austro-German alliance. Soboleff and Kaulbars now persuaded, or forced, him to recall Zankoff and convene the Assembly. But the Bulgarian ex-Premier had views and plans of his own. Scarcely had he returned to Sophia when he entered into a coalition with the leaders of the Conservative party, aiming, it was stated, at the reëstablishment of the Constitution and the supplanting of the Soboleff-Kaulbars Cabinet. At this critical juncture the Russian envoy, M. Yonin, interfered most energetically, demanding the maintenance of the Russian ministers in office. The Prince announced in a manifesto his determination to have a new Constitution elaborated by a commission, and laid before a constituent Sobranye. He then opened, on September 16, an extra session of the regular Assembly. The latter, however, emphatically declared for the restoration of the Constitution of 1879. The popular excitement became threatening. Prince Alexander yielded to the clamor—perhaps not unwillingly—promised a speedy return to the constitutional régime from which he had departed in 1881, dismissed his Cabinet, and intrusted Zankoff with the formation of a new one. This task has been accomplished, and, according to a telegram of September 27, the Russian generals have left the Bulgarian capital for St. Petersburg. An exodus of subordinate Russian officers in the Bulgarian army had begun earlier. The official press of St. Petersburg expresses indignation at the change, which has all the appearance of a revolt against Russia.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, October 3, to TUESDAY, October 9, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

STATE elections were held in Ohio and Iowa on Tuesday. The returns so far received from Ohio make the result doubtful. The vote was very heavy. Each party claims that its candidate for Governor was elected, but the indications now favor the Democratic candidate, Mr. Hoadly. The prohibition amendment received a large vote, and its friends assert that it was carried. In Iowa Mr. Sherman, the Republican candidate for Governor, was reëlected by a plurality estimated at from 20,000 to 30,000.

The Massachusetts Independents have issued an address to the people of that State, in which they say: "We deem it unwise at the present juncture to nominate a candidate for Governor, and we recommend those who sympathize with us to support the Republican candidate, recognizing in George D. Robinson integrity of character and unquestioned ability, which give better promise of good government than the vicious methods and personal ambition of Benjamin F. Butler. But we feel it our duty to withhold our support from the Republican candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, regarding his nomination as unworthy of the approval of those who wish to condemn the present Executive and all which he represents."

General Mahone took the stump for the Readjusters in Virginia on Wednesday, and delivered a speech arraigning the Democratic Funder party.

The Treasurer of the Republican State Committee of New York has prepared a circular asking for voluntary contributions toward the legitimate expenses of the campaign. There is nothing in the circular violating the letter or spirit of State or Federal laws.

A great many Senatorial nominations were made during the week in the various districts of this State.

A meeting was held in Brooklyn on Wednesday evening to take steps for securing the reelection of Mayor Low of that city. A committee was appointed to arrange for a mass meeting in his favor. On Saturday evening Mayor Low was enthusiastically renominated by a large meeting in the Brooklyn Academy of Music. The meeting was non-partisan.

Ferdinand C. Latrobe was nominated for Mayor of Baltimore on Wednesday. There are charges of fraud in the primaries, and a split in the party is imminent.

Fred Douglass has written a letter saying: "I can have all the independence I want inside the Republican party."

The Free-Trade Conference at St. Louis adjourned on Wednesday. There was a long debate between some of the members, who insisted upon absolute free trade, and others who favored an attempt to eliminate protection as the first step. The latter opinion prevailed. An address to the people was adopted, declaring that protection was a ruinous measure, and that all possible means should be taken to abolish it immediately. A literary bureau was agreed upon to furnish free-trade matter to the press generally, but more especially to country papers.

At Albany on Monday the case of Loren B. Sessions, charged with bribery, was called in the Court of Oyer and Terminer. During the Senatorial deadlock of 1881, when Roscoe Conkling and T. C. Platt were trying to get back into the United States Senate, Assemblyman Bradley was voting for them and Sessions was voting for other candidates. One morning Bradley astonished the Legislature and the public by rising in his place and proclaiming that Sessions had offered him $2,000 if he would change his votes from Platt and Conkling to Chauncey M. Depew and William A. Wheeler. Only six jurors have so far been obtained.

The Star-route case against ex-Senator Kellogg is set down for a hearing in Washington on December 10. The urgency of the Government counsel did not avail to secure an earlier day. The criminal branch of the court is crowded with cases that must first be heard.

President Arthur has returned from his vacation trips to Washington, and is now residing at the Soldiers' Home.

It is reported in Washington that the Secretary of War, in his annual report to Congress, will recommend that the appropriation for militia be increased from $200,000 to $600,000, and that the apportionment be made on the basis of 600 militia for each Congressional district.

Lieutenant Ray, commanding the Point Barrow expedition, telegraphed to the War Department on Sunday from San Francisco: "I report my safe arrival to-day with party; also brought down Lieutenant Schwatka and party from St. Michael's. All work accomplished as ordered by Chief Signal Officer. Pendulum observation not made. *Leo* reached Ooglaamie August 22; was driven away by ice the same night; returned on the 24th; again driven away and damaged on the 25th; returned on the 27th, when party and stores were embarked. Sailed on the 29th. Vessel leaking badly; put into Oonalaska, where she was beached and repaired." This was the companion expedition to the one under Lieutenant Greely, and was sent out by the United States Government, sailing from San Francisco on July 18, 1881. The original design of the expedition was to create a permanent signal station at Point Barrow, and to remain until the summer of 1884. The order to return was a surprise, as the work was being successfully carried out. Lieutenant Ray says the station, Ooglaamie, is a needed refuge for the crews of whaling vessels.

Lieutenant Schwatka, in relating the work of his party, said they started from Fort Vancouver, W. T., on May 21, being detailed by General Miles, commanding the Department of Columbia, to make an exploration of the valley of the Yukon. They travelled 2,800 miles overland, reaching the headwaters of the river, where they constructed a raft of logs to navigate the stream to its mouth. They procured a crew of six Indians, and proceeded down the gradually increasing stream within 250 miles of Fort Chilcat, where rapids were encountered and run. The voyage on the raft was 1,829 miles from the mouth of the Yukon. They proceeded to St. Michaels, where they boarded the *Leo* for San Francisco. Lieutenant Storey reports the discovery of an immense river in Alaska, supposed to be more than 1,500 miles in length.

At the annual meeting of the trustees of the Peabody Education Fund in this city, on Wednesday, it was reported that the distribution of the income of the fund since October 1, 1882, had been as follows, the items to which it was applied being public schools, institutes, scholarships, colleges, universities, and the *Educational Journal:* Alabama, $5,775; Arkansas, $4,050; Florida, $2,925; Georgia, $5,900; Louisiana, $2,125; Mississippi, $4,400; North Carolina, $8,350; South Carolina, $4,225; Tennessee, $12,600; Texas, $13,600; Virginia, $4,125; and West Virginia, $3,100, making a total of $71,175.

A number of successful celebrations of the first settlement of Germans in this country, at what is now Germantown, Pa., 200 years ago, were held in Philadelphia, Newark, N. J., and other cities, on Monday.

Wednesday, the second day of the semi-centennial celebration of the founding of the New York Anti-Slavery Society, was occupied, at the Broadway Tabernacle, in this city, in relating reminiscences of the old anti-slavery struggle. Among those present was Mr. Henry Tanner, who saw the Rev. E. P. Lovejoy killed by the pro-slavery mob at Alton, Ill., in 1837. Mr. Oliver Johnson paid a tribute to the part American women took in the work.

The General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States continued its sessions in Philadelphia during the week. The Bishop of Rochester, England, was present and made several addresses. On Tuesday a motion was made to strike from the title of the Book of Common Prayer the words "Protestant Episcopal" and insert "Holy Catholic." It was lost by a vote of 21 to 252.

The Rev. Dr. Ewer, of St. Ignatius Church, in this city, was stricken with paralysis while preaching in Montreal on Sunday. His physicians have given up all hope of his recovery. He is well known for his ritualistic practices. In 1868 he attracted much attention by a series of sermons on the "Failure of Protestantism."

The fifty-third semi-annual Conference of the Mormon Church met in Salt Lake City, Utah, on Friday. President John Taylor made an address encouraging the practice of polygamy, notwithstanding the Federal laws.

The Trustees of Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., have elected the Rev. J. H. M. Knox, D.D., of Bristol, Pa., President, to succeed Dr. Cattell, resigned.

The fifty-second annual exhibition of the American Institute was opened in this city on Wednesday.

The fine buildings of the Pittsburgh Exhibition were burned on Wednesday morning. The total loss on buildings and exhibits was about $1,000,000.

At a meeting of the trustees of the East River Bridge of this city and Brooklyn on Monday afternoon, the Treasurer, Otto Witte, reported that the receipts from foot passengers up to October 4—nineteen weeks from the bridge opening—were $34,464, from vehicles $31,563, and from cars $3,936. The average was $526 04 a day, and the total receipts were $69,163, while the expenses were $51,418 08. Superintendent Martin reported that the total number of pedestrians crossing the bridge from New York up to October 1 was 1,865,800, and from Brooklyn 1,519,600, making 3,385,400 in all.

The Commissioners of Accounts in this city, Messrs. Shearman and Hill, have submitted to Mayor Edson their report on the Carroll coupon frauds in the Finance Department. They say that Carroll's guilt appears to be established beyond a doubt, and they recommend a radical change and reorganization of the department.

A robber on trial in West Virginia has made a confession exposing the workings of a gang of outlaws who have overrun the mountains and interior of that State for several years, engaging in all sorts of crime. They were specially banded together for the protection of illicit distillers from Government officers. They were called "Red Men."

Four persons were killed and eleven injured in Philadelphia on Friday by the wrecking of a street-car by a train on a steam railway. The driver of the car also acted as conductor, and was engaged in taking the fares at the time of the accident.

The recently elected Board of Directors of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company met on Saturday in this city, and reorganized by the reëlection of all the former officers of the company, with Henry Villard as President. The most important business transacted at the meeting was the unanimous adoption of a resolution authorizing the issue of $20,000,000 second mortgage bonds.

Gen. A. P. Ketchum, Appraiser of the Port of New York, having been charged with violating the civil-service rules, has made satisfactory explanations of his actions.

Rear-Admiral Joshua R. Sands, of the United States Navy, retired list, died at Washington on October 2, aged eighty-nine.

Juh, the famous Apache chief, is reported

to have been drowned on September 21 while intoxicated. Little Charles McComas, the abducted white boy, is said to be alive and well, with the band.

FOREIGN.

For a time the relations of France and Spain remained in a very strained condition. On Wednesday there were rumors that Prime Minister Ferry of France had tendered his resignation to President Grévy, and that it had been refused. Great confusion was reported in the Ministry. It was also asserted that the German Government had addressed an energetic note to France concerning the treatment of Alfonso, but this was not confirmed. A slight conciliatory action on Wednesday was an order from King Alfonso to the Spanish Ambassador in France to distribute 10,000 francs to the poor of Paris. On Thursday it became generally known in Paris that illness was not the cause of the absence of General Thibaudin, Minister of War, from the reception given to King Alfonso at the Palace of the Elysée. He voluntarily and ostentatiously held aloof from the dinner. Prime Minister Ferry then thought himself bound to inform President Grévy of the deplorable effect of M. Thibaudin's conduct in political circles and upon European opinion. M. Ferry, who was backed by all the Ministers, declared that General Millot should never, with his consent, become Chief of the General Staff, as the whole army acknowledged that he was unfit for the post. An investigation was ordered on Thursday into the causes and authors of the insults to King Alfonso. Emperor William, of Germany, telegraphed his sympathy to the King. It was announced on Friday that President Grévy had instructed M. Ferry to ask Gen. Thibaudin to resign; that the General had resigned and that the President had accepted the resignation. The Spanish Ambassador to France made "courteous verbal representations" to M. Ferry asking for the punishment of the authors of the insult to the King. He was also instructed to remind the French Cabinet of President Grévy's promise to publish his apology in full. The reply of France to all the representations of the Ambassador was such that an agreement was rendered easy. The excitement soon began to subside in Madrid and Paris.

On Tuesday it was reported from Madrid that the public were impatient for a settlement of the difficulty. Señor Sagasta will probably soon reconstruct the Spanish Cabinet. He is negotiating with the Left for the admission of representatives of that party into the Cabinet. It was officially announced in Paris on Tuesday that General Campenon had been appointed Minister of War to succeed General Thibaudin.

M. Wilson, the son-in-law of President Grévy, has been accused of having abetted the movement against King Alfonso, and also of having used state secrets in his newspaper, the *Petite France*.

It was asserted in the columns of the Paris *Figaro* on Wednesday that M. Tricou, the French representative in China, had telegraphed the Government that no serious preparations for war were being made in China. He said the idea of a war with France was badly received in the southern provinces, and was repudiated by the Council of the Empire, and that China could muster only 20,000 troops, with European arms, for service in Tonquin.

An official despatch from Hong Kong, dated September 30 and received in Paris on Saturday, said that Admiral Courbet had had a conference with the French civil and military chiefs in Tonquin, who agreed that active operations are impossible at present, owing to the bad condition of the roads. They were also of the opinion that the troops now in Tonquin could safely await the arrival of reinforcements. A telegram was received at Paris on Monday, asserting that the Black Flags have recreated from Namdinh and Sontay to Laokai, on the frontier of China, and that Anamite envoys have arrived at Haiphong, and will start for Hanoi, the French headquarters, forthwith.

It was reported in Paris on Tuesday that Colonel Badens, commanding the French forces from Hai-phong, had had an engagement with Chinese regulars at Bac-ninh, resulting in a defeat of the Chinese, and that the French gunboats would intercept their retreat. This despatch probably refers to the movements of Colonel Badens from Hai-phong mentioned in the Canton advices of October 1, stating that Colonel Badens started on the 29th of September from Hai-phong with 350 French troops by way of the Tai-binh River for Bac-ninh. If the reported defeat proves to be well founded, the French have captured one of the most important strategic points in the Delta. An official despatch from Saigon says the situation of affairs in Tonquin has much improved, owing to the presence of the Anamite envoys and the submission to French authority of the Delta Mandarins.

The natives in Canton remain quiet, but the Europeans have prepared a plan of defence for their quarter.

Madagascan advices assert that the French garrisons at Tamatave and Majunga are virtually blockaded. British merchants engaged in trading with Madagascar are forwarding to Lord Granville, British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, claims against France for damages because their goods are not allowed to be landed at Tamatave.

An infernal machine exploded at Lyons, France, on Monday, and damaged the Town Hall. It is generally believed that revolutionists did the work, with a view of creating public alarm.

At a meeting of citizens in Cork £250 has been subscribed toward a fund for the erection of a national monument to the late Father Burke, the well-known Dominican priest.

The Emperor William of Germany has sent to Herr von Schilling, the sculptor of the Niederwald monument, an autograph letter conferring upon the artist a decoration, and enclosing a gift of honor of 30,000 marks ($7,500).

It is reported that an Invincible Vengeance Committee has been formed in Ireland to hunt down all informers. The Committee has paid spies throughout the British colonies and in North and South America.

The trial of O'Donnell, the slayer of James Carey, has been put down for October 15. His counsel has asked for a postponement until November, which it is believed will be granted.

Joseph Smith, Joseph Hanlon, and Michael Kavanagh, informers in the Phœnix Park murder trials, landed at Marseilles on Thursday and then disappeared. It is reported that they will go to India.

An Orange procession, while returning from a meeting in Belfast on Saturday, at which Sir Stafford Northcote spoke, was attacked by a Catholic mob. A desperate fight ensued, and many persons were wounded.

The *Moniteur de Rome*, which is understood to reflect the Pope's views, deprecates the aggressive attitude of Orangemen in Ireland toward the National League.

The Cesarevitch Stakes were won at the Newmarket, England, races, on Tuesday, by Mr. G. Lambert's three-year-old chestnut colt, Don Juan.

The Mayor of Stratford-upon-Avon having refused his assent to the proposed exhumation of Shakspere's bones, the matter has now been settled by a vote of the Town Council, which has passed a resolution condemning any disturbance of the poet's grave.

It is asserted in Berlin that Nihilist proclamations have been issued solemnly sentencing the Czar of Russia to death because he has failed to grant liberty to his people.

M. Turgeneff, the Russian novelist, was buried in St. Petersburg on Tuesday with great honors. Thousands of people followed his body to the grave.

The Paris *Gaulois* gives currency to a report that Russia is about to contract a loan of 100,000,000 rubles.

General military works have been constructed in the neutralized part of Savoy by the French. The Government of Switzerland will make an energetic protest against this breach of treaty obligations.

At the meeting in Neufchâtel, Switzerland, on Sunday, to demand of the authorities the expulsion of the Salvation Army from the country, 2,000 persons were present. A resolution to that effect was adopted. The Councillor of State said that the body to which he belonged would do its duty, and close the gates of Switzerland to those who were trading upon her hospitality.

The Pope, in an allocution upon receiving a large number of Italian pilgrims in the Basilica of St. Peter's at Rome on Sunday, said he rejoiced to witness the concord existing between the clergy and their flocks. The conspiracy of sects had reduced the Papacy to a condition unworthy of its rank. The historical researches of learned men proved that the Papacy was no enemy of Italy, but that it had always been actuated by sovereign benevolence. True civilization derived from the Papacy increased vitality and strength. The real object of the sectaries in depriving the Pope of temporal power was to strike a blow at the Church and rob Italy of the treasure of faith. To avoid the extinction of Catholicism, it behooved all patriotic and religious forces to unite and show themselves openly as Catholics, and to desire, above all things, to restore the Pope to that condition of liberty and independence which is his due.

The Supreme Tribunal of Norway having impeached the whole Ministry of the country, their trials began on Thursday with the case of the Prime Minister.

The negotiations between United States Minister Wallace and the Porte concerning the storage of American petroleum and upon the tariff question are proceeding favorably at Constantinople. Concessions have been made by each side.

Simon Camacho, late Minister at Washington from Venezuela, died on September 20 at Caracas, Venezuela. He had been in poor health for some time, and sailed for his home in March last, hoping to regain it. He was a nephew of Bolivar, the Liberator.

Mail advices from South America report that peace reigns in the interior of the United States of Colombia, and that it is believed a revolution has been averted. From Peru it is announced that Montero's power continues to wane, although his friends still laud him as a General, Admiral, and President, and he declares that he will fight to the death. He is almost without support, and it is hoped the townspeople will depose him from authority and join Iglesias. A despatch on Tuesday announced that Casma, the principal seaport town in the department of Ancachs, had declared in favor of Iglesias and peace.

A letter received from Stanley, the explorer, by a friend in Boston, says: "Since I arrived on the Congo last December I have been up as far as the equator, and have established two more stations, and, besides discovering another lake, Mantumba, have explored, for a distance of 100 miles or thereabouts, the river known on my map as the Kelembu, but which is really the Malumdu. It is not as large as I stated in my book, but is a stream of the size of the Arkansas, and is deep, broad, and very navigable. The big streams, which, I expect, must drain the largest part of the South Congo basin, must be higher up."

THE PUBLIC LANDS.

Mr. Samuel J. Randall, in his Ohio campaign speech on Saturday, made an attack upon the Republican party on the ground that it had squandered the public lands in a reckless and unprincipled manner. He said that all acquisitions of territory by the United States had been the fruit of Democratic policy, while all schemes for giving away land to corporations and speculators had been the result of Republican policy

Acquisitions of territory made before the Republican party came into existence obviously have no political significance now. The most that can be said upon this point is that if the Republican party had existed at the time when Texas annexation and the war with Mexico were on foot, it would have opposed both those transactions as part of the slavery propagandism of the time. The only acquisitions of territory made under Democratic auspices during the memory of the present generation were made for the purpose of extending slavery. If they have answered other and better purposes, they have so far transcended the intention which prompted the acquisition.

It is true that the bulk of the railway land grants were made after the Republicans came into power and while they were in power. But the first one—that of the Illinois Central Railway—was made before the Republican party existed, under the administration of Pierce and the leadership of Douglas. The policy was established under Democratic auspices. It was discontinued years ago, under Republican auspices. If it was a good policy, the Democrats are entitled to the credit of having initiated it. If it was a bad one, the Republicans are to be congratulated upon having discontinued it. The most that can be said in favor of it is that it has led to the settlement and cultivation of large tracts of land at an earlier period than they would have been settled otherwise. The most that can be said against it is that it has added something to the price per acre to the settlers. Mr. Randall's idea is that these land grants were passed for a corrupt purpose, and that they resulted in enriching the grantees at the expense of the rest of the community. There is very little, if any, evidence that the land grants were passed under the influence of corrupt motives. They were believed to be needed to "develop the resources of the country." In this belief both parties shared alike, and both were in accord with public sentiment at the time. It is not true, however, that the recipients of the land grants were enriched by them. Nearly all the railway companies thus endowed went into early bankruptcy, the Illinois Central being foremost in the list. The Union and Central Pacific were saved from bankruptcy only by their money subsidy. The Kansas Pacific became insolvent in spite of the money subsidy. The Northern Pacific was insolvent from 1873 to 1879, and its chief promoters were brought low. The land-grant railways of Wisconsin and Minnesota went through two or three periods of bankruptcy, and probably ruined more people than they ever enriched. Here and there may be found a company which really made something for its early investors out of its land grant, but they are only exceptions to the rule.

There is no question before the people now respecting land grants. By common consent the policy has been abandoned. The homestead law enables any citizen to acquire 160 acres for the mere trouble of settling upon and cultivating it. If settlers still prefer, as they generally do, to go upon the railroad lands and pay the price asked for them, the fact proves that, in the judgment of the only persons whose opinion is worth anything, the conveniences offered by railway transportation are more than an offset to the cheapness of other lands destitute of such advantages. If there were any question of land policy now before the people, it would be a very different one from that which Mr. Randall raises The amount of arable land in the United States not yet brought under the plough is a measurable quantity: we no longer speak or think of it as boundless. Nearly all of it has been explored and its resources roughly calculated. Regarded as the heritage of the poor man—the American poor man—it will suffice for fifty years or more. By this we mean that there will be shelter and means of subsistence on our unsettled domain within reach of all persons now in the United States, and of their children, who can find no other employment, for at least half a century. That which will be sufficient for our natural expansion fifty years will not suffice more than thirty years for the tide of immigration from the Old World added to our own westward drift. Yet there are probably not ten persons in the United States who would think of putting any restriction upon the settlement of our unoccupied lands by foreigners, always excepting the Chinese. Breaking up the western sod and grubbing the thicket and putting in the first crop is a toilsome and lonesome task, and one which we are quite willing to resign to the natives of Germany, Norway, and the British Isles, in full confidence that we shall get a share in the resulting harvest. Yet we must look forward to a time when the last available acre shall be under cultivation, and when further agricultural production can be obtained only by the expenditure of more capital and labor upon the land.

In truth, there is no land question left for political parties to divide upon. Nor are there any facts in the past which give the Democrats ground for boasting superior virtue or prudence in dealing with the question. But if any Congressman—Mr. Randall, for instance—wishes to achieve reputation and establish a claim to public gratitude, he may find his opportunity in the facts disclosed in the report of Colonel Tullis, a special agent of the Government to inquire into public-land frauds, a sketch of which is given in a late telegram from Salt Lake City, as follows:

"The desert-land entry act has been violated with a recklessness that is positively astonishing. In many cases it was found that absolutely nothing had been done toward reclaiming the lands, and yet what were known and regarded as good citizens have gone before the land officers and made solemn oath that the land had been reclaimed and all the conditions of the law complied with, where, in fact, no mark made by human hands could be found upon the entire tract. Other tracts were taken up under the desert act that are no more desert than the valley of the Ohio River. Other land was found to have been taken up under the timber-culture act upon which there were growing, at the time of the original filing, more forest trees than the law requires when final proof is to be made. The homestead law has not been fairly construed, and thousands of acres have been patented by persons who have not complied with one requirement of the law, and who have given fraudulent testimony with the full intent and purpose to defraud the Government. Tens of thousands of acres of public lands are fenced off by wealthy stock-raisers, thus leaving the actual settlers without a range for their family cow. In one instance it was found that men living near a city in Montana had fenced in 3,000 acres of public lands, and permitted the townspeople to pasture their stock on the enclosure for $1 per month per head."

When the Government abandoned the railway land-grant policy and turned over every remaining acre to the poor and needy of every land under the sun, upon the trifling conditions of settlement, improvement, and culture, it left to itself no other land policy than the enforcement of the conditions. These, it appears, have been violated in the most barefaced manner, and to the great injury of actual settlers, since the violators do not obtain good title to the land—no title being good which rests upon fraud—yet get just sufficient title to prevent anybody else from going upon the land and improving it.

PERSONAL ABUSE IN POLITICS.

The Massachusetts Republicans are now troubled by a problem which has long been familiar to people in this city, if not in this State—that is, how far it is best to go in attacks on the personal character of political candidates. As a general rule, Massachusetts candidates have been hitherto so respectable, or so nearly respectable, that the practice of "handling them without gloves" has not sprung up there, or been felt as necessary as in this city, where for thirty years the frank treatment of the personal character of aspirants for office has been an absolute necessity. But now the Republicans have to deal with a man who has no opinions to be attacked, and no public character, properly so called, apart from his private character, to be criticised, and the people who do not believe in "personal abuse" are somewhat puzzled to know how to manage him. To describe Butler's career in the simplest and most dispassionate language is, however, really personal abuse. Nobody can tell the story of his life in a truthful way without offending him, or making it difficult to meet him socially without embarrassment; and yet the story of his life has to be the chief feature in Republican attacks on him. Nor is it possible to criticise his acts during his gubernatorial career without impugning his motives. To use in his defence the old argument—"he has made mistakes, as who has not?"—would excite a smile at any meeting even of his own followers, for it is well known that Butler makes no mistakes in the sense of doing things he did not mean to do. Everything he does is carefully planned.

The great, and indeed one may say the only, objection to plain speaking about a candidate of bad character, who has been nominated after his character is known, is the danger that it will

confirm in their adhesion to him people who are already committed to him. Having taken him up, of course all aspersions on him are to a certain extent aspersions on their own moral standards. They amount to saying that people who are willing to trust such a person cannot be themselves very sound, and everybody is disposed to resent anything of this kind. This accounts in part for the small effect that personal abuse in a campaign usually has on the bulk of the voters, and not only for this, but for the effect it sometimes has in increasing the ardor of a man's supporters.

The embarrassment of the Massachusetts Republicans is increased by their silence about Butler's moral shortcomings, and even condonation of them, when he was on their side. This is really his most effective defence against these attacks. I am no worse now, he constantly says, than I was from 1866 to 1876, and yet they then considered me good enough for any office I asked for. Even if I was then as bad as they say I now am, they were willing to forgive me for the sake of the service I was able to render them. Why should not the Democrats and "the poor man" now do the same thing?

A crisis has been reached, however, in the politics of the State which makes more necessary than ever before absolute plainness of speech. In fact, there ought to be no limit to it but such as truth sets. For if the majority of the voters in the State elect Butler a second time, after the experience they have had of his administration, the effect on the future of the State, financially as well as politically, cannot but be serious. It will, indeed, indicate something hardly less serious than a revolution in the Government. Under Butler the local government in Boston has already undergone a radical change, many of the worst methods of ring rule in this city having been introduced into it. Should he retain his hold on the Governorship, their rapid spread into the State Government can hardly be long postponed. And whether this revolution will come to pass depends on the answer the Massachusetts voters will now make to the question, whether they really like this kind of man in high office. This is virtually the only question in the canvass. There is no conflict of policy or opinions in the State. If the voters announce that they do like this kind of man, it will, of course, indicate the marked approximation of the State Government not to the New York State Government type — for in this State Butler would be an impossibility—but to our City Government type, in which each election consists simply in a struggle to prevent a set of shameless thieves from getting hold of the municipal treasury, and dividing its contents among themselves. No State at the North has ever been threatened with anything of this kind except Massachusetts. In the presence of such an emergency, mealy-mouthedness in describing "the old man" would certainly seem out of place.

THE TRUTH ABOUT "STOCK-WATERING."

THE Chamber of Commerce passed a resolution last week accepting the finding of the Court of Appeals that there was no law against "stock-watering," provided the "water" represented value of some kind, and asking that the law be altered so as to make the practice illegal. This was a much more sensible thing than denouncing the court for agreeing with Judge Truax and overruling the General Term, because Judge Truax is a bad man and the General Term is composed of good men. Of course if the Court of Appeals were to begin to base its decisions on the character of the judges in the courts below, as certified by the newspapers, it would have to be abolished as a farce and a nuisance. There is probably no more futile work done by the press in any community than assailing without positive proof the motives of the court of last resort because its decisions are disagreeable. A court of last resort there must always be, and this one of ours is made up as well as the manners and morals of the people of the State will permit it to be made up. We know of no process, and nobody has suggested any process, by which we can get a better Court of Appeals than the one we now have. If it cannot or ought not to be trusted, our only resource is to submit cases on appeal to the people at the polls, once a year or thereabouts. The objections to submitting them to the editors of the various newspapers are numerous and strong. A General Term or full bench of editors would never be got to agree on anything. Even a clear majority of them probably could not be obtained for any view of any legal question, because each would be, consciously or unconsciously, influenced by the consideration of the effect his decision would probably have on his circulation. A single editor sitting at Special Term would be a Court still less strong and trustworthy, because his finding in a single case might cause him the loss of some of his best advertisers, or compel him to lower the price of his paper.

But the Chamber would have done much better still if it had explained, with the authority which its utterances often have, the futility of prohibiting "stock-watering" without also providing for the regulation of charges. Nothing has done more to hinder the proper discussion of the corporation question than the hold that the term "stock-watering" has taken on the popular mind, and the constant use of it by people who have no clear idea of what they mean by it. "Stock-watering" means simply an increase in the number of shares into which the property of a corporation is divided. But the number of shares into which the property of a corporation is divided is of no more consequence to the public than its name or the size of its offices. It does not make the smallest difference to those who use a railroad or telegraph, whether it is cut up into 10,000 or 100,000 shares. But the incessant outcry against stock-watering during the last few years has convinced tens of thousands of worthy people that if a company can be prevented from raising the nominal amount of its capital as expressed in its stock, the public will somehow be the gainer by it, and the knavish tricks of the monopolists be somehow frustrated.

The result of this delusion has been, as the resolution of the Chamber of Commerce shows, that the real question involved in the anti-monopoly agitation is concealed or disguised. That question is: "Shall we regulate the charges of all corporations by law, and execute the law through state inspection?" This is the true problem which the public has to solve, but which, owing to the babble about stock-watering, is never properly presented to it. The anti-monopolists' position is, we know, that whenever a corporation increases the nominal amount of its capital stock, it tries to earn dividends on this amount, and for this purpose increases, or refuses to reduce, its charges. This may be so, but the fallacy of this position lies in the assumption that companies would lower their charges if they were not allowed to increase the number of their shares. There is not a particle of support for this notion in the history of our corporations. Companies which do not make scrip dividends simply accumulate a surplus. The banks do it and the railroads do it. The New Haven Railroad, for instance, does not water its stock, but neither does it reduce its rates. It simply pays its large profits into its treasury and lets them lie there, if it dislikes the appearance of making too large a cash dividend. The Western Union has watered its stock, but it has also largely and frequently reduced its rates. If it had not watered its stock, however, it would not have been under the slightest compulsion of any kind to give the public the benefit of its large profits. It might, and probably would, have either paid them out in cash dividends or allowed them to accumulate as a surplus.

It would do a great deal to help us to a solution of the corporation question if the term "stock-watering" could be dropped out of the discussion, and both the press and the orators could get down to the plain and simple questions: Are we prepared to limit the profits of corporations by law, and, if so, how shall we do it? Shall we fix their charges for them and thus keep their profits down by the direct action of the Government; or shall we simply take away all motive for charging high rates by prohibiting all dividends, whether cash or scrip, above a certain amount? Shall we do these things to companies exposed to competition and then compensate the existing stockholders for the loss of their legitimate expectations; or shall we protect all existing companies against further competition, as compensation for our interference with their business? Will it do, for instance, to limit the profits of the New York Central, and yet allow the West Shore Line to be built in opposition to it, or limit the profits of the Western Union, and yet allow anybody who pleases to start a rival telegraph company? It is in this way that practical men, whether politicians or merchants, should approach the matter.

THE AUTUMN MANŒUVRES.

THE great "autumn manœuvres," as they are called, have just come to a close both in France and Germany. The Germans have had nearly 70,000 men, and the French nearly 50,000, marching and countermarching for a fortnight in the presence of their respective military chiefs, as well as of a swarm of foreign officers, for the purpose both of testing the readi-

ness of the troops for war and, it must be added, of defying all enemies, known and unknown, present and to come. The foreign observers report but little change in the German army, which is simply another way of saying that it is in a state of the highest efficiency. The armament is, perhaps, not improved, and the appearance and marching of the troops remain the same as last year and ten years ago, but still, as last year and ten years ago, there is nothing like them in the world. Cavalry, artillery, and infantry have all been carried almost as near perfection as is possible in a civilized industrial community in our time. The wonderful system of mobilization under which each district turns out its division or its corps as a complete army ready for independent action, and under which every man who is to form part of it, whether actually in the service or not, knows exactly what to do and where to go when the "fierce blast of war" blows in his ears, still works with the same faultless regularity. Every regiment knows where to find its men and horses, and every man and almost every horse where to find his regiment, and everything that horse or man needs in the way of equipment is in store, ticketed and ready for use.

Against the sin which so easily besets successful armies, too—the sin of self-satisfaction, which, in the beginning of the century, ruined Prussia, and which, in our own time, came near ruining France—the Germans are constantly on their guard. No matter how well things military may seem with them, they are never well enough. Having had practical experience in 1870–1 of the enormous importance of railroads in the work of moving armies in the field, they have since then added a railroad regiment of 3,000 men to their organization, the sole duty of which is to make and destroy railroads, and to run trains on them. To keep this corps in constant training, the Government owns a railroad forty miles long which is entirely managed by soldiers. The conductors are sergeants in uniform, and all the other train men are privates. It carries passengers and freight like other railroads, but solely for the purpose of teaching the regiment how to manage a railroad in time of war. Those who are not employed on the train are constantly exercised in laying tracks and getting railroads ready for use, and also in tearing up tracks and rendering railroads as unfit for use as possible. In these autumn manœuvres specimens of everything an army can do in time of war, without injury to life or limb, are exhibited, and with what an approach to reality may be inferred from the fact that the other day an orchard was cut down remorselessly to give free passage to the artillery. There has been nothing like this in military history before. In all previous military organizations, including that of Rome, a vastly greater reliance was placed on the simple bravery of officers and men. The Germans have for the first time converted war into a business, in which valor really only plays a very secondary part. The German soldier has to be so many things besides being brave, that his bravery is hardly more thought of than that of a clerk in a commercial house. An enormous proportion of the talent of the country has in fact been drawn into the military service. It takes a very large share of the energy and ambition and capacity for administration which in other countries go into manufactures and trade and railroads and science; and the fact that there still remains in Germany so much ability for literature and science and manufactures, shows how much a good educational system does to develop capacity of all kinds, and make it visible and available.

The foreign critics report the French army considerably improved, as far as drill and appearance go, but the accounts about the discipline are conflicting. All agree that the relations between the men and the officers are not good, owing to the attempt on the part of the latter to tighten the reins of authority since the war; but some say there is but little spirit of insubordination, while others maintain that, owing to the influence of the Radical press, there is great difficulty in insuring obedience at all. There is one feeling, however, not unfavorable to efficiency which pervades both officers and men alike, and that is, hatred of the Germans. This is so intense that the German officers who have been present at the manœuvres as guests, have had to avoid contact with the soldiery as much as possible to escape insult, or at all events incivility. That the French transportation still continues defective all the critics agree, and they are further of opinion that sudden mobilization is still not possible without the risk of great confusion and disaster. In short, the conclusion to which one is forced by most of the reports is that France is still in the very inconvenient and perilous position of eagerly desiring war without being ready for it, and of having her military preparations all impeded by incessant changes both in the policy and *personnel* of the Government. The dangers of the situation, too, are aggravated by the fact that it probably does not depend on France herself whether she will fight or not. In other words, there are in the present condition of Europe many indications that she may not be able to bide her time. The air there is as full of "disquieting rumors" about war as our air of "disquieting rumors" about stocks, owing to the growing delicacy of the relations of Austria and Russia in the Balkan peninsula. Austria is steadily pushing her authority, her influence, and her railways down to the Ægean and the Bosphorus, while Russia, which is just as eager to keep a firm foothold on Turkey, has just suffered an irritating check by the revolution in Bulgaria. How long Russian patience will last is now as favorite a topic of speculation on European bourses as the intentions of Gould and Vanderbilt are here. In other words, there is a war cloud in the East, and whenever it bursts France will probably have, willy-nilly, to try of what stuff her new army is made.

THEORETICAL ENGLISH.

THE late Thomas Carlyle said of the 'Middlemarch' of George Eliot that it was neither amusing nor instructive. The same charge cannot be brought against the last number of Kölbing's *Englische Studien*, an organ for English philology, conducted with reference also to instruction in English in "higher schools." The fun is of a more subtle flavor than that which streams out of Pedro Carolino, for the gravity and sobriety of the philological methods employed are worthy of all admiration. Unfortunately, if the work of some of the contributors should fall into the hands of a classical scholar, he would be in great danger of renouncing his own investigations, appalled by the results of induction and analogy as applied to modern tongues, while the non-philological mind would simply set down as arrant nonsense the laborious process of getting at the wrong sense of an English phrase, which could be settled beyond controversy by a postal card addressed to any one born to the English tongue. But your German scholar is not satisfied with any such short process, and every one who has resided in Germany can recall the stolid front that the German mind often presents to obvious explanations, especially when the explanations are given by Americans. So a German once asked an American for the esoteric meaning of the expression "pink jail," which Dickens, in his 'Pictures of Italy,' used to describe his villa near Genoa. To the natural reply that the villa looked like a "jail," and that it was colored "pink," and that such fun as lay in the combination was to be sought in the notorious fact that jails seldom presented so gay an outside in England, the German student of English sadly shook his head. "Pink jail" was an Anglicism that no American—perhaps few Englishmen—could understand. As a rule, the German prefers to hammer out the sense of any unknown sentence in his own way, by laborious mechanical processes, or to absorb the meaning of a phrase by plunging his nature into the psychological environment of the English tongue. One must not be deceived by the modesty with which the views are sometimes put forth. Attack the result, and you will see how ignorant you are of your native language.

In this last number of Kölbing's *Studien* one of the most interesting articles—they are all interesting—is a series of observations on the language of Carlyle. It is a melancholy proof of the ovine character of criticism that Carlyle, whose knowledge of German was evidently not of an idiomatic character, and whose appropriation of German methods of thinking was very limited, should be credited, by one critic after another, with a Teutonic cast of style, simply on the strength of sundry awkward compounds. But, be that as it may, the German student of his works seems to have had as much trouble with Carlyle as if he were not the congener of the Teuton that he is supposed to be. The compounds, as one of the most noticeable features of Carlyle's style, are naturally attacked first. They are alphabetically arranged, without a hint of difference. Some of the combinations have, to be sure, found their way into the dictionary, but as "there is a possibility that they found their way out of Carlyle's writings," the conscientious collector makes no distinction, and we find "free-will," "harvest-home," "heavy-wet" ("probably a vulgarism," he adds), "high-flying," "sun-down," "heavy-laden," "hide-bound," "sky-high," in company with "world-whirlpool," "upholsterer-mummery," and "phantasm-aristocracy." "Bob-major" and "bob-minor" are set down as slang; "soft-sowder" ("Lamartine, with nothing in him but melodious wind and soft-sowder") is a hopeless puzzle.

But if the article on Carlyle errs chiefly from lack of perspective, and really serves to bring to our consciousness the mechanical effects of Carlyle's style, the article on 'Tom Brown's Schooldays' furnishes abundant illustration of the enormous difficulty of mastering the familiar life of a language from the outside; and, by the way, a curious feeling comes over one on reading these grave discussions as to the proper rendering of

all Tom Brown's schoolboy slang—a feeling of shame at finding the English language caught, as it were, in its shirtsleeves by an unlicensed foreigner—a feeling that slang ought to be kept wholly for home consumption, and not submitted to chemical analysis on foreign soil. It appears that some five years since one Doctor Pfeffer published an abridged edition of 'Tom Brown's Schooldays,' with explanatory notes for the benefit of German students of English, and now, at a somewhat later day, Otto Kares, in an unusually polite manner, takes Doctor Pfeffer to task for some of his explanations, and well he may. Doctor Pfeffer fancies that "at a day's notice" means "in the course of a day"; that "slap up" (the classical passage, "they sent him slap up to the ceiling") means "first-rate"; that "the winter's wear" of a road means "snow and ice"; that "sets in the school" has some vague reference to things in a school. The critic himself, however, often opens himself wide to criticism, and his supplementary remark to Doctor Pfeffer's note on "to knock one out of time" is delicious. This phrase Doctor Pfeffer explains as a jocose expression for "killing," and Doctor Pfeffer's critic cites as a parallel the "very common phrase" "to knock one into next week." Evidently, to both of these great scholars, "to knock out of time" is "to knock one into eternity." One of them thinks that "to go the length of" has reference to a long and tedious action; the other stoutly maintains that it involves slow and circumstantial action, and he refers to the "well-known passage" of the Christmas carol—a passage not present to the mind of the reviewer—"He went the whole length of the expression."

Of course there is another side to this. It is a shame that foreigners should be at so much pains to misunderstand our language, and that we should do so little to master the precious inheritance to which we are born. It is true that more attention is paid to English than was the case ten or twenty years ago, but the study is rather philological than stylistic, and little work is done in making grammar valuable for artistic expression. In this whole department of study the French set us and everybody else an excellent example. The practical mastery of the mother tongue ought to be the great result of every form of linguistic study in the formative stage of life. In his suggestive paper on Macaulay, in this number of the *Studien*, Doctor Thum protests against the demand of some of the leading teachers in Germany that students should take either English and German together or French and Latin together. English and French are, after all, he thinks, nearer to each other than English is to German. The etymological connection between English and German goes only a little way, and does not carry us into the wider fields of the language; and then he insists upon it that the words common to English and German are very largely modified, so as to give a French sense; *e. g.*, English *land* is much nearer in its use to French *terre* than it is to German *Land, folks* nearer to French *gens* than it is to German *Volk;* and, which is most important in the way of thinking and feeling, no languages seem to Doctor Thum so closely related as English and French. This is a point which it would not be seemly to dispute with a German. It is one that is at any rate worth considering.

FROM LONDON TO AMSTERDAM.—I.

PARIS, August 31.

THE eight o'clock train leaves Charing Cross in broad daylight, and whisks its freight through the garden of Southeastern England in the gradually deepening twilight, which becomes starlit darkness as the masses of the Dover houses rush past, and the locomotives—there are two of them—come to a panting halt on the Ostend pier. It has been impossible to speak or hear all the two hours. You have never travelled so fast. A half-scramble, half-tumble-down rickety planking brings you to the deck of the mail-packet and into Belgium. The *coup d'œil* is a veritable Turner—the flaring lighthouses; the inky water rising and falling with the diminuendo of the Channel swell; the crest of the piers cutting the topmasts of the shipping which, the tide being out, has a stranded, insignificant look; the churning of the Calais boat's paddles as she swings past and is off first. The traveller's first impulse as he looks at her wake is a jealous one; the bustle and hurry of England take possession of the faculties unperceived, and one becomes unconsciously assimilated to the prevailing notion that the essence of existence is movement. In another minute, however, the Continental tranquillity assumes its proper sway, and one is deliciously content to be slowly gliding out of the harbor in the care of Flemish phlegm, and feeling all that monotonous chaos called London, and the whole whirlpool of industrialism of which it is the vortex, fade out of the mind as the pier lanterns and bobbing lights of Dover gradually grow dim and disappear. The dawn is breaking through ribands of rose and pale green, whose momentary modulations everybody has been watching for an hour, as the boat enters the long Estacade of Ostend and disembarks her passengers. A Channel trip is not without a charm of its own. Barring accidents—that is, *the* accident—there is not unfrequently something breezy, bracing, and invigorating about it; perhaps it is partly because of the contrast between the two shores and the moral sensations one experiences on arrival at either. I do not know if it has ever been celebrated by any one save Thackeray, but he returns again and again to it, and it evidently had taken a hold on his imagination.

Certainly Ostend is as little like an English town as one could fancy; unlike those of both varieties—the commercial, and the moss-grown, stagnant, picturesque, or however one chooses to characterize such places as Salisbury, say. The grand square is full of cafés; there is a park back of the town; the streets fill with people after the siesta hour; the long promenade of the Estacade is apparently very popular; the hotel restaurant is excellent and reasonable. The shop windows are gay, within a limited range: "Souvenirs d'Ostende" in mother-of pearl, coral and conch shells, terracotta objects; statuettes from the Passage Jouffroy; colored prints of a rudeness of execution and freedom of tone which a Parisian kiosk even would not tolerate. Decidedly one is in Belgium: these prints alone are proof enough—a Catholic country of liberal ideas is attested by their moral, and a country north of Picardy by their artistic, quality. But for the sea, Ostend would be hardly worth a visit; also, without the sea it would certainly receive none. But within a few years the Digue de Mer has been built—very substantially, as all similar constructions in Europe seem to American eyes: and the crest of the long dune which separates the sea from the town is studded with new villas in a florid style, which passes for "Flemish Renaissance," and which is really vulgarized French ditto. The originality of things Flemish, from the Van Arteveldes' time down, the quality which differences them from things both to the south and north of them, is perhaps vulgarity in the last analysis—robustness, heartiness, a sort of boisterous effervescence impatient of refinement, if you choose, but, after all, neither more nor less than frankly vulgar. There is evidently, also, a corresponding comfort to be taken in these openly pretentious little boxes which one would not—I at least would not—exchange for the elegance of Trouville. As for the comfort and elegance combined, the American's reflection at all European watering-places is that there is only one Newport after all. The King of the Belgians has a summer residence at one end of the Digue, and in the centre is a spacious and resplendent *Kursaal*, where one may read the journals and enjoy the other urban distractions necessary to the Continental summer resident, at high prices. But altogether, in spite of the splendid reach of beach and sea, and the inspiriting salt breezes, if one is not installed in one of the villas aforesaid, and swinging in his hammock or eating his dinner in one of the cosey recessed piazzas which form their main feature, one leaves Ostend without regret at the end of a day's stay—especially if one has the appetite for oysters of the American in Europe, and has come hither only to find the season over, and the bivalves hopelessly *malades*.

Especially, also, if one is going to Bruges, distant a half-hour's whiz (for some unexplained reason, the trains in Belgium run faster than anywhere outside of England). There are cabs in Bruges, but they seem mere decorative details of the great square, to a hotel in which a municipal porter trundles your trunk on a back-breaking wheelbarrow, behind which you follow with unequal steps. It is one of the largest squares in the world, and as eloquent a monument of former greatness as can exist, its vast vacancy still paved with cobble-stones, which workmen are renewing here and there, as if Bruges were yet the commercial centre of Europe and the residence of twenty foreign ministers, as it was in the fourteenth century, instead of a musty, silent town of 45,000 people, a third of whom are reputed paupers. Silent is an ill chosen epithet in one way. The streets seem deserted, the shops small, few, unfrequented, and exaggeratedly retail; but for the little mirrors attached to the exterior of the windows to satisfy curiosity within as to the aspect of passers-by, the houses would seem tenantless; yet this effect is in an eccentric measure counterbalanced by the incessant clanging of the chimes in the old tower—in the Belfry of Bruges, that is to say. The contrast is exceedingly odd; the tinkling each quarter-hour, day and night, seems so irrelevant as to have the fanciful motive of a desire on the part of the municipal authorities to enliven by main strength, as it were, the dead-and-alive dulness that muffles the echo of one's tread. Dulness, however, is not part of the Flemish character, at least so far as deportment is concerned; and, quiet as the town seems as one is walking its streets or taking his coffee under an awning in the great square opposite the Belfry, if he wend his way in the cool of the evening through the narrow-gabled rows, over the bridges (the "bruges") of the stagnant canals to the park, there is life enough to be found. If the people is Flemish, it is at least not Anglo-Saxon, and it is Catholic, and understands enjoying itself gregariously after its own fashion. The fashion is characteristic. Within an enclosure which one pays to enter are a sufficient number of the aristocracy of the place, listening, with presumable delight, to alternations of Wagner and Bellini, performed with equal gusto and skill by an orchestra belonging to a musical society of the town; but, without, the Bruges youth of both sexes is illustrating its notion of fun, the laughter Homeric, the romping boisterous beyond belief. A strapping boy of fifteen seizes a personification of buxomness around the waist, and they roll over together on the gravel walk in a gale of innocent indecorum. One

comprehends the inspiration of Rubens's rollicking carnivals of nymphs and satyrs.

It is, of course, almost altogether as a museum that Bruges interests the traveller. At a side-altar of the cathedral is the lovely "Virgin and Child" of Michael Angelo, who here more than anywhere else expressed his unmistakable and characteristic sentiment in the caressing curves and soft roundnesses of a composition truly Raphaelesque. In a chapel near by are the tombs of Charles the Bold and his daughter Mary, the latter the earlier and far superior—indeed, one of the finest monuments of the Renaissance. Except at Dijon, where Charles's ancestors, Jean Sans-Peur and Philippe le Hardi, repose in splendid effigy on marble biers sculptured by the Fleming Claux Sluter, there is nothing of the kind like it in existence, north of the Alps—one has always to add that qualification where the fine arts are concerned. But the Memling exposition at the Hospital of St. John is unique. To see adequately this charming painter and really to enjoy his delicate sensibility, one must visit Bruges. The great galleries afford glimpses of his genius; there is a large and important picture by him in the Louvre, and a beautiful panel now buried in the Historical Society's rooms in New York is probably by his hand. But really to have one's fill of him, one must see the famous "Châsse of St. Ursula," the "Marriage of St. Catherine" (according to Fromentin, his masterpiece), the "Epiphany," and the three others which glow tranquilly in the old hospital chapter-room. He is represented, too, at the Académie des Beaux-Arts, though here Van Eyck outshines him, perhaps, to say nothing of the fine pair of panels by Gerard David.

Van Eyck's masterpiece is, as every one knows, at Ghent; and I confess it was to me nearly the one attraction of that city. The French found a Rubens in a neighboring chapel of the cathedral worthy of transportation to Paris; but in their place, I should have let it remain where it was. The "Adoration of the Mystic Lamb" of course accompanied it, and owes its unhappy dismemberment to the fact. The part restored to Ghent, however—*i. e.*, the central portion—is the most interesting, and the visitor to Ghent will find it wise to neglect in its favor most of the other guide-book solicitations; thus, I would, for example, willingly exchange my knowledge of Béguinage internal economy for a more distinct recollection of certain details of this picture. What strikes one most in it, as in all this early Flemish painting—the ante-Rubens Flemish art—is its intense humanity. This is, if not its salient, at all events its essential, characteristic. There is nothing like it in all Italy. From Cimabue to Tiepolo, Italian art occupies itself with the ideal, or, if one chooses, its ideal is the "something afar." There is nothing like it, either, in Holland. Pieter de Hooghe is as ideal in his way as Raphael; Steen and Ostade and Braur are generalizers in their genre, too, and it is not humanity of their sort that is here meant. But Leonardo's sketches of heads—which passed indeed for grotesques, until he affirmed that they were Milanese portraits—are not more idiosyncratic than Memling's Madonnas. In the complex compositions of the Van Eycks, of Roger Van der Weyde, of Gerard David, of Quentin Matsys, the individuality of each personage is insisted on with a force theretofore and thereafter unknown. It recalls the fiction about Turgeneff's way of writing out the entire history of a character whom he designs for only a momentary passage across his stage; Jan Van Eyck must have carried personal observation to some such completeness in the wings of "The Lamb," and Matsys in his "Entombment" (at Antwerp), where the crowds of individuals are particularized to the last degree of intimacy. And this is done not at all in the modern spirit of detail, the Dutch spirit; its inspiration is thoroughly and purely human. Every one has seen Memling's Saint Ursula somewhere: she seems like an actress—like some one person, at least, performing the part, and you feel her personality far more than the legend. I have heard it suggested, even, that the Saint Ursula and the unvarying Madonna of the same painter were Mary of Burgundy, Charles the Bold's daughter, and a possible patron of Memling. In Hubert Van Eyck's imposing figure of God the Father, which dominates "The Lamb," there is no divinity, no generalization, nothing typical. It is stiff; the expression is a trifle vacant, if you will; the accessories are Byzantine in pattern and perfunctoriness; but the character is intimately personal—intensely human, as I said. Perhaps that is why Mr. Crowe calls it Christ. It is not the same thing at all as reality; whether or no the painter had an approximate model even, seems doubtful.

Taine calls the "Adam and Eve" of the Carmine at Florence two Florentines whom Masaccio had undressed, and whose artisan or bourgeois forms, unmodelled by the nude life and gymnastic training of the Greeks, he painted with fidelity; and then he asks how it comes that these personages, nevertheless, live a superior life and strike one as noble, and concludes, very justly, that it is because, from the multitude of observable things in his models, Masaccio chose the most important and subordinated the rest to these. Now, in the "Adam and Eve" of Hubert Van Eyck (the originals are at Brussels; no one must judge them from Coxie's copies at Ghent) the effect is arrived at in exactly the contrary way. So far from leaving out or subordinating anything, it seems as if it had been Van Eyck's endeavor not only to realize the multitude of observable things in their completeness, but to extend the range of these into the domain of the imagination. It is as if his model had not been intensely enough human. Not only is nothing trivial, nothing ugly, nothing in the inferior life of his personages unworthy of reproduction, but after the eye has exhausted its unaided effort a magnifying-glass discloses still further completeness of representation. And the effect thus obtained is a powerful one. It cannot, perhaps, be contended that it is agreeable, but in art, after all, the main thing is to be moved, and one feels strongly before these figures the serious personal import of their "naked and ashamed" estate. Mr. Crowe's remark, in criticism of the ugliness of the Eve, that "the body protrudes," seems almost ludicrous. The same quality is observable in all the Bruges Van Eycks, and Memlings, and Gerard Davids, notably in the fine Jan Van Eyck in the Museum, usually called the "Saint Donatian." W. C. B.

Correspondence.

WHY THE BEST PUPILS TAKE THE CLASSICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of September 13 a correspondent offers, as a proof of the superiority of classical studies as a means of mental training, the fact that at the exercises of the classes graduated from the Albany High School the prizes for rhetorical excellence are generally carried off by those pupils that have studied the classics, though they have less direct training in rhetorical work.

Had he shown that on entering the High School those pupils that do not take the classical studies are, on the average, the equals of those that do, the fact that the latter come out ahead might prove something as to the relative value of the training each had had. As it is, nothing of the kind is proved. The fact is, that in most high schools where Latin or Latin and Greek are taught, the most able pupils, on entering the school, take the course containing these studies. There are several causes that bring this about. In the first place, the better educated and cultivated of the community have been trained in these branches, and are naturally prejudiced in their favor, and so have their children study them too. Secondly, there is an impression abroad that no good university will admit those that have not studied Latin and Greek, and, as a consequence, parents that wish to give their boys and girls a college education (whether themselves educated or not) have them take these studies, though often of the opinion that the college course would be improved by a lessening of classical work. Still, the most potent influence in leading the brighter pupils to take classical studies is that of the head teacher in the school. In most cases he is himself a classical scholar, and neglects no opportunity to induce promising boys and girls to enter the classes pursuing these studies. I seriously doubt his right to use much influence in this way; still, it is very generally done.

Thus it happens that the classical section of our classes contains the more capable pupils, does more work throughout the course, and appears with more distinction at the close of school. Additional work in rhetorical studies, and even superior teachers, could not give the poorer section better minds or more successful powers of speech. George Hempl.

La Porte, Ind., October 1, 1883.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the current Greek discussion a great deal of weight has been attached to the *facts* presented by "R." of Albany in your columns, and to the statement of the President of Amherst that the classical students in his college far surpass the "scientific" students in even the scientific studies. My own experience convinces me that the Albany facts are meaningless, and that the Amherst facts have been put in such a way that, instead of reflecting light on the discussion, they cast a shadow. When I was at Amherst the scientific students were either fellows with inferior preparation or else those who had been dropped from the classical department, and did not wish to be dropped from their class. The Albany facts are worthy of more consideration, and my only reason for saying that they are meaningless is that they are very similar to some facts which once mystified me. When I began to teach English literature to the Seniors in the Columbus High School, I found that the classical students were in general much superior to those who had been taking a German-English course. This weighed a good deal with me until I found that the same difference existed between the corresponding divisions of the Freshman class. It seemed that those pupils elected the classical course whose parents were ambitious to make them "scholars," and this ambition was often prompted by a remarkable grammar-school record. If, therefore, parents in Albany are at all like parents in Columbus, we should, of course, expect that more of the literary prizes would be taken by the classical students than by those who never hope to make any pretensions to advanced scholarship.

I may be wrong in supposing that the condition of affairs in Albany is similar to that in Columbus, but I am not wrong when I say that the Albany statistics will not be regarded as

convincing until they have had a thorough and scientific treatment. A good many of us believe there is truth in the saying that "there is only one thing which lies worse than figures, and that is facts."—Very respectfully,

CHAS. B. SPAHR.

NEW YORK, October 4, 1883.

RIGHTS OF MARRIED WOMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with the article on "Married Women's Rights" in the *Nation* of Sept. 27, it may not be uninteresting to quote a case, Schinckl *v.* Schinckl (12 Md. 108, 1858), arising under statutes substantially the same, no doubt, as the act recently passed in England. In the Maryland case it appears that the wife, having parted from her husband on account of alleged ill-treatment, and having returned to her father's house, sent an agent to her husband's house, in his absence, to take possession of certain furniture belonging to her before marriage; and, in an action of trespass against the agent, in which the defence of the wife's authority was set up, the Court of Appeals held (the quotation is from the decision as abbreviated in the head note) "that the object of the recent acts of Assembly of this State in reference to the property of married women was to protect the property of the wife from the debts of the husband, and during life to secure its enjoyment to the wife; they confer on her no right to separate from her husband without cause, and to remove from his custody her personal property."

This decision is at variance with the conclusions drawn from the English decision by the writer of the late article in the *Nation*, but not necessarily at variance with the decision itself; for it seems that the husband in the English case was in the habit of taking property from the wife's house whenever he visited her, and, therefore, the injunction was necessary in that particular case for the *preservation* of the wife's property; but, had not the husband evinced this kleptomaniac disposition, then, under this Maryland decision, and not inconsistently with the English decision, he would have a right not only to visit his wife's house, but to take possession of it and hold it so long as the property could be safe for, and accessible to, her in his holding. In short, the object of such statutes is purely the protection and preservation of the wife's property from the husband's liabilities and his misuse; and all rights of the husband not inconsistent with preservation of the property are unaffected by these statutes. Hence, in order to prevent the husband's possession of or access to the property of the wife, it must be proved that his possession means the property's destruction. A mere whim of the wife's is not sufficient to give her control of her property against her husband as it is to give any other owner of property (who is unmarried and without children) rights of exclusive possession against the whole world. JOHN H. MORISON.

56 ST. PAUL'S ST., BALTIMORE, MD., Oct. 4, 1883.

THE NEWSDEALER'S RATE OF INTEREST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am not a business man, but have lately had some affairs to transact which necessitated my talking with quite a number of men in an important branch of business, and I was deeply impressed with the crudity and superficiality of the ideas of most of them concerning the matters with which they were continually occupied. I was reminded of this by the argument attributed to the *Herald* in this week's *Nation* on the subject of newsdealers' profits. It is the sort of thing that makes one sometimes think it a hopeless task to spread correct economic ideas among any large body of people.

The *Herald* says that the "rate of interest" that can be made by a newsdealer is 16 per cent., or five times as great as that of the Government bondholder. The *Herald* forgets that this "interest" is made by the newsdealer in one day, or perhaps a fraction of a day; so that we ought to multiply by 365, and say that the rate of interest is some 5,800 per cent., or 1,800 times as great as that of the Government bondholder. If the writer in the *Herald* had not made this little oversight, these figures would probably have warned him of the absurdity of his comparison by showing him that he was proving too much—that cheapest of all ways of detecting a fallacy. Of course, in point of fact, the rate of interest plays an infinitesimal part in the business.

These comments would not have been worth making, were it not that the remarks to which they refer are only too typical, in their looseness and inconsequence, of much of the writing and talking upon economic subjects which is suffered to pass current. F. F.

BALTIMORE, October 6, 1883.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS add as a tenth volume to their "New Plutarch Series" a 'Life of Frederick the Great,' by Col. C. D. Brackenbury, of the British army. They will also publish 'A Study of the History of Democracy,' by Jonathan Norcross, of Atlanta, Ga.; 'The True Theory of the Sun,' by Thomas Bassnet; and 'The Words of Christ,' by President Bascom of the University of Wisconsin.

J. W. Bouton's list of foreign illustrated works of which he will be the publisher for this country embraces new editions of Brillat-Savarin's 'Physiologie du Goût' and of Major's Cruikshank edition (1831) of 'Robinson Crusoe'; also, a second series of Racinet's 'Polychromatic Ornament'; 'The Art of the Old English Potter,' by L. M. Solon, with fifty etchings on copperplate; Louis Gonse's 'L'Art Japonais,' in two volumes, 4to; 'Humor, Wit, and Satire of the 17th Century,' by John Ashton; Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey,' with original drawings by Louis Leloir; and the late Samuel Palmer's English version of Virgil's 'Eclogues,' with fourteen of the translator's own designs.

An English version of Octave Uzanne's 'Sunshade, Muff, and Glove,' with its extraordinary illustrations in photogravure, is announced by J. B. Lippincott & Co., who also have nearly ready 'The Lost Histories of America,' by W. S. Blacket.

The Century Co. will make a book of the papers lately contributed to their magazine by the Rev. Washington Gladden, on "The Christian League of Connecticut." Cloth and paper editions are promised.

The Althrop Publishing House, Chicago, announce 'The Merchants' and Tourists' Guide to Mexico,' by Charles W. Zaremba, special agent of the Mexican Government. The volume will consist of 150 pages of text and seven railroad maps, and will give information concerning the Mexican tariff, the geography and history of the republic, the location of the most celebrated antiquities, etc., etc.

'Worthington's Annual,' an illustrated volume for children of all ages, is promised immediately by R. Worthington.

P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia, will publish on October 15 a 'Manual of Psychological Medicine and Allied Nervous Diseases,' by Edward C. Mann, M.D. The volume will be illustrated.

The first volume of Macmillan's edition of Emerson's works, which is the last of the series to appear, having been delayed for the introductory essay which Mr. John Morley is to write, will be published immediately. When Parliament rose Mr. Morley left London for the purpose of finishing it at once. It is awaited with a good deal of interest in England, as no one is better qualified than Mr. Morley to deliver a verdict upon Emerson in accordance with modern radical philosophic ideas. Macmillan & Co. have in the press and will publish immediately a volume of poems by Mr. Sam Ward. A collection of Mr. Ward's poems was published in New York many years ago, and a second edition of the same by Hotten in London in 1871. In the present volume many of the previous poems are omitted and new ones added, among the latter being a number of French verses. It is called, as before, 'Lyrical Recreations,' and is dedicated to the Earl of Rosebery, "Decori Scotiæ et Humanitatis."

Funk & Wagnalls have in press 'Our Christmas in a Palace' (*i. e.*, in a palace car), by Edward Everett Hale; a translation, by the Rev. G. F. Behringer, of Brooklyn, of Rein's 'Popular Life of Martin Luther,' based on Köstlin's.

The formation of the American Ornithologists' Union has taken place under the best auspices, and with the greatest harmony and good feeling. Mr. J. A. Allen was chosen president. The Nuttall Club, of Cambridge, Mass., have turned over its *Bulletin* to the new association, which will thus, beginning with January, have an established organ. The new series, vol. i., will correspond to vol. ix. of the old series, and the magazine will come before the public as a quarterly journal of general ornithology.

The following titles are from the list of T. Fisher Unwin, London: 'Arminius Vámbéry, his Life and Adventures, written by Himself'; 'Pilgrim Sorrow,' prose poems by the Queen of Rumania, translated by Miss Helen Zimmern; 'Table Talk of Martin Luther,' a new selection, translated and edited by Professor Gibb; 'Robinson Crusoe,' a foolscap quarto edition, with twenty drawings in color by Kauffmann; and "Lives Worth Living," a series of biographical works, of which the first four volumes will be new editions of works similarly comprehensive, as, H. A. Page's 'Leaders of Men,' etc.

The new editions of the week are Prof. H. M. Baird's 'History of the Rise of the Huguenots of France' (Charles Scribner's Sons), for which our high estimate does not need to be repeated, while it must be noted that the price has undergone a reduction which puts these volumes within every one's reach; Dr. Chadbourne's 'Instinct' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), first published in 1872, and since untouched, on the express belief of the author that no new light has been thrown upon the subject by the scientists—which might be true without relieving the inadequacy of his original discussion; and William Shepard's 'Pen Pictures of Modern Authors' (Putnams). This last work has been promoted to a really luxurious estate of fine paper and broad margins and (what it had not before) portraits. Such a dignifying of a decidedly unpretentious book, and one, by the way, in which the editor's shears play a larger part than either the critical faculty or literary skill, would perhaps rather have conciliated than repelled purchasers if duly set forth upon the title-page.

Messrs. Osgood's illustrated edition of Tennyson's 'Princess' is irreproachable in its typography, and bears an effective design upon its covers. The woodcuts are numerous, and, as usual in our American work, the figure subjects are the least successful, whether as regards the drawing or the higher quality of imagination. In the landscapes the national spirit asserts itself

more confidently, and there are several passages of marked beauty. As we cannot in all cases identify the designer, we will mention no names, but to the anonymous gem on page 156 we must award the palm for investing with so much charm such simple materials. The architectural conceptions of some of these artists are as unreal as anything in the poem, which, after all, has a deep foundation in half-realized truths, and must always be read with pleasure for its music and its lofty ideals. The present edition will not fail of its admirers.

Volume iv. of the great 'Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.' has been issued from the Government Printing Office. It extends from E to Fizes, and fills more than 1,000 pages. It includes 4,802 author titles, which represent 1,926 volumes and 3,885 pamphlets. The figures for subject entries are, of course, larger; there are 12,361 subject titles corresponding to books and pamphlets, and 48,977 references to articles in periodicals. A "third addition" is made to the list of abbreviations of titles of medical periodicals, showing that some new sets have been added to the library and indexed as far as could be done—that is, for the letters beyond D.

M. Jules Lévy's *Le Français* (Cambridge, Mass.), now entering on its fourth volume, tells of the second season of a Club Molière in Boston, and promises to open a department of exchange for French books by which the cost of reading may be greatly diminished. This involves gratuitous advertisement and much—we think unnecessary—trouble on the part of the obliging editor.

The significant feature of the *Magazine of American History* for October is the first instalment of a reprint of a manuscript of "Private Intelligence, beginning January 20, 1781." of Sir Henry Clinton's, now in possession of Dr Thomas Addis Emmett, of this city. This reproduction is learnedly prefaced and annotated by Mr. Edward F. De Lancey, and possesses a high degree of historical interest, beginning as it does with the revolt of the Jersey line, which promised so much for the Royalist cause and yielded so little comfort.

Apropos of the meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, *Nature* for September 20 gives a "Science Worthies" portrait of Prof. Arthur Cayley, the newly-chosen head of that body, and "the greatest living master of algebra." Few heads in this valuable series have been more impressive, and few faces more attractive, than Cayley's.

A correspondent finds some encouragement for General Butler in the following passage from Renan's 'Souvenirs' (p 123): "Je m'habituais à prendre pour mes jugements pr tiques le contrepied de mes jugements théoriques, et à ne regarder comme possible ce qui contredisait mes aspirations. Plus une solution politique fut chétive, plus elle me parut avoir de chances pour réussir dans le monde des réalités."

—The October number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* contains a second despatch of English probate abstracts from Mr. Henry F. Waters, whose systematic researches in London we have already made known to our readers. As before, these are annotated by the editor and his colleagues, with the result in numerous instances of establishing the connection between the English family and its American offshoot. Thus, to take a striking instance, the will of Joseph Holland, clothworker, of London, shows that he was the father of Nathaniel Holland, of Watertown, Mass.; whereas in Bond's history of that town Nathaniel was conjectured to have been son of a settler, John Holland, of Dorchester, Mass. The way to further investigation is now made plain. Other names involved in Mr. Waters's gleanings are Gorges, Parker, Gurdon, Saltonstall, Williams (offering a pretty puzzle to the antiquary, who must identify one of six contemporary Richard Williamses), Eaton, Munnings, Bell, Lyddall, Tucker, Burges, Brinley (very fully reported and edited), Sylvester, Ward, Simonds, Snape, etc. As before, Virginia and Maryland families occur among the New England, and, indeed, Mr. Waters has an eye for every reference to a kinsman "now beyond the seas." The fund in support of this public-spirited mission still needs enlargement. Another interesting feature of the present number of the *Register* is an account, by Abner C. Goodell, jr., of "Provincial Seals in Massachusetts," of which two dozen illustrations are given—the result of extraordinary patience on the part of the writer. In one instance, to obtain nine fragmentary impressions on wax, he made "a careful search through more than 2,800 different envelopes of the filed papers" of the Bristol County probate court. In the "Notes and Queries," a contributor establishes the identity of Wordsworth and Wadsworth in the poet's family line, and suggests research to determine a possible relationship to Longfellow.

—Mr. Alexander Johnston's 'Genesis of a New England State (Connecticut)' forms No. 11 of the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. It is a highly interesting *coup d'œil*, brief, perspicuous, and not more learned than literary. The growth of two separate commonwealths, of which Hartford and New Haven were the respective centres and seats of authority, and the ultimate reluctant absorption of the latter by the former, is graphically described. The Connecticut colony fostered a free-town system, while the Quinnipiack (or New Haven), on the other hand, persistently sought "to keep the towns in pupilage, and the political power in the hands of church members." The latter system went to the wall in 1664, but had a posthumous trial, it is well to remember, in the settlement by come-outers from Branford and Long Island of Newark, N. J., where theocratic government according "to the laws of God as they were delivered to Moses" finally gave up the ghost on this continent. New Haven, however, one cannot but reflect, had its revenge in being afterward given control of the higher education of the State. In the shaping of Connecticut character and legislation this may well be thought more than an equivalent for the lost town leading-strings. At least, considering the close clerical direction of Yale College for a century and three-quarters, it is a curious subject for speculation what would have been the development of the institution itself had it been removed from Saybrook to Hartford, and what its effect upon the institutions of the State.

—The first edition of Professor Perry's textbook of political economy was published eighteen years ago, and its popularity is shown by the appearance this year of the eighteenth edition (Charles Scribner's Sons). But, as the author says, it is still the same book. The changes and additions are numerous, but they affect form rather than substance, and probably no doctrine of importance ever held by Professor Perry has been abandoned by him. An experience of thirty years in teaching has brought out from his pupils, as he thinks, every possible objection to the leading points in his book, and as it is now printed from fresh plates, it may be regarded as containing his ripest thought. The late Professor Taylor, of New Haven, once acknowledged to a student that he believed that in his system every theological question found a satisfactory answer. The hearty recommendation that our author gives to his own definitions indicates a like complacency. We must confess that the armies of the Philistines are just now too strong and too aggressive to allow us to share this feeling. Moreover, we cannot regard Professor Perry's treatment of the theories of Malthus and Ricardo as at all adequate. According to him, the rate of the increase of population and the ratio of this increase to the increase of food, however interesting as physiological questions, have clearly nothing to do with political economy. If that science is to be simplified by excluding from its scope all difficult and disagreeable subjects, it may be possible to reduce it to a theoretical perfection; but such a science would be too barren to be cultivated. We incline to think, however, that these defects are really due to the author's kindness of heart, and perhaps also to the influence of his surroundings. The "law of love" has prevailed so long at Williams College that it may well be that social problems seem there of a less sombre hue than elsewhere. Certainly the "dismal" aspect of political economy is not to be discovered in this book, which beams with a cheerful optimism. The most valuable additions in this edition are to be found in the historical chapters, which contain in a condensed form much information patiently extracted from obscure and widely-scattered sources. The chief merit of the book will continue to lie in the earnestness and thoroughness with which the errors of the protectionists are exposed. The collection of facts and statistics relating to our tariffs is of great value, and is brought down to a very recent date.

—Professor Lankester's address before the British Association, on September 20, contains a great deal of interesting information regarding the present state of scientific research at German, French, and English universities. It advocates the claim of biological science in England to a far greater measure of support than it receives at present from the public funds. The condition of biological research is far below that of France and Germany, and even Holland, Belgium, Italy, and Russia, and is discreditable to England in proportion as she is richer than other states. "We know," he continues, "that knowledge is languishing and able men are drawn off from scientific research into other careers, that important discoveries are approached and their final grasp relinquished, that great men depart and leave no disciples or successors, simply for want of that which is largely given in other countries, of that which is most abundant in this country, and is so lavishly expended on armies and navies, on the development of commercial resources, on a hundred injurious or meaningless charities—viz., money." He lays down the general proposition that scientific discovery has only been made by those whose time could be devoted to it (1) in virtue of their possessing inherited fortunes, or (2) in virtue of their possessing a stipend or endowment especially assigned to them for that purpose. It is to German sources that the zoölogist, the botanist, the physiologist, and the anthropologist look for new information. It is in German laboratories that discoveries, each small in itself but leading up to great conclusions, are daily made. "To a very large extent the business of those who are occupied with teaching or applying biological science in this country consists in making known what has been done in German laboratories. Our English students flock to Germany to learn the methods of scientific research; and to such a state of weakness is English science reduced for want of proper nurture and support that, even on some of the rare occasions when a capable investigator of biological problems has

been required for the public service, it has been necessary to obtain the assistance of a foreigner trained in the laboratories of Germany."

—Germany, he continues, with a population of 45,000,000, has twenty-one universities, and about eighty more institutes at which biological discoveries are prosecuted under the most favorable conditions. England, with 25,000,000 inhabitants, has only four universities which possess endowments and professoriates—Oxford, Cambridge, Durham, and the Victoria (Owens College), at all of which, as well as at the London colleges, there is an extraordinarily small amount of provision for biological research. In proportion to its population England has only one-fourth of Germany's provision for the advancement of biological science—thirty-eight instructorships as against 300 in Germany; and while Germany spends $4,000,000 a year on her universities, the £27,000 spent on the Nottingham College of Science was in England regarded as something extraordinary. Professor Lankester demands, in order that England shall be approximately on a level with Germany, forty new biological institutes at an annual cost of £60,000. He refers to the outrageous conduct of Parliament in deliberately appropriating to other uses the property left by Sir Thomas Gresham for scientific research 250 years ago, and which is now estimated to be worth £3,000,000 sterling. Schoolmasterships are too often confounded with professorships. The best teachers, it is true, are those who are engaged in original research and have, therefore, thoroughly grasped their subject; but time and money are necessary if the teacher is to add to the stock of knowledge:

"Those Englishmen who take an interest in the progress of science are apt to suppose that, in some way which they have never clearly understood, the pursuit of scientific truth is not only its own reward, but also a sufficient source of food, drink, and clothing. While they are interested and amused by the remarkable discoveries of scientific men, they are astonished whenever a proposal is mentioned to assign salaries to a few such persons, sufficient to enable them to live decently while devoting their time and strength to investigation. The public are becoming more and more anxious to have the opinion or report of scientific men upon matters of commercial importance, or in relation to the public health; and yet in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred they expect to have that opinion for the asking, although accustomed to pay other professional men handsomely for similar service. Such mistaken views ought to be dispelled."

—The constant tearing up of our pavements and obstructing of our streets in pipe-laying and pipe-mending was bad enough while there were only sewers and gas-pipes and water-pipes under the roadway; but now that steam heating and power, and electric lighting and power, and telegraphic communication are all requiring underground transmission, the inconvenience is unendurable. The Parisians manage better. Tunnels under the principal streets carry all the drains, pipes, and wires — these veins, nerves, and muscles of the body municipal. Everything can thus be got at for inspection and repair without expense and without interfering with the travel above. The model city of the future will undoubtedly have two roadways, and perhaps a third for rapid transit. But till lately Paris was the only city that had perceived that to build a tunnel once for all is cheaper than to be continually digging and filling and paving and redigging and refilling and repaving a ditch. London has now made a beginning in the same direction. Down the middle of Southwark Street is a subway of semicircular shape and twelve feet diameter, the crown coming just below the pavement. Side passages, three feet wide, are made from the subway on each side for each pair of houses. Glazed stoneware pipes laid at a sufficient inclination bring the house drainage into an egg-shaped sewer built immediately under the subway. Gas pipes and water pipes are, and electric wires can be, carried through the subway itself. Light is obtained at intervals by circular openings in the crown of the roadway. The Paris subways are, we believe, lighted by gas. The system once introduced is sure to spread, for though the initial expense is great, there must be economy in the long run; and the lighting, heating, and water companies can be made to bear their share of the cost.

—M. Victor Jannet relates in the *Vie Parisienne* how the young thieves of Paris train themselves for their profession. It appears that you may watch the process in certain public gardens of Paris, just as you may see our future base-ball players hardening their hands and sharpening their eyes and "coördinating" their muscles on our town commons. In the training-school which M. Jannet happened upon one afternoon three gamins were sitting on a bench acting as jury; two of their companions practised before them. When the trick had been done to the satisfaction of the judges, one of the performers gave up his place to one of the jury, and so on till all had taken every part. One of the boys (they were from fifteen to eighteen years old) sauntered along, his hands in his pockets, like a well-to-do citizen taking his stroll after dinner; the other "shadowed" him, stole gradually nearer, and then passing him tripped him up. At the first trial which our narrator saw, the pseudo-thief failed to throw his victim down; the latter was staggered, but managed to keep his feet. Chorus of disapprobation from the jury; a fresh trial ordered. The next attempt was more successful. The *bourgeois* was thrown, and in an instant the thief was on him, locking his legs with his own, and gagging him with his left hand while with his right he expeditiously stripped him of porte-monnaie, ring, and watch. Chorus of approbation; change of actors. When all had played both parts in this little comedy of action, another trick was tried. At last, looking around, M. Jannet saw, to his stupefaction, a policeman gazing at the show through the railings with smiling interest, but as if it was absolutely none of his business. He questioned him. "Yes," said the officer, "they are practising what they will do this evening; they come here every day to practise." "Why don't you stop it?" "What can I do? If I interfere, they will say that it is only a boys' game. There is no law against it. Besides, this garden is in the charge of another man, and I am strictly forbidden to set foot in it unless he calls me to assist him." It is a commonplace of the moralists that if rogues would work half as hard to succeed honestly as they do to cheat and steal, they would be rich men. The scene just described may give some color to the assertion; but the labor we delight in is no labor. No one will see any sudden conversions of rogues by the preaching of such a doctrine. There have always been men who preferred poverty in their favorite calling to wealth in any other. The rascals know their own tastes best. The freedom, the irregular occupation, the still more irregular gains, the sense of superior power, the agreeable feeling of danger—all appeal to the instincts of the savage and the gambler.

TAYLOR'S ALPHABET.—I.

The Alphabet: an Account of the Origin and Development of Letters. By Isaac Taylor, M.A., LL.D. Vol. I. Semitic Alphabets; Vol. II. Aryan Alphabets. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1883. 2 vols. 8vo.

ALPHABETIC writing is an art easy to acquire, when once discovered, but its invention "has proved to be the most arduous enterprise in which the human intellect has ever been engaged, and its achievement has tasked the genius of the three most gifted races of the ancient world." At different epochs and by various races there have been devised methods by which events might be recorded and messages transmitted. All have started with rude pictures of objects, which, more or less conventionalized, have gradually been employed as representatives of words, and which afterward have become the symbols of sounds more or less elementary: that is to say, writing began with *ideograms*, or pictures intended to represent either things or thoughts, which afterward developed into *phonograms*, or the graphic symbols of sounds. The latter are of three kinds—signs standing for whole words, for syllables, and for the sounds into which they can be resolved. Our author's task, then, is to prove that the letters of the alphabet are merely phonograms, which through the lapse of time have reached the extremest stage of simplicity, and which may all be resolved into the conventionalized picture of some object. As an illustration, he gives at length the history of the letter M, which is traced down from the conventionalized picture of an owl—in the ancient language of Egypt, *mulak*. This was primarily used as "an ideogram to denote the bird itself, and secondly as a phonogram standing for the name of the bird. Then it gradually became a syllabic sign used to express the sound *mu*, the first syllable of the name, and ultimately it came to be employed simply to denote *m*, the initial sound of that syllable." The various changes through which it has passed in its transformations require the assistance of plates to make them plain to the eye, and to show how they all present certain features which may be recognized as the conventionalized picture of an owl. Thus, in the letter M, the two peaks are the lineal descendants of the two ears of the owl, and they still retain between them a not inapt representation of the beak. In like manner, A can be shown to be originally the picture of an eagle, D of the hand, F of the horned asp, R of the mouth, and so on.

Before entering upon the task of investigating systematically the origin and connection of the many hundred alphabetic signs in use in different parts of the world, the author gives a rapid sketch of the various systems of non-alphabetic writing, with the special object of investigating the processes by which primitive ideograms have passed through the successive stages of phonograms, and of syllabic signs, until they finally developed into letters. Passing hurriedly over the less elaborate methods that have been devised by various savage races, of the five great systems of picture-writing which have been independently invented—the Egyptian, the Cuneiform, the Chinese, the Mexican, and the Hittite—he proceeds to treat of the three former with considerable detail. But of the Mexican system very little is told except that "at the time of the arrival of the Spaniards it was just reaching the stage of the phonographic expression of the names of persons and of places." The first step had been taken, and under the tuition of the missionaries the Mexican ideograms were so developed as to become capable of transcribing the Pater-Noster. But the old error is repeated that the Mayas of Central America had by themselves advanced further on the path which leads to alphabetic writing. Based upon the misleading guidance of Bishop Landa's manuscript, and its pretended "key," the astounding statement is hazarded that "the Mayas employed twenty-seven characters which must be admitted to be alphabetic"; and that "the high state of

civilization attained by this people is thus attested not only by the ruins of their magnificent buildings, but by the invention of a system of writing actually superior in simplicity and convenience to that employed at the present day by the Chinese, or even by the great Assyrian nation at the epoch of its highest power and glory." But when we come to read further on that "the systems of picture-writing which were invented and developed by the tribes of Central America are very obscure, and but little is really known about their history," our confidence in the author's soundness of judgment and capacity of drawing legitimate conclusions receives a severe wrench. It is evident that he is by no means well informed as to the latest conclusions of the special investigators of American antiquities.

In treating of the obscure subject of the so-called Hittite characters, an excellent résumé is given of the little that has thus far been discovered in regard to one of the most powerful peoples of the primeval world, whose empire extended from the Euphrates to the Ægean, and from Syria to the Euxine, and who, like the Egyptians and the Babylonians, possessed a culture, an art, and a script peculiar to themselves and plainly of indigenous origin. Scholars are only just beginning to realize the vast extent of their dominion, and their important place in primitive history. It is now admitted that the earliest art and the mythology of Asia Minor were to a great extent obtained from the Hittites, while the independent system of picture-writing which they possessed offers an obvious source from which to explain the origin of the Cypriote script. This has long proved a puzzle to the interpreters, and has only recently yielded to the efforts of a few scholars of different nationalities, all of whose names we find mentioned by our author with deserved respect, with a single exception. He makes no reference to the successful labors of an American scholar, Prof. Isaac H. Hall, of Philadelphia, who first published a translation into English of the celebrated bronze tablet brought by the Duc de Luynes from Dali (the ancient Idalium), and who first gave to the world in the *Journal* of the American Oriental Society the Cypriote inscriptions contained in the Cesnola collection at New York. Even this collection is passed over without mention; and the name of Cesnola does not occur, although the inscription upon the gold armlet of King Ithyandros, of Paphos, which was discovered by Cesnola at Kourion, and which is now in the Metropolitan Museum of Fine Arts in New York, is given at length both in the mysterious Cypriote characters and in the equivalent Greek letters into which they have been resolved.

We must pass over our author's interesting account of the Chinese system of picture writing, with its 40,000 ideographic signs, capable, it is true, of being expressed by 1,358 conventional symbols, but only on condition that "at the age of twenty-five a diligent Chinese student has barely acquired the same facility in reading and writing which is usually attained by a child in an English village school at the age of ten." We can, too, merely allude to the great simplification this system has undergone in the Japanese syllabaries, in which only 231 different types are required to print a book; nor have we space to describe the different cuneiform systems of writing, the three chief stages of which are best exhibited in the great tri-lingual inscription of Behistun, containing three versions of a decree of Darius, in one of which the language is Aryan, in another Turanian, and in the third Semitic. Let us come at once to the account of the hieroglyphic system of Egypt, and of De Rougé's great discovery of the derivation from it of the alphabet.

It is difficult to realize fully the immense antiquity of the Egyptian hieroglyphic writing. The oldest example extant of it, and consequently the earliest existing inscription in the world, is a tablet erected by Sent, a king of the second dynasty, to the memory of his grandson. According to the chronological system of Brugsch, who is not at all inclined to extravagance of statement, this king must have reigned about 4000 years B. C. This venerable historical record is now preserved in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford, and it affords conclusive proof that even at that distant date the hieroglyphic writing was already an extremely ancient system. From the time of King Sent down to the reign of Trajan, when it went out of use, many of the picture ideograms with which it commenced continued to be employed to the very last. These primitive ideographic signs gave birth to verbal phonograms, which came to be used as syllabic signs. As an example of the manner in which this development took place, the author gives the instance of the picture of a lute, which was used symbolically to denote 'excellence.' Then it came to stand as a phonogram for the word *nefer*, 'good.' But in the Egyptian speech this word also signified 'as far as,' so that the same character might represent literally a lute, or symbolically it might stand either for 'excellence' or the preposition *nefer*, meaning 'as far as,' and lastly as a syllabic sign to denote *ne*, the first syllable of the word *nefer*. It would happen almost necessarily that many symbols would be polyphonic, and hence ambiguities would arise, which made requisite the simultaneous employment of explanatory determinatives, either special, whose use was confined to one word or idea, or generic, referring to whole classes of words. These determinatives were placed after the words phonetically expressed: for example, a man with his hand pointing to his mouth was added to words relating to eating, speaking, or thinking; two legs to words connected with locomotion.

Such a system of phonograms, developed out of primitive ideograms, and interpreted by means of determinative signs, is common to other primitive methods of writing, such as the Cuneiform and the Chinese. But in the Egyptian system we find associated a certain number of characters which must be pronounced to be alphabetic in their nature. "The immensely early date at which such symbols are found is a fact of the highest importance, as it constitutes the starting-point in the history of the alphabet, and establishes the literal truth of the assertion that the letters of the alphabet are older than the Pyramids—older, in fact, than any other existing monument of civilization." Certain peculiarities attaching to the hieroglyphic letters clearly indicate that the Egyptian alphabet was obtained by gradual evolution out of a prior syllabary—a process which must have taken many generations to effect. Symbols for vocal sounds are found in the syllabaries of other nations, but the more difficult conception of a *consonant*, a sound that can be produced only in conjunction with some other sound, was attained by the Egyptians alone. In this they were aided by the nature of their language, in which each consonant has its "complementary vowel," which in reading must often be treated as a mere expletive, and in writing was constantly omitted, only initial and final vowels, and medial vowels when emphatic, being necessarily written down. The consonants also show a preference for certain vowels and an aversion to others; and the vowels themselves, which appear to have been of a more indeterminate character than in most other languages, were almost regarded as inherent in the preceding consonant.

The final stage in the formation of the Egyptian alphabet was the gradual selection out of the 400 phonograms that might be so employed of certain symbols to denote the initial sounds of words. Gradually the arbitrary use of these was restricted to two or three of the more easily-written hieroglyphics to denote any particular sound. The number of characters thus used at various times may be reckoned at forty-five, which was ultimately practically reduced to twenty-five, and agrees with the tradition handed down by Plutarch that the Egyptians possessed an alphabet of twenty-five letters. But although from the times of the earliest known monuments they were actually in possession of a sufficient number of true letters to enable them to write alphabetically, they were unwilling to trust themselves to its simplicity, but thought it necessary to interpret the meaning of their alphabetical symbols by needless additions of ideographic and syllabic signs. The great achievement of boldly discarding all this superfluous lumber and of revealing in its grand simplicity the nearly perfect alphabet of which, without knowing it, they had been in virtual possession for countless ages, was beyond the power of Egyptian conservatism to effect. It was left to another people to take up the problem and to make the grand discovery. The triumph of this great conception belongs to the Semites.

The tradition of the ancient world, which assigned to the Phœnicians the glory of the invention of letters, declared that it was from Egypt that they originally derived the knowledge of the art of writing, which they afterward carried into Greece. When, however, this ancient belief is brought to the test of modern scientific investigation, it is found that there is no such easy and certain transition from the Phœnician to the Egyptian writing as there is from the alphabet of Greece to the primitive alphabet of the Semitic nations. The two alphabets agree neither as to the number, the order, the names, nor the forms of the respective letters. "Till a very recent period these difficulties have led many scholars of repute to the conclusion that classical tradition was at fault in asserting that the Phœnician letters were originally obtained from Egypt, . . . and the origin of the alphabet has been deemed by the highest authorities an unsolved, if not an insoluble, problem. . . . But as in so many similar cases, the result of the latest investigations has been to rehabilitate the discredited tradition of antiquity."

Of this great discovery the entire credit is due to the genius of a French Egyptologist, Emmanuel de Rougé. The first account of his investigations was given in a paper read before the Académie des Inscriptions in the year 1859, but it was only as recently as 1874 that it was published in full from the rough draft of the original, and carefully edited by his son. The secret of his brilliant success lay in his divining that the immediate prototypes of the Semitic letters must be sought, not, as before, among the hieroglyphic pictures of the Egyptian monuments, but among some one of the different cursive characters which had been developed out of them, and which were employed for literary and secular purposes. Rejecting the later Demotic types, M. de Rougé turned to the oldest form of Hieratic writing which had arisen during the early empire, and was in use at the time of the Semitic conquest of Lower Egypt, which is known as the invasion of the Hyksos. He began by determining the oldest-known form of the Semitic letters, employing such few materials as were then available, especially the inscription on the sarcophagus of Eshmunazar, King of Sidon—for the famous Moabite stone, which strikingly confirms the results he obtained, was not discovered till ten years later. The materials

for reconstructing the early Hieratic alphabet were still more meagre, and were practically confined to the celebrated papyrus, now in the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris, which was brought from Thebes by M. Prisse d'Avennes, and published by him in 1847. A statement at the end of this papyrus shows that it is a copy of an original work composed by Prince Ptah-Hotep in the time of the third dynasty; but as the MS. was discovered in a tomb of the eleventh dynasty, the copy itself must be anterior to the Hyksos invasion, and therefore older by centuries than the time of Moses—older even than the date usually assigned to Abraham. This priceless Papyrus Prisse, "le plus ancien livre du monde," as it is styled by Chabas in his interesting account of it published in the *Revue Archéologique* for 1858, is "one of the strangest waifs that have floated down to us from the very childhood of the world." It is a treatise upon ethics, in which an ancient sage moralizes upon the deterioration of his age, and laments the good old times that have passed away. Here we have disclosed to us a picture of social life some 6,000 years ago, and even then the ethical teacher regards himself not as treating of novelties, but as preserving and transmitting to posterity the wisdom of his ancestors. We find that not only are the palette and inkhorn used as signs, but reference is made to older books as authorities for several statements. If books were written in Egypt before the third dynasty, how far "into the dark backward and abysm of time" must the beginnings of her civilization be thrust? From this invaluable relic of the past M. de Rougé obtained the characters so peculiar, so unmistakably distinct from every other form of Egyptian writing, which he brings forward as the prototypes of the letters of the Semitic alphabet. With great minuteness he sets forth the considerations which have led to the adoption of each of his identifications.

Mr. Taylor gives a most lucid and satisfactory summary of these arguments, but it would be impossible to give a comprehensible account of them without the help of engravings. After carefully weighing the objections to the hypothesis, he finds in them no difficulty which can be considered fatal to the argument, no objection to which a reasonable answer may not be made; but, on the contrary, he discovers an entire lack of evidence in favor of any of the other possible alternative sources of the Semitic alphabet that have been suggested. This strong case is then still further strengthened by an elaborate study of the "chronological conditions" of the problem, and of the "geographical probabilities" that bear upon it, admirable both for learning and for logic. Briefly, it may be summed up as follows: The Semitic occupation of Egypt lasted for several centuries, and synchronous with it was the sojourn of Israel in Egypt. Before the Hebrews went down into Egypt the art of writing was unknown to them; when they came out of Egypt they possessed it. The inference is clear that they must have acquired it from the kindred races who occupied the Delta. The internal evidence points in the same direction. The forms of the Semitic letters can be discovered in those of the Hieratic writing in use at the time of the Semitic conquest, and the names borne by the Semitic letters give us a certain amount of information as to the mode of life and the social condition of those who gave them. These names are, without exception, consistent with the suggested origin of the alphabet in the Delta among a people in a condition intermediate between the purely pastoral and the purely agricultural stages of civilization; while the city life of a great industrial and commercial nation and the desert life of mere nomad shepherds seem equally excluded. If we assume that the alphabet was invented in Lower Egypt, it is almost equally easy to suppose that the Hyksos took it with them on their expulsion, or that it was conveyed to Sidon by means of the Phœnician trading settlements in the Delta. Both of these hypotheses have found learned adherents, but the latter, which has been ably advocated by Lenormant and Sayce, seems to be the more probable. However this may be, there can be no doubt that the character of the Phœnicians—a practical, commercial people, the merchants and carriers of the ancient world, who employed the art of writing for business purposes—gave them special facilities for aiding in the subsequent diffusion of the alphabet.

RUSSIA AND THE RUSSIANS.—III.*

L'Empire des Tsars et les Russes. Par Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu. Tome ii. Les institutions. Paris: Librairie Hachette et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern.

Czar Alexander I., imitating Napoleon, established a Ministry of Police. Nicholas had two police institutions, of which one, endowed with extraordinary powers, was to watch over the safety of the state and the doings of the public functionaries. This was the Third Section of the Private Chancellary of the Emperor. It formed a special ministry, independent of all the others, and in many respects superior to them. Created in 1826, it existed for more than half a century. It was the old state inquisition of Peter the Great, Catharine II., and Paul, with its scope enlarged. Destined to bridle administrative corruption and licence, where liberty and publicity formed no check, this uncontrolled instrument of control could not fail to become, in the hands of grandees and favorites animated by hatred, ambition, or fear, an engine of arbitrary sway, of persecution, of extermination. Its destructiveness was the more terrible because of the noiselessness with which it worked. The martyrology of the State Chancellary surpasses that of the Spanish Inquisition. Its victims of every rank, age, and sex, cannot be counted, because, instead of exhibiting them in *autos-da-fé*, it shrouded them in mystery, and buried them in the silent snows of Siberia. Despatching them without being stained by their blood, without hearing their cries, it struck the more pitilessly.

The Third Section, under Nicholas and Alexander II., was a special and privileged power, outside and above the law. Its chief, called also chief of gendarmes, was by right a member of the Cabinet, and, more than all other ministers, the confidential adviser of the Emperor. To his veto, based on secret information, every appointment to office was subject. His influence was heavily felt everywhere; he could imprison, banish, put out of sight whomsoever he liked. This power was under a cloud during the reform years of Alexander II.; its splendor seemed to be gone for ever; but Karakozoff's attempt on the life of the Czar in 1866 completely revived it. The direction of the Third Section was then given to Count Peter Shuvaloff. It was afterward successively in the hands of two generals, Mezentzeff and Drenteln. But the sceptre of the police showed itself feeble and incompetent, in spite of its omnipotence. Conspiracy was rife everywhere; murderous attempts were made in broad daylight; the Third Section, with all its terrorism, was powerless to prevent the deeds or punish the perpetrators. About 1878 a regular duel had begun between the police and the avengers of its atrocities. General Mezentzeff was stabbed to death, by an unknown hand, in the streets of St. Petersburg; General Drenteln was shot at in his carriage by a rider on horseback, who then escaped. Solovieff's pistol-shots, aimed at Alexander himself, in 1879, made the police for a time supreme in the land, but new and more extraordinary regicidal attempts clearly proved its inefficiency. Drenteln resigned, and finally, in August, 1880, the Third Section was abolished by ukase, and the management of the state police united with the Ministry of the Interior. This abolition, however, was no surrender of arms, no sacrifice of autocratic sway, no concession. It was a concentration of powers, a uniting of both branches of the police. The two attempts to blow up the Emperor, made near Moscow and in the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg, had led to the vesting of Loris-Melikoff with dictatorial powers, and this dictatorship could tolerate no rival discretionary power at its side. The change made the Minister of the Interior also chief of gendarmes. Greater unity, facility, and intensity of action were expected from this simplification of the administrative machinery. The former two branches had not only acted in disaccord, but often hampered, counteracted, suspected, and from suspicion persecuted each other.

The change did not save Alexander II., nor did it ameliorate the condition of his subjects. The state police remained as powerful as ever, and it has since made a more galling use of its unchecked sway. Under Alexander III. it is as completely independent of law and public justice as it was under his predecessors. In fact, the abolition of these prerogatives of the administration would be a revolution, an abdication of autocracy before the instituted courts. Autocracy must have the power of discarding the laws, even if it do not use it. The privileges accorded to the Minister of the Interior have been codified under Alexander III. If he decrees the "state of extraordinary protection" over a section of the Empire, its governors at once become invested with the rights of commanders in the land of an enemy. They can fine and imprison, stop publications, close schools, sequester property on mere suspicion of evil intentions, or on account of mere negligence deemed prejudicial to the public order. The use of one single weapon—the most barbarous of all, it is true—has been limited: the deportation of suspects, as an administrative measure, can, in accordance with the new regulations, be decreed only by a special commission, and only for a term not exceeding five years. Besides, all these extra-legal uses of power are now represented to be transitory, called for by extraordinary emergencies, while the omnipotence of the Third Section was normal, and, so to say, an organic part of the law of the Empire. Though the difference seems to be more theoretical than practical, it is not without significance. The change in the practice must come first; the change in the institutions will follow. If the régime remains unaltered, the provisional and exceptional will become the rule, and the rule continue to be the exception.

The Third Section was to act the part of an invisible guardian angel watching over the oppressed; it was to direct the vengeance of the Sovereign upon dishonest officials or heartless masters of serfs. Its activity in this rôle, however, failed to win the favor of society. Its uncontrolled power was but too often exerted in the service of evil. Like the French *lettres de cachet*, which were also intended to protect the honor of families and the safety of the state, the intervention of the Russian gendarmerie was often obtained, through intrigue or for money, for the purposes of revenge, seduction, spoliation, or timely intimidation. But the worst side of the supremacy of the police was its deleterious influence upon Russian society and character.

* See Nos. 882 and 883 of the *Nation*.

It fostered a spirit of distrust, and consequently of frivolity. The fear of compromising one's self caused the shunning of serious studies, conversations, and ideas. Hence the emptiness of society, mental inertia, moral and political apathy. During the better years of the reign of Alexander II. the public mind felt more at ease, and became more serious. The police terrorism evoked by the attempts of 1878 and the following years has fully revived the old general distrust. Suspicion casts its gloom upon social and family life. There is no free talk even among friends and relatives. Never were serious topics so much avoided as now. Conversation, to be safe, makes itself systematically inept and frivolous. The moral atmosphere in Russia is oppressive. Even when abroad, the subjects of the Czar betray this feeling of oppression; they seem to have lost the habit of breathing freely. The more interesting the political situation, the crisis, the less they can be persuaded to speak about Russian affairs. But this reticence has its eloquence. Still more reticent are the Russians in their correspondence. Nowhere is the post office so sadly and so justly suspected. The opening of letters presumed to contain evidences of disloyalty or information important to the Government is an every-day practice. The highest functionaries often send their correspondence through private conveyances, from fear of divulging secrets to an officious postmaster.

Secrecy and dissimulation are the natural resources of the victims of this vexatious system of pedantic tutelage and espionage. In some it has engendered indifference to public affairs and pusillanimity, in others indignation and a spirit of revolt. The hatreds and habits of concealment to which it has given birth are in great part responsible for the Nihilistic propaganda. It is hard to realize the exasperation to which even a generous nature can be driven by such constant irritations. "It is an easy matter for you," said a young Russian to our author, "to condemn the violence of our revolutionists, to counsel patience and moderation; but if you were, like us, exposed year after year to this régime of terrorism and denunciation; if you felt all the time the Damocles sword of deportation above your head—all your blood would boil, and, perhaps, you too would deem everything allowable against those who allow themselves everything." It is the tyranny of the police, with its cruel and petty provocations, which explains the fury of Russian conspirators. The occult power placed above the law could not but become outlawed by its victims; its own ways of proceeding were turned against it, with superadded keenness. Czar Nicholas's system of tutelary guardianship has reared Nihilism; it has fomented the spirit of rebellion—which it was to stifle—fostered habits of conspiracy, created clandestine societies, nurtured radicalism, introduced regicide. How long will this murderous grapple of the two secret powers last? Each of the two seems to call for the other, to justify the other. Russia, in this respect, appears to be moving in a vicious circle. Neither the Government, which is faced by resolute and unscrupulous foes, nor the revolutionists, who are exposed to all the rigors of tyranny, are inclined to disarm first. Each side calls upon the other to stop its barbarous proceedings, each accuses the other of having given the contest a ferocious complexion, and thus both continue it without mercy.

In former times Russia, like the rest of Europe, used the rack as a means of speedily obtaining confession or information. Under the father of Peter the Great the art of torturing culprits was carried to perfection. Catharine II. limited the use of torture, Alexander I. legally abolished it; but, wiped out of the law, it lingered in the land, especially in parts remote from the central authorities, where it was often disguised under the form of corporal punishment. Recently, under Alexander III. as well as under Alexander II., the tools of the Government have often been accused of using excruciating means, such as hunger, thirst, or even the rack, for extorting revelations from political prisoners. Ryssakoff, one of the assassins of Alexander II., is asserted to have shown on the scaffold his dislocated arms to the people, and his accomplice, Mikhailoff, to have exclaimed: "They have tortured us!" It is not easy to form a decided opinion concerning the truth of these accusations. They are so readily believed that, during the trial of Sukhanoff, Trigoni, and others, early in 1882, the defender of one of the accused deemed it his duty to declare that his client had not been tortured. But the current allegation is, that the torturing takes place between the condemnation and the execution. If such horrid practices do take place, they may be assumed to be exceptions. Most of the Russian conspirators, however, are convinced of the contrary, which is attested by their generally securing means of self-destruction in order to escape torture and involuntary denunciation. Even as these lines were being written, a telegram from St. Petersburg reported the suicide of a number of officers and men detected as revolutionists.

PERRY'S REMINISCENCES.

Reminiscences of Public Men. By ex-Governor B. F. Perry. Prefaced by a Life of the Author, by Hext M. Perry, M.D. Philadelphia: John D. Avil & Co. 1883.

We have read this book with an interest disproportioned to its literary merits, which are but slight. It consists of a number of sketches contributed in past years to various newspapers and periodicals (presumably Southern), and the writing of which, at least for the most part, we may suppose to have been the occupation of the unsettled and doleful period of reconstruction. They have been reproduced without editing or revision to date, and are all the more valuable on this account; for if they speak of Seward and Reverdy Johnson, for instance, as still living, that is a small offset to the contemporary record of bitter feelings now almost extinct, and of dismal forebodings of Southern ruin from emancipation now proved to be groundless. What is more, and chiefest, they afford an unconscious delineation of Southern character and of Southern standards of character, culture, and ability such as is seldom to be met with. For this reason, and because of the biographical data which might in vain be sought elsewhere, we approve the advice that led to the making of the present collection, and we hope the success of the venture will encourage the author to proceed with a second volume made up in a similar fashion.

Mr. Perry may be a well-forgotten, but he is not an unknown, personage—we mean, of course, at the North. He was the first Provisional Governor that his native State of South Carolina had after the war, being an appointee of President Johnson in July, 1865. So little was he expecting this honor—though no one was more worthy of it—that, as some of our readers will remember, he made, just before his commission reached him, a public speech to his unfortunate fellow-citizens, half "I told you so," and half a lamentation over the failure of the rebellion, and an exhortation never to forget the outrages of the Northern conquest. This book is to some extent an echo of that speech. Mr. Perry was a prominent Unionist when it cost something not to go with the current for nullification or secession, in 1832 and 1851, and again (up to the very last moment) in 1860. The Massachusetts blood derived from his father, if it did not make him more attached to the Union than to his State or to the "peculiar institution," at least kept him sane enough to discern the folly of secession, and gave him a moral courage which extorted the respect of those who sometimes threatened his life because of his political opposition. He alone, in the State Senate, voted against the expulsion of the Massachusetts legate, Samuel Hoar; he alone of the South Carolina delegation refused to withdraw from the National Democratic Convention at Charleston in 1860. Pity it was that when, as he says, he saw the State committed to going to the devil, he abandoned the proud position of a minority of one on the right side, and joined in the race to perdition.

The men with whom these reminiscences deal, nearly all, at some time or other, engaged the attention of the whole country. Presidents J. Q. Adams, and Jackson and Johnson, and the would-be Presidents Calhoun, and Clay, and Webster, and Seward, figure along with a host of members of Congress, governors, and judges, mostly from South Carolina, and including such names as Wm. C. Preston, Robert Y. Hayne, Geo. McDuffie, Daniel E. Huger, James H. Hammond, R. W. Barnwell, R. Barnwell Rhett (*né* Smith), Francis W. Pickens, James L. Orr, Langdon Cheves, Waddy Thompson, J. R. Poinsett, Hugh S. Legaré, James L. Petigru, Richard Yeadon, W. L. Yancey, Thomas S. Grimké, Reverdy Johnson, etc., etc. Incidentally, a great many other personages of national renown are introduced; and it may be said once for all that these pages abound in entertaining anecdotes, having an especial interest for the legal profession. Some few have a certain naïveté, illustrating the sectional defect in humor, from which our author is not exempt. His kindly face, as shown in the photographic frontispiece, seems to beam still more genially after we read, on page 22, of his morning call in Washington on John Quincy Adams: "A very genteel-looking negro boy met me at the door and invited me into the parlor. Knowing as I did the strong and bitter abolition feelings of Mr. Adams, I was somewhat surprised to find a negro in a menial capacity at his house"! But this confession, laughable as it is because made in sober earnest, is worth more for the light it throws on the Southern misunderstanding of the North than (let us say) Jeff Davis's two volumes on 'The Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government.'

Before the smile dies away in reflection, let us cite the following casual glimpse of a famous eccentric:

"It was on that occasion that Mr. Davis [Warren R. Davis, of S. C.] became acquainted with David Crockett, then elected to Congress. Crockett took a great fancy to Davis, and begged that they might sit together and room together. The first was assented to, but the latter rejected, by Mr. Davis. Many are the anecdotes I have heard Davis tell of Crockett. He said the first time Colonel Crockett spoke in the House he was evidently very much scared. When he took his seat he said to Davis, 'It is very strange that I should be afraid to speak here when I know I can whip any man in the House.' In writing home, Crockett showed one of his letters to Davis, and asked him how he liked it. Davis replied, the matter was very good, but his spelling was very bad. 'How can I do any better?' said Crockett. Davis told him to get a dictionary and look up the words. This Crockett did, and he was delighted. In returning thanks to Davis for his suggestion, he said he thought, with that little book, he could beat any man spelling in Congress."

The Southern love of oratory is conspicuous in the manner in which Mr. Perry speaks of one and another of his "countrymen." Burke, Cicero, Demosthenes are by turns invoked to

offer a parallel. Of Wm. C. Preston, who was a kinsman of Patrick Henry, we are told (p. 56): "I have heard Colonel Preston before popular assemblies, at the bar, and in the Legislature, and I never heard him on any occasion when he did not let fall from his lips some of the prettiest expressions and most heart-stirring words ever uttered by a public speaker." One of Mr. Preston's "pretty expressions" in Congress, not quoted by Mr. Perry, though it had some vogue in its day, was his declaration in 1833 that "if an abolitionist come within the borders of South Carolina and we can catch him, we will try him, and notwithstanding all the interference of all the governments of the earth, including this Federal Government, we will hang him." It marks the superficiality of our social classifications that this language of lawless savagery proceeded from a man not perversely described by Mr. Perry as "an accomplished gentleman," "amiable, kind-hearted, and generous."

The contrast just exhibited of course crops out in twenty places in this book when duelling and manslaughter are concerned. Mr. Perry himself appears never to have had a hostile encounter, though as a very young man he was engaged in an "affair of honor," and his intended course in it met the entire approval of Chancellor Dunkin (p. 209). He thinks it worth recording that, having asked J. L. Petigru "to go and hear a certain clergyman who had been in battle, and boasted of having killed one of the enemy," Mr. Petigru replied: "'No, Perry, I cannot listen to a homicidal preacher'" (p. 261). Such a common thing was it for conferences to be summoned by a man doubtful what "honor" demanded, that Judge Orr played a practical joke on his friends by gravely asking them to consult with him as to the propriety of his accepting a paper, which turned out to be his pardon from Andrew Johnson. "They thought, of course, it was a challenge, and they began to think of reasons which would justify a refusal of it" (p. 184). Judge Huger was Mr. Perry's "beau ideal of honor, chivalry, and manly character," and yet he gave this advice to his married daughter when parting from her: "If any difficulty [the peculiar Southern sense of this word may be supplied here] should ever occur between me and your husband, remember you are to take sides with your husband against your father." This, we presume, is an instance of the "Roman virtues" ascribed to Judge Huger, who was also capable of the following behavior:

> "The Judge, a short time after his marriage, challenged his brother-in-law, Major Rutledge. The Major, having been an officer in the army and a man of honor and chivalry, accepted the challenge, and then said to Mr. William Lowndes, who bore the challenge, that he would like to know what offence he had given. Mr. Lowndes, the intimate and bosom friend of the Judge, had to tell Major Rutledge that the cause of the hostile message had never been disclosed to him! [This exclamation-point is really Mr. Perry's.] They met and exchanged shots, and Rutledge was wounded, but no one ever knew the cause of their meeting" (p. 93).

This is a pretty picture of the requirements of "chivalry." We must reproduce one more, on account of the author's comment upon it. The story is of the notorious fire-eater, Yancey, who (by way of prelude) read law with Mr. Perry, and shocked him greatly by attempting to use his pistol on Thomas F. Gantt in the street! (again Mr. Perry's punctuation) on account of a political discussion:

> "In a quarrel with Dr. Earle, the uncle of his wife, he drew his pistol and shot him. The Doctor died in a few hours. Yancey was tried and convicted of manslaughter. In this affair, however, he did what few men of spirit might not have done under the circumstances. The day previous he had had a difficulty with Dr. Earle's son, who was quite a lad. Yancey sought the Doctor and explained to him the difficulty with his son, who [*sic*] seemed to be perfectly satisfied. The next day he was inquiring for Yancey with a bludgeon in his hands. Yancey went up to him in perfect good humor and anticipated no difficulty [!]. He gave Yancey the lie and drew his stick. Immediately Yancey drew his pistol, and, presenting it, told the Doctor to 'take it back or take a shot.' Dr. Earle rushed toward him and Yancey's pistol fired! [phraseology and punctuation both Mr. Perry's]. But Yancey assured me confidently that it was not his purpose to fire the pistol, and that he did fire it involuntarily under the excitement. He afterward made affidavit to this fact, and I have never for a moment doubted the truth of the assertion. He was defended by Judge Wardlaw, Mr. Burt, and myself. His sentence was fine and imprisonment," which Governor Noble pardoned in a few weeks" (p. 315).

As Mr. Perry was not in the counsels of the secessionists, we could not have expected any revelations of the inner working of the conspiracy from him. There is, nevertheless, a suggestive letter, too long to quote, written by Governor Pickens in 1857, which deserves to be read for its sketch of the "game" for the maintenance of Southern power. On the other hand, the student will not overlook Mr. Perry's not too grateful admission that the domestic reforms he had labored for all his life—"the destruction of the parish system, the election of Governor by the people, the election by the people of Presidential electors, the establishment of a penitentiary, the amalgamation of the courts of law and equity, the election of the judiciary for a term of years, and the separation of the State from all banking and banks"—could only be accomplished amid the ruins of the old commonwealth, and during his provisional governorship. In conclusion, we must remark on the too numerous typographical errors which disfigure this book, though they are seldom so important as the changing of Amos Kendall into "Randall" on page 27.

Christian Charity in the Ancient Church. By Dr. Gerhard Uhlhorn, Abbot of Loccum. Translated from the German with the Author's sanction. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

It is impossible to speak without respect of a work which shows so much patient research and honesty of intention as this; and, within the limits adopted by the author, the student of primitive Christian institutions will find here gathered together and conveniently arranged much of the material that he requires. At the same time, the prejudices of the author, or perhaps rather we should say the preconceived theory upon which the book is based, deprives it of value as a contribution to the philosophy of history or of sociology.

The rubric of the first chapter, "A World without Love," shows us at once the theorem which is to be proved. Before the advent of Christ such a thing as true love and true charity was unknown to man. We are told (p. 39) that "it was only when through Christianity it was for the first time made known that every human soul possessed an infinite value, that each individual existence is of much more worth than the whole world—it was only then that room was found for the growth of a genuine charity." In order to prove this thesis, it becomes necessary to limit very strictly the definition of "a genuine charity," and accordingly we find that it is not the act of charity or mercy that is commendable in itself, but the motive which induces it; and Dr. Uhlhorn's test of motives is one which at once enables him to reject all good works save those of Christianity. He tells us (p. 60) that such works "possess true worth only in so far as they tend to the higher object, . . . the advancement of the kingdom of God." Now, "the kingdom of God" consists (p. 62) of "His own people," and was founded by Christ, so that necessarily all that preceded Him was worthless—Q. E. D.

It is true that Doctor Uhlhorn's honesty of purpose leads him to give the materials for controverting his own arguments. His studies apparently have not led him to an examination of the Oriental religions, and therefore we must pardon the omission of all reference to Buddhism, which, several centuries before Christ, had developed the idea of the common brotherhood of mankind and the inculcation of charity the most self-sacrificing, without at the same time estimating the worth of a human or of any other soul at more than that of an infinitesimal portion of the great animistic universe. But in so far as his investigations have led him, he fairly gives the evidence which tells against him. Thus book ii., chap. i., contains a very concise and interesting view of the internal social organization of the Empire and its working, showing that the feeling and expression of humanity among the pagans were not very different from those of Christianity; and in his remarks (pp. 41–2) on the influence of the Stoic philosophy in paving the way for the reception of Christian teachings, he allows us to see that its dissemination of the idea of charity in a truly Christian spirit contradicts totally the views advanced in the earlier portion of the same chapter.

It is perhaps, however, in his treatment of charity as developed under the Old Law that his onesidedness and prejudices become most apparent. It was necessary for him to prove that even Israel, under the Covenant, was "a world without love," and this, with the aid of Eisenmenger, is a comparatively easy task. But no one who is really acquainted with the inner workings of the post-exilian church of Judea, and with the refinement of sentiment which rendered possible the training of such beings as John the Baptist, and Christ and his disciples, and Hillel and his school, can regard Doctor Uhlhorn's view of that church as anything but a caricature. In fact, he has one standard for the Jew and another for the Christian. When he quotes from the Emperor Julian (p. 55) that there were among the Jews of that period no beggars, he admits that there was among them plenty of alms, but he adds that there was little charity. When, however (p. 125), he states of the early Christians that "the object aimed at and actually attained was that no member of the Church should suffer want," he evidently regards this as a proof of the largest measure of charity. So, when the Jews refused to receive alms from the heathen, it was a sign of uncharitable exclusiveness (p. 55); but when the Church refused gifts and oblations from sinners and heretics (p. 148), it does not in the least detract from Christian charity, but rather enhances its character. When, among the Jews, alms were considered as an atonement for sin (p. 54), the idea of an advantage to be gained by the act reduces it almost to a level with a mercantile transaction—it is one of the "symptoms of a legal bondage" (p. 52); but the feeling of the early Christians that oblations were sacrifices to God is worthy of all praise (p. 149). It is only just, however, to add that Doctor Uhlhorn's definition of Christian love and charity is so rigid that he regards their primitive purity as already tarnished so early as the time of Cyprian, when "alms have already become a propitiatory and meritorious work" (p. 153). Yet, seeing that they so soon became assimilated to non-Christian virtues, one cannot well help asking whether it was worth the author's while to establish so elaborately a distinction founded upon differences so delicate and so transitory.

The translation is fairly well executed, though an occasional Teutonism grates upon the ear.

The translator surely ought to know that the equivalent of "römisch" is "Roman," and that he might as well speak of the Romish Empire as of the "Romish *collegia*" (p. 141), or of the "Romish council of 721" (p. 408). It would be difficult to characterize too severely the arrangement of the notes and references in a huge mass at the end. To the superficial reader the appearance of the page undefaced by foot-notes may be more attractive, but all students who chance to consult the book will rightfully protest against the gratuitous labor imposed on them.

Virginia: A History of the People. By John Esten Cooke. [American Commonwealths.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883. 12mo, pp. 523.

THE new series of "American Commonwealths" begins appropriately with 'Virginia,' by a well-known writer. It need not be said that it is written in a fascinating style, and animated by a spirit of strong love for the author's native State, and pride in its history. It should be said further that it brings out many an obscure or forgotten bit of history, and makes real an epoch which is familiar to very few. Our historians are mostly from the North, and it is not strange that, from the time that the history of the Northern colonies begins, these should take a leading place in their works. Mr. Cooke sees things with the eyes of a Virginian. He has been able, moreover, to do what no Northern historian could do—to draw materials abundantly from "forgotten pamphlets, family papers, the curious laws passed by the Burgesses, and those traditions of the people which preserve the memory of events in the absence of written records." The result is a very graphic and truthful delineation of the life of the people, and their collective action in the commonwealth.

In any treatment of the early history of Virginia, the critic naturally turns first to the story of Pocahontas and her relation to Captain John Smith. On questions of controversy every man is entitled to his deliberately formed opinion, and we are not disposed to censure Mr. Cooke for seeing things with the eyes of a Virginian. He has, moreover, presented the arguments for the traditionary view very strongly. We do not see, however, how any unprejudiced person can read carefully the two accounts of these events, in the 'True Relation' of 1608 and the 'Generall Historie' of 1624, without being convinced that the story in question was foisted into the latter account, and is not entitled to any acceptance. It is not merely its omission in the earlier account—that could be explained, although it is hard to see how so romantic and striking an incident could have been passed over without notice by every writer of those years; it is its entire inconsistency with the account of the courteous and friendly reception given Smith both by Powhatan and by Opecancanough, whom he calls "this kind King." In the 'True Relation,' after describing the style of Powhatan's court, which "draue me into admiration to see such state in a naked Saluage," he goes on to say: "Hee kindly welcomed me with good wordes, and great Platters of sundrie Victuals, assuring mee his friendship, and my libertie within foure dayes." This was his reception as described the next year; and we cannot in any way reconcile this authentic account with that given seventeen years later, when the Indians had become unfriendly. In this same account, too, in justifying the rashness of his expedition, he begs his critics to "well consider the friendship of the Indians," etc. Against this judgment, which we venture to say every impartial person accustomed to weigh historical evidence would pass, Mr. Cooke brings up certain considerations which read plausibly, but which we think have no real weight. The first is (p. 71) that the editor of the 'True Relation' confesses that some parts of the original account were omitted, which he thinks were "Smith's adventures on the Chickahominy and York." This is, however, a mere guess, and avails nothing against the positive contradiction mentioned above. The next argument is the "deep interest in Smith" taken by Pocahontas and her influence over him. "When some Indians were arrested by Smith, Powhatan sent Pocahontas to intercede for them, and they were released at once, 'for her sake only.'" But these words, "for her sake only," have no more weight as evidence than the story itself; for they are, like that, taken from the 'Generall Historie.' The words of the 'True Relation' are: "We guarded them as before to the Church, and, after prayer, gaue them to Pocahuntas, the King's Daughter, *in regard of her father's Kindness in sending her.*" The first allusion made to his rescue by Pocahontas is in Smith's letter to the Queen, in 1616, *which, again, is only known from its being copied into the 'Generall Historie'* of 1624. We cannot think, therefore, that Mr. Cooke has in any degree weakened the force of Mr. Deane's arguments against the authenticity of the story.

We find an error of statement on page 506, in relation to the process of reconstruction in Virginia. "In the spring of 1865 . . . Francis H. Pierpont, who had been Governor of West Virginia, assumed executive authority by direction of the Federal Government." Mr. Pierpont was never Governor of *West Virginia.* He was made Governor of *Virginia* by that part of the State (chiefly that which is comprised in the present State of West Virginia) which remained loyal when the State passed the Act of Secession. The constitutionality of this action is a matter of interpretation, and is open to difference of opinion. Of course Mr. Cooke, believing that the State had a constitutional right to secede, and had seceded, would deny the authority of Governor Pierpont's government; the United States, however, acting on the theory that the Act of Secession was totally invalid, recognized this authority. Further, when the State of West Virginia was set off from Virginia by an act which, however constitutional in form, must be pronounced rather elastic in spirit, Governor Pierpont did not even then become Governor of the new State, but continued *Governor of Virginia,* with his capital at Alexandria, and his authority practically limited to the territory occupied by the national troops. Furthermore, his reorganization of the State Government at Richmond in 1865 was not "by direction of the Federal Government," but only by its recognition: President Johnson's proclamation says that in the reëstablishment of peace and order "Francis H. Pierpont, Governor of the State of Virginia, will be aided by the Federal Government, so far as may be necessary," etc.

There is a pardonable slip on page 447, where it is said that "Lord Howe had defeated Washington on Long Island." Lord Howe was Admiral; his brother, Sir William Howe, was commander-in-chief of the British forces.

Dynamic Sociology; or, Applied Social Science, as based upon Statical Sociology and the less complex Sciences. By Lester F. Ward, A.M. D. Appleton & Co. 1883. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 706 and 690.

BECAUSE the mind moves in an evolutionary, systematic way, Mr. Ward begins his sociology with physics and biology, proceeding, like Comte and Spencer, whom he summarizes at length, from "primary aggregation," or chemical and astronomic phenomena, through "secondary aggregation," or biology, psychology, and anthropology, to "tertiary aggregation," or "sociogeny." All previous social philosophies have been statical—passive or negative—as Mr. Ward says Mill, Spencer, and Fiske are, because they have regarded genetic rather than dynamic or teleological agencies in society, to which the author devotes most of his second volume. Conation, or the struggle for happiness, is as universal in society as the struggle for existence in lower animal life, and is directed to six ends—viz., utility (as measured by happiness), progress, action, opinion, knowledge, education—the last of which is an ultimate, while all the rest are proximate ends of conation. Education—which is arbitrarily distinguished as of experience, discipline, culture, research, and information—is the most important means toward securing the teleologic, artificial civilization, or organization of happiness, which is the all-including problem of dynamic sociology.

Into this general scheme the author has woven a great number of such facts and illustrations as may be gathered from a wide reading within the English literature of evolution, and has added not a few suggestive insights, explanations, etc., of his own, so that at least his work is a valuable thesaurus of interesting matter to those not already familiar with the new school of literature which has grown up about Darwinism, etc. When the author tells us, however, that all previous social science is sterile, that every big doctrine has entered the world in a big book, and that he could not make his own smaller; and when he formally iterates and often elaborates such ideas as that history is past politics, that we need scientific legislation, that the shortness of life retards progress, that by the establishment of sanitary priesthoods we should guard our health without the doctors, that inventors need independence, that those are best paid who support the established state of things, that the great differences between men are differences of opportunity and of information—he betrays a self-consciousness and a piddling neologism which are anything but scientific. With less formal elaborations and commonplace padding the book would be admirable, and, on the whole, new and fresh; but as it is, its merits are spread so thin that the well-read, and especially the expert, reader will hardly be likely to do them justice.

Moreover, the author's fundamental idea is not entirely satisfactory. Civilization is by no means entirely a product of dynamic or teleologic agencies. When men thought they were doing one thing by one set of agencies, deeper genetic influences, unsuspected at the time, were doing very different things by a very different set of agencies. Very little in the world, even of art and literature, is the product of premeditation and conscious design; and civilization as a whole is about as teleological as language as a whole. Again, as this is not Hartmannism, so it would have been no Rousseau-like social scepticism to confess that civilization and the artificial generally are not quite so wholly good as our author assumes. His thoroughbred evolutionism one might suppose would have made him more trustful of the laissez-faire motives within the field of sociology. His book might please the German Socialists, who love a little more dictation of ends and means by government; but no others would call it practical. And yet, again, the distinction between the genetic and teleologic, as our author makes it, is both interesting and instructive.

Modern Painters. Vol. ii. By John Ruskin, LL.D. Rearranged and revised by the Author. John Wiley & Sons.

WE are inclined to accept the second volume of

'Modern Painters' as, on the whole, that of Mr. Ruskin's work which will, except maybe 'The Stones of Venice,' have the greatest value for the future. It certainly is that which deals with the gravest matters; and the fact that it greatly fails will not make it of less value as a contribution to that which, when it becomes a science, will become so by numerous failures and partial successes having paved the way to secure conclusions.

Ruskin has not perceived that the prime necessity in the elaboration of any science is a correct and complete nomenclature, and this he has never attempted to lay down in any branch of his art studies. He has nowhere given a comprehensive definition of art, or one which would satisfy all his own variations of the theme; and in this study on the nature of beauty and imagination he has evaded always a precise and concise definition of either, by writing all round and explaining them without risking a formula which might at some stage of his demonstration embarrass him. He has, in the opening chapters of this volume, said more on the true nature of Beauty than any one besides has ever said, though, had he read Swedenborg, he would have found the germ of all his theories; but he confuses from the outset the nature of Beauty by dividing it into typical and vital, whereas the latter division has no generic relation to the former. He makes one branch of Beauty absolute and intuitive as to its perception, while the other is an idea of fitness, which is relative and a matter of reflection and perception of relations, not, as he maintains typical beauty to be, self-evident. Again, he makes no sort of recognition of the distinction between the sublime and the beautiful, without a precise statement of which no final conclusion on the matter can be reached.

The same confusion arises in his treatment of Imagination, where he confounds Imagination proper (or, as he terms it, "Imagination associative") with Sympathy, which he considers as "Imagination contemplative"; his "Imagination penetrative" hovering between the two, sometimes taking the form of one, sometimes of the other. No writer has yet accepted Ruskin's classifications or definitions, and we imagine none is likely to do so, any more than his coinage, "Theoria" and "theoretic," in place of Taste and æsthetic. Nor are we likely to encumber our nomenclature with three forms of Imagination—at least, not till we are able clearly to settle the nature of one. There is a grave question behind all this, and one we must determine first: whether Beauty is absolute or merely the result of association, direct or inherited, mixed with perceptions of fitness. Ruskin assumes the former, but in nowise proves it. He makes, in fact, here as in all his works, the great mistake of taking his perceptions and standards as absolute and universal: what he sees and feels, all healthy minds ought to see and feel. We might be disposed to deny altogether his mental fitness to constitute himself a standard, and *pro tanto* his whole structure falls to the ground.

This edition, with its revisions, etc., gives some insight into the nature of the contradictions which are the perplexity of Ruskin's more independent readers. One sees in his early orthodox art-education the basis of his appreciation of the great standards, as traditional with him—part of his mental fibre; but against it rise in a continual antagonism, and oftenest triumphant, his individual inclinations to a pure naturalism. There is also a key to his inconsistent measurements of the greater artists in the evidence which this volume shows, more clearly than any other, that the author has always judged a work of art by the purpose of it—the thing to be done, not the manner of doing it. His standards are ideal or moral and intellectual, not technical, which the artist's standard is. With regard to the former, no one will deny his competence; as to the latter, the art world is every day more and more disposed to deny him any authority as a proper art critic.

The Life of Schiller. By Heinrich Düntzer. Translated by Percy E. Pinkerton. With authentic illustrations and facsimiles. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

No standard life of Schiller exists in English, and no adequate and thoroughly satisfactory biography in German. Carlyle's monograph served a useful purpose at the time of its appearance, but was written to supply an existing want, and, though appreciative, is very incomplete. Hoffmeister's large work presents a mass of material, but fails to reveal the poet in his true personality. Of the numerous shorter lives, Palleske's is perhaps the best, but none has been accepted as an adequate estimate of his genius. In this respect Schiller has not fared as well as his great contemporary Goethe, in the lives by Grimm and Lewes. The present work is one of three which the author has published within a brief time, designed to embody the results of his studies in the lives of the three great writers of his country—Goethe, Schiller, and Lessing. This is the first volume that has been translated into English. Those who are familiar with Düntzer's previous works have found them diffuse, and their value impaired by an unmethodical arrangement, and by dreary and incessant discussions. These objections do not lie against his 'Life of Schiller,' in which the march of events is recorded with the regularity of a chronicle. There is no diversion, no uncertainty; all is stated as positive and irrefutable. The book is as dry as a genealogical record. The author is destitute of imagination, and has no charms of style. If the reader desires to understand the friendship of Schiller and Goethe, and the influence which one exerted upon the intellectual life of the other, he will be disappointed here. Körner's wise counsel and generous aid, which supported the poet in the most hopeless period of his life, are but faintly characterized. The double relation of Schiller to the sisters Charlotte von Lengefeld and Caroline von Beulwitz, which was first shown by Hase in publishing the 'Literary Remains of Caroline von Wolzogen,' presenting such a curious psychological study, is not referred to. No adequate description is given of Schiller in his social life. He has often been extolled at the expense of Goethe, but in fact Schiller had no preëminence in virtue over his contemporary; he was neither better nor worse than others of his time. The incense which is burned to the "pure" Schiller, especially by the fair sex, is due to the lofty ideal of woman in his writings.

The translation requires at once a careful and thorough revision. The baldness of the author's style is reproduced and increased in an English dress. There is no easy flow of the sentences, and familiar thoughts are expressed in a foreign and unfamiliar manner. Trifling omissions from the original text are apparent. Evidence abounds that an independent knowledge of the subject-matter is essential to a successful translator; mistakes appear which are quite inexplicable. The family name of Schiller's wife, Lengefeld, which is of frequent occurrence, always appears as Lengenfeld; Corona Schröter, one of the best known characters of the Weimar circle, is given as Corona Schröder, Grieszbach as Griessbach and Griesbach, "Welsch" (p. 225), Italian, is left untranslated; while "Elbflorenz" (p. 178) and "Ihnathen" (p. 196) seem to have baffled the translator, and are unchanged. The English reader would scarcely recognize the Florence of the Elbe and the Athens of the Ihn in these forms. Gustav Adolph (p. 298) appears in the German form, Garve's (p. 301) as "Garves," "Hessen" (p. 13) as Hesse; Louis the Fourteenth is twice rendered "Louis Seize" (pp. 307, 308). In general there is no uniformity in representing titles and proper names, but the German and English forms often appear side by side. Thus, we have Kurpfalz (p. 84) and Kurfürst and Electoral (p. 287); "Rittmeister" (p. 5), "Oberst" (p. 94), "Hofmeister" (p. 340). *Von* is often capriciously omitted—as, Princesses Rudolstadt and Sondershausen (p. 441); and *Mercur* (p. 216) and *Thalia* (pp. 235, 242) appear without the article. Books whose titles have a fixed form in English are mentioned so that they are not always recognizable. Kant's 'Kritik der Urtheilskraft' is translated on page 303 as "Critique of Reasoning Power," on page 332 as "Critique of the Judgment." The translator possesses a unique vocabulary, and it is not always clear whether his words are simple affectations or unconscious colloquialisms; but it would require too much space to point them out.

The volume contains numerous pictures of Schiller and his friends, and of the scenes associated with his life; also, facsimiles of letters and poems. These are evidently printed from duplicate plates of the German edition. It would have been wise enterprise on the part of the publishers to have the illustrations reëngraved, as the execution of many is rude and poor.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Sylvan City; or, Quaint Corners in Philadelphia. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Baird, Prof. H. M. History of the Rise of the Huguenots of France. New ed. 2 vols. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $3 50.

Bancroft, G. History of the United States of America, from the Discovery of the Continent. The Author's last Revision. Vol. iii. D. Appleton & Co

Bickerstеth, E. My Hereafter. Cassell & Co.

Brown, I. Elements of the Law of Domestic Relations and of Employer and Employed. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.

Brown, M. Wit and Wisdom of Proverbial Philosophy: Odd Comparisons. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.

Browne, T. M. "Not My Way"; or, Good Out of Evil: a Tale. Thomas Whittaker. $1.

Brooks, Rev. P. Sermons Preached in English Churches. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Campbell, Helen. The American Girl's Home-Book of Work and Play. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.

Chadbourne, P. A. Instinct: its Office in the Animal Kingdom and its Relation to the Higher Powers of Man. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 50.

Clarke, Rev. R. F. My Visit to Distressed Ireland. Benziger Bros.

Cobbe, Frances Power. Darwinism in Morals, and Other Essays. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $2.

Conkling, H. Mexico and the Mexicans: Notes of Travel in 1883. Tainter Brothers, Merrill & Co. $1 50.

Cotton, J. S., and Payne, E. J. The English Citizen. Colonies and Dependencies. Macmillan & Co. $1.

Dennis, J. Heroes of Literature: English Poets. A Book for Young Readers. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1 25.

Downes, W. H. Spanish Ways and By-ways, with a Glimpse of the Pyrenees. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.

Eby, C. S. Christianity and Humanity: a Course of Lectures, delivered in Tokio, Japan. Yokohama: R. Meikle John & Co.

Emerson, R. W. English Traits. New and revised ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 75.

Emerson, R. W. The Conduct of Life. New and revised ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 75.

Eytinge, Margaret. The Ball of the Vegetables, and Other Stories in Prose and Verse. Harper & Bros.

Goodwin, D. R. Notes on the late Revision of the New Testament Version. Thomas Whittaker. $2.

Hadley, Caroline. Bible Stories for Young Children. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.

Hawthorne, J. Fortune's Fool. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

Hayward, E. F. Patrice: Her Love and Work. A Poem in Four Parts. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.

Holden, G. H. Canaries and Cage-Birds. New York: Geo. H. Holden. $5.

Hoppin, Prof. J. M. Homiletics. Funk & Wagnalls.

Hoppus, Mary A. M. A Great Treason: a Story of the War of Independence. Macmillan & Co. $1.

Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, United States Army. Vol. iv. E-Fizes. Washington.

Jenkins, E. E. My Sources of Strength. Cassell & Co.

Johonnott, J. A Natural History Reader for School and Home. D. Appleton & Co.

Kaufman, Rosalie. Our Young Folks' Plutarch. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $3.

Kieffer, H. M. The Recollections of a Drummer-Boy. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 25.

Knox, T. W. Adventures of iTwo Youths in a Journey through Africa. Part 5 of 'The Boy Travellers in the Far East.' Harper & Bros.

Köstlin, Prof. J. The Life of Martin Luther. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society.

Ladd, Prof. G. T. The Doctrine of Sacred Scripture: a Critical, Historical, and Dogmatic Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of the Old and New Testaments. 2 vols. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $7.

Lambert, C. and S. The Voyage of the *Wanderer*. Edited by Gerald Young. Macmillan & Co. $7 50.

Lightwood, J. M. The Nature of Positive Law. Macmillan & Co. $3 50.

Linton, W. J., and Stoddard, R. H. English Verse. Chaucer to Burns. Lyrics of the Nineteenth Century. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 each.

Littell's Living Age. Vol. 158, July-Sept., 1883. Boston: Littell & Co.

Longfellow, H. W. Courtship of Miles Standish. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.

Manson, G. J. Work for Women. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 60 cents.

McKim, Rev. R. H. Future Punishment. Thomas Whittaker. 75 cents.

Merrill, S. East of the Jordan: a Record of Travel and Observation. New ed. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 50.

Merwin, H. C. The Patentability of Inventions. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Mitchell, D. G. Seven Stories, with Basement and Attic. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 25.

Morfill, W. R. Slavonic Literature. E. & J. B. Young & Co.

Müller, Prof. H. The Fertilization of Flowers. Macmillan & Co. $5.

Nabuco, J. Reformas Nacionaes. O Abolicionismo. London. 1883.

Nelson, Julia. Two Years at Hillsboro'. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.

Newcomb and Holden, Profs. Astronomy. Henry Holt & Co. $1 40.

Osborn, Prof. H. S. Ancient Egypt in the Light of Modern Discoveries. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.

Pantomime and Minstrel Scenes: a Picture Carnival for the Young. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $2 50.

Parker, Capt. W. H. Recollections of a Naval Officer. 1841–1865. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 50.

Parker, Rev. J. The Inner Life of Christ, as Revealed in the Gospel of Matthew. Funk & Wagnalls.

Peck, G. W. The Grocery Man and Peck's Bad Boy. No. 2. Belford, Clarke & Co. $1.

Perry, B. F. Reminiscences of Public Men. Philadelphia: John D. Avil & Co.

Phillips, H., jr. Poems from the Spanish of Fra Luis Ponce de Leon. Philadelphia.

Poe, E. A. The Raven. Illustrated by Gustave Doré. With Comment by Edmund C. Stedman. Harper & Bros.

Richardson, C. F. Primer of American Literature. 21st thousand. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 30 cents.

Riddell, Mrs. J. H. A Struggle for Fame. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Rockstro, W. S. Life of George Frederick Handel. Macmillan & Co. 2 50.

Roe, E. P. His Sombre Rivals. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Schaff, Rev. P. A Companion to the Greek Testament and the English Version. Harper & Bros.

Scott, Sir W. Guy Mannering. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 15 cents.

Shepard, W. Pen-Pictures of Modern Authors. New ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 50.

Sketchbook of the Architectural Association of Boston. First Issue. Boston, 1883.

Smith, Goldwin. False Hopes. J. W. Lovell Co. 15 cts.

Spurgeon, Rev. C. H. Illustrations and Meditations. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.

Stevens, J. A. Albert Gallatin. [American Statesmen Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.

Southey, R. The Life of Nelson. With Biographical Notice of the Author. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.

Swedenborg, E. Heaven and Hell. Boston: Swedenborg Lecture Bureau. 10 cents.

Stepniak. Underground Russia. J. W. Lovell Co. 20 c.

Symonds, J. A. Italian Byways. Henry Holt & Co. $1 75.

Taylor, Rev. W. M. David, King of Israel: his Life and its Lessons. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 18, 1883.

The Week.

THERE is a disposition on the part of Republican authorities in all parts of the country to take a cheerful view of the Ohio defeat, and to say that they will come out all right next year. Some of them base their hopes on the belief that the temperance question will be less damaging to them, and others think the popular mistrust of the Democrats will be their party's salvation. Mr. Halstead expresses the latter view tersely when he declares his belief that "when the people are jammed right up to the question of trusting the general Government to the Democratic party they will say 'no' again." There is always risk in trusting to the superior wickedness of the other fellow for one's own salvation. The people have been "jammed up" to that question several times already, and have come dangerously near to taking the risk of giving the other party a chance to show what it would do. The result in several States last fall, and in Ohio this year, shows that the risk is likely to be greater than ever hereafter. The best way for the Republican party to meet it is to adopt and follow such a policy as will deprive the contest of all appearance of being a choice of evils.

Butler opened his campaign for reëlection with three meetings in Boston on the 10th inst., and made speeches which indicate that he accepts rather joyfully the Republican challenge to confine the issue to Butlerism. He said the people must decide for Butler or the Marshes, and dilated with even more than his usual unction upon his love for the "poorest and lowest" among the population. The most significant portion of his utterances was the frank admission that he is a candidate for a Presidential nomination. He had already said in Washington that he was convinced that there would be a formidable third-party ticket in the field next year; that the two millions of workingmen would demand a candidate. He now spoke of himself, with sufficient plainness, as just the kind of candidate likely to be wanted, by saying he was a "man capable with one hand of reaching down to the poorest and lowest and giving them help, and with the other grasping the highest prize within the gift of the people." His faith in the popularity of his own methods is apparently stronger than ever; if it were not he would be able to see that, outside of Massachusetts, he has no appreciable standing as a Presidential or any other candidate.

This open avowal of his Presidential aspirations, by the way, is having an amusing effect upon both national parties. The Democrats are curiously troubled about it, and are attempting many ingenious excuses for supporting his candidacy for Governor while opposing his designs upon their National Convention. Senator Bayard says that "while the local interests of Massachusetts may demand such a leader," the national Democratic party does not, and has too many tried and true leaders to seek such a "double-tongued standard-bearer as Ben Butler." Among Republicans there is a natural willingness to see Butler wax strong enough to capture the Democratic nomination next year, and the complaint comes from Boston that many of the Republican leaders in other States are so eager for this to happen that they are holding aloof from the Massachusetts canvass, regarding the sacrifice of the State for another year as of slight account compared with the great gain of having Butler as an opposing Presidential candidate. This gives Butler a unique position in national politics, and attaches an importance to his aspiration which is absurdly exaggerated. We can conceive of no circumstances under which the Democrats would be capable of the incredible folly of nominating him for the Presidency.

A curious report comes from Washington that the friends of Blaine and Conkling are making a combination for next year. Their plan is to have Blaine made the Republican candidate for President, and Conkling sent back to the Senate from New York. They declare that the "people are demanding" the return of both men to public life, and that, in accordance with their life-long practice of bowing obediently to the popular will, both are prepared to sacrifice any personal feelings they may have harbored toward each other in the past. The handsome estimate of Conkling's abilities which Blaine has put into his "history" is said to have had a most soothing effect upon the ex-Primate, and he is eager to return the favor by supporting Blaine for the Presidency. When we consider that one of these statesmen says he is happier in the practice of the law than he ever was or can hope to be in political life, and that the other has been cherishing the hope that he would be permitted to pass the remainder of his days in the peaceful occupation of historical composition, the magnitude of the sacrifice is at once apparent. We have no doubt that the country will be deeply moved by the spectacle.

The President has decided, in an Illinois case, that the appointment of internal-revenue collectors belongs to the Senators of the party in power, and, inferentially, that it is legitimate for them to use these, as well as other places, to reward workers. This, of course, is not civil-service reform, nor good Republicanism either, for the theory has been strongly condemned in Republican platforms. But it must be said in excuse for President Arthur that it is as far as the reform has yet got. The use of patronage by Senators for their own purposes has been stopped as regards the greater part of the public service. It will probably be stopped as regards the remainder in time, but not until a President has been elected who is really in earnest about the matter—that is, who has taken it up not because public opinion has forced it on him, but because he himself believes in the necessity of it. At present the aim of most men in public life is to get along with as little civil-service reform as possible. They are dodging it, and trying to minimize it, just as they used to dodge and minimize the hostility to slavery.

The practice which has begun to be resorted to of slipping in "workers" in the grade receiving less than $900 in the Custom-house, which is not covered by the present civil-service rules, has led the Civil-Service Commission to ask the President to extend the classification so as to cover this grade also by the competitive system, and it will probably be done. It certainly needs to be done, as recent events in the Custom-house here show. In fact, so widely diffused and so determined is the opposition of the old hacks to the new system that apparently hardly anything can be left to their discretion in the use of the appointing power. Keeping them from the spoils is very like keeping an old toper out of the way of liquor—so numerous and ingenious are their devices for getting some of "the hair of the dog that bit them." One of them, the Assistant Postmaster-General, known as Frank Hatton, who is allowed to edit a newspaper and make the postmasters canvass for it, openly pronounces the competitive system a "fraud," and of course evades it or nullifies it in every way he can, and the President takes apparently no notice of his antics. This sullen opposition will probably last for some time, and will call for all the vigilance the friends of civil-service reform can muster.

The general trade and financial situation presents more conflicting features than usual. At the West there has been for several weeks, and is yet, a larger movement of grain and cattle to market than in the same period last year, and in some particulars even larger than in 1881, which was the year of the greatest crops on record. This has stimulated various branches of mercantile trade in that part of the country. But the great lines of industry embraced in the iron trade are still as depressed as they have been at any time in the past year. The production of both coal and iron has been in excess of the demand, which the reduction of $1 per ton on pig-iron does not seem to improve; and though the coal trade is experiencing the usual activity incident to the beginning of cold weather, the fact that the product of the anthracite coal companies has been 2,000,000 tons (or 10 per cent.) greater in the nine months to October 1, 1883, than in the same period of 1882 without any corresponding increase of demand, is given as a reason for the probable curtailment of the production during the next three months. The railroad earnings for September were good, and showed a gain of 8 per cent. over those of September, 1882—not quite equal to the increase of mileage. Confidence in railroad property has, however, been greatly shaken. Railway stocks have declined steadily for months, and in the past

week the decline in some stocks has at times been almost panicky. Railroad bonds have been a little stronger than the stocks, but even in these, and especially in the speculative bonds, the decline has been large. Money is abundant—abnormally so for loan on collateral security, at rates lower than have ever prevailed at this season of the year. At the same time more capital is being turned out of investment in Government bonds by the repeated calls for more bonds for redemption. The call for $15,000,000 on Saturday makes $62,000,000 that have been called since August 12.

Mr. Knox, the Comptroller of the United States Treasury, made last week at the Bankers' Convention a suggestion which has at least the merit of novelty, and will probably be found to have others on further discussion. In view of the approaching disappearance of the United States bonds, on which the currency of the national banks is now based, and the strong probability that in the near future no State will have any outstanding bonds worth mention for this purpose, he proposes that the banks should be allowed to deposit the securities of certain foreign governments—such as English consols, French and Italian rentes, which are very certain not to be paid off within any period we need think about, and are at the same time perfectly safe and can always be disposed of in open market. The use of them, too, would save us the necessity of troublesome legislation, and remove one debatable and not easily settled question from our politics. The easiest bond to manage is, undoubtedly, somebody else's bond, if it is perfectly safe.

Western Republican Congressmen do not approve of the plan, which it is said the Comptroller of the Currency favors, of making a new bond adapted to the needs of the national banks—the Government to give a new 3 per cent. bond and $15 in money for every 4 per cent. bond outstanding. When this plan was first mooted we were of the opinion that, although the Government would lose nothing by the operation, yet a project which would require so much explanation in order to enable common people and even common Congressmen to understand it would have small chance of adoption. Judge Payson, of Illinois, who is not a common Congressman, is said to be very earnest in his opposition to the plan. He says that "Congress will never consent to redeem any bonds at a premium." We think that he is quite right in his judgment of what Congress is likely *not to do*—all this being quite apart from the merits of the plan. Reduced to its simplest terms, the Comptroller's idea is that the interest on the proposed 3 per cents for the time they will have to run, plus the $15 premium, will be equal to, or no greater than, the interest on the 4 per cents for the same time, while the banks will have a strong inducement to make the exchange, being able to use the premium which is now locked up in the price of the fours. This ought not to be a difficult thing to understand; but the idea of redeeming bonds at a premium is likely to be the first thing presented to the mind of the voter, and the one so much the more readily grasped that the explanation would only become clear to him after the polls were closed.

Mr. Wharton Barker's plan for avoiding the reduction of import duties by dividing the surplus revenue among the States, so as to relieve them of the necessity of local taxation, has had such poor success that the Protectionists have been looking around for a new one, and have apparently discovered it. It appeared in the *Tribune* on Monday in the form of a reproof to stupid Protectionists, whom it accuses of blundering. The blunder is in supposing that to reduce revenue you must reduce duties, when it is as plain as the nose on your face, that you can reduce revenue still more effectively by making the duties so high as to stop importation altogether. Accordingly the *Tribune* proposes, in the form of a correction addressed to Protectionist dunderheads, that in order to cut down the revenue derived from steel blooms, for instance, we should, instead of lowering the present 45 per cent. duty, raise it to 70 per cent., under which steel blooms would yield no revenue whatever. A Protectionist who never thought of this must certainly be an unconscionable donkey, and we have not a word to say for him. But it is, nevertheless, questionable whether the country will receive with satisfaction a proposal to remedy the height of the tariff by making it higher; it is so like the plan of curing a headache by cutting off the head. Its appearance, however, at this stage in the discussion lights it up with a touch of humor, which is what the tariff discussion has always needed to make it popular.

The great Senatorial inquiry into the condition of the laboring classes has been transferred to New Hampshire, where it is now carrying on its amusing work. A Catholic priest has demanded that it investigate the quality of food furnished in boarding-houses, which is perhaps as useful a field of research as it could enter on. Considering the part that hash plays in the modern world as an article of diet, the fact that it has thus far escaped official examination, and (so far as we know) has never been reported on by any commission, parliamentary or other, reflects but little credit on modern legislation. Moreover, there are probably no places in the modern world so full of discontent of one sort or another as boarding houses, and therefore none worthier of the penetrating eye of the Congressional Committee. That the Committee will reach any useful conclusion in the matter we greatly doubt, for they are almost sure to present a majority and minority report, one backing up the boarders, and the other the landlady; but the investigation would let light into these dark places, and light is what the modern world seeks on all subjects.

A proposition to abolish contract convict labor in the State prisons is, by direction of the last Legislature, to be submitted to the voters of the State at the coming election. The success of the proposition would simply mean the condemnation of the convicts either to idleness and all its attendant corruption and demoralization, or else to what is almost as corrupting and demoralizing, besides being disheartening—useless labor. It would, moreover, convert the prisons, which are now self-supporting, into burdens on the hard-working taxpayers of the State, who are under no obligation whatever to support an able-bodied man out of the proceeds of their industry because he has committed a crime. As might have been expected, however, the "Democratic masses" in this city are supposed to be in favor of it, and the Aldermen are making preparations for the vote by ordering the printing of 2,000,000 ballots in favor of the proposition. It behooves its opponents in both parties to see that negative ballots are also ready, so that the large body of Tammany men who every year pay visits of greater or less length to the penitentiaries may have at least one experience in their lives of the pleasures of useful industry.

At intervals of two or three years the public are surprised to find that a cash demand exists in some part of the civilized world for Confederate bonds. The price offered and paid is only a few cents on the dollar, but that any price at all should be paid for them is sufficiently astonishing to set everybody guessing what motive, or what conception of law or political economy, can lie at the bottom of so unaccountable an investment of one's money. The conundrum is answered by a letter written by one J. B. Gelder, "Secretary *pro tem.* of the Confederate States Bondholders' Committee," dated at 80 Coleman Street, London, and published in the *Herald*. The substance of it is that certain "eminent jurisconsults" in Europe have given the opinion that these bonds are a valid claim against the several States which constituted the Southern Confederacy during the war, and that the United States ought of right to repeal the prohibition embodied in the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution against the payment of this valid claim by the said States. The inclination of these States to pay the debt if all Constitutional obstacles were removed, is a missing link in Mr. Gelder's financial scheme. The suggestion that such States as Virginia and Mississippi, which openly repudiate debts contracted in time of peace, and against which no Constitutional inhibition lies, might be willing to pay off the Confederate bonds, is really humorous. The case reminds one of the Western wag whose wife had left his bed and board, and who cautioned the public by advertisement not to trust her on his account, adding that as he was not in the habit of paying his own debts, he should not trouble himself about hers.

Southern papers are beginning to protest in earnest against the homicidal tendencies of the South. The *Evening Journal* of Atlanta has from the first been active in the cause of law and order. The *News and Courier* of Charleston, S. C., one of whose editors has had the moral courage to decline a challenge, upon the ground that duelling is in every way obnoxious to him, has unwaveringly denounced the fierce life-taking disposition which Southern society develops.

The *Courier-Journal* has—not without manifold misgivings and some remarkable inconsistencies—directed its energies in the way of reform. The press of Florida has some representatives who are in no way behind these in their strenuous efforts to rid the South of the private avenger and the duellist. But the *State Chronicle*, of Raleigh, N. C., which has just come into the journalistic field, promises to be the most vigorous and effective foe of lawlessness which has yet arisen in the South. In a recent editorial, while it denies "the sweeping conclusion that is sometimes drawn, that our whole civilization is tainted with the spirit of murder," it declares that "it is simply an unfortunate fact that too many men in peaceful and prosperous North Carolina are dying in their boots." The *State Chronicle* is the only Southern paper that we have known to go so far as to object to the killing by an individual of one who has injured a woman's honor. Nothing could be more excellent or timely than its appeal to the other State papers to aid in making "firearms less fashionable." It strikes at the root of the matter, when it says to its Southern contemporaries: "When a murder is committed, a report of it and the usual regrets of the 'unfortunate occurrence' are not enough. Say how it happened. Call a murderer a murderer. This is the proper way to deal with them. The severe punishment of bold truth and plain language is a greater reformatory power than a hazy fear of the gallows."

A large audience at the Academy of Music on Thursday had an opportunity of hearing one of the best of English contemporary orators—Lord Coleridge—make a very graceful speech, by way both of thanks and farewell. It is very difficult now either for an American speaker addressing an English audience, or an English speaker addressing an American audience, to say anything very new about the relations of the two countries; so that the main interest of Lord Coleridge's speech was derived from the fact that his remarks contained the impressions of the holder of what is perhaps now, considering the dignity and security and popular respect which surround it, the greatest judicial office in the world, about the American people. He devoted himself mainly to a comparison of the courts and procedure of the two countries, and had a good word for each; declared himself in politics a Radical of the Bright school, and uttered a perfectly polite and by no means inapt warning against allowing our pride in our material growth to make us forget how much greater in all matters, social, political, and moral, is the importance of quality than that of quantity. He wound up, too, with a very appropriate snub to the now rapidly-diminishing body of English critics who think the evils of this country could be cured by a monarchy, aristocracy, and an established Church, and that any country which wants these things has only to order them at a factory.

There is still apparently the greatest doubt on the other side of the water as to who is to defend O'Donnell, in spite of the despatch of Mr. Pryor, whose arrival the *Irish World* expects to cause a terrible commotion "among the wigs" in the British courts. The reason of this is, we presume, that the brethren over there know very well that Pryor will not be allowed to turn the court into "a hall" for a stump speech on Irish wrongs. O'Donnell's attorney says, moreover, that he is short of money for the defence, his funds being already exhausted in gathering witnesses, and he would probably have liked Pryor's passage money and other expenses. The story that Mr. Charles Russell, Q. C., has been retained for the defence is, we believe, untrue. In fact, neither of the reported pleas to be used for the prisoner—self-defence and insanity—needs to be supported by great forensic talent. Self-defence is a matter of fact, easily proved, if provable, and the question of insanity does not take long to settle in English courts, especially if, as so often in this country, the insanity produced is the variety which drives a man to commit a murder, but leaves him perfectly sane for all the other business of life.

The one question of importance now pending between England and France is the compensation to be made to Mr. Shaw, the Madagascan missionary, whom the late Admiral Pierre seized and kept in close confinement on board a man-of-war for two months. The amount, about $12,000, has been, we believe, already settled. Various charges were made against him—all ridiculous, such as that he had left bottles of poisoned claret within reach of the French troops—but were successively abandoned without trial, so that what his offence really was nobody knows. His food was of the coarsest kind, and his wife was refused permission to see him. His case has naturally made a great stir in England, where what used to be called "Exeter Hall" has taken up his cause with much fervor. The best defence the French had is one which appears to be very well established, namely, that Admiral Pierre was out of his mind through the disease which soon after caused his death, when he was persecuting Shaw; but with curious perversity the press refused to adopt it. Even John Lemoinne, the crack writer of the *Débats*, argues that Shaw, being a missionary, should not complain of coarse fare, because this is what missionaries ought to expect, or of being denied the society of his wife, because missionaries ought not to have wives.

Seldom has a government, in a perplexing affair of state, shown greater tact and firmness than the Hungarian Ministry has evinced in the Croatian question. M. Tisza had scarcely perceived the dangerous character of the outbreak in Agram and the Zagorie district, when he made up his mind to use unbending energy first and conciliation next. His Cabinet seems to have been a unit on the question, but the common ministry of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy had to be won over to the same policy. This achieved, the riots, which were assuming the appearance of a general revolt against the authority of the Hungarian Crown, were rapidly quelled by the unsparing use of military force, while promises of liberal concessions to the rational demands of the Croats were made to an assemblage of Croatian notables convened by the Hungarian Premier. But these concessions had to be granted by the Diet of Buda-Pesth, which was not in session. Before its reassembling, Tisza repaired to the country of Bihar, of which he is one of the representatives, and there, at a banquet given him by his constituents, outlined his purposes in a speech of great force, in which he declared that, after having proved the determination and the power of the Government to uphold its constitutional rights and defend law and order against revolutionary uprisings, it was his determination to exhibit in this question of conflicting national rights a spirit of conciliation corresponding in degree to the energy employed in stifling rebellion, and that on this policy he staked his position both as Premier and Representative. The seriousness of the situation, which had become clear to the people, gave this announcement of the resignation of the Cabinet, in case the Ultra-Nationalists should triumph, a decisive effect, and both Houses of the reassembled Diet, as the latest despatches from Buda-Pesth tell us, hastened to sanction the Government propositions, although no less than the removal of all inscriptions in the Hungarian language from the office signs in Croatia, and the leaving of the exclusively Slavic inscriptions, was demanded.

It is a curious coincidence that, at the moment when a sudden political revulsion emancipated Bulgaria from the sway of her Russian military guardians, and thus deprived the diplomacy of St. Petersburg of a main reliance in its operations in the Balkan Peninsula, a similar revulsion handed over Servia, whose young King had so ostentatiously thrown himself into the arms of the Austro-German alliance, to the guidance of a parliamentary coalition decidedly friendly to Russia. The signal triumph in the late elections to the Servian Skupshtina of the Opposition, led by ex-Premier Ristitch, over the supporters of the pro-Austrian Pirotchanatz Ministry, is an offset to the victory achieved by ex-Premier Zankoff, through the action of the Assembly of Sophia, over the Cabinet headed by the Russian General Soboleff. It is almost amusing to see how far the official or semi-official organs of the Austrian and Russian Foreign Offices went in the expression of their keen feelings of uneasiness and indignation at the respective manifestations in the Peninsula of a spirit of revolt against foreign tutelage. Neither the organs of Count Kálnoky nor those of M. de Giers refrained from uttering words of wrath and menace. In the former, Servia was treated almost like a vassal state of its Austro-Hungarian neighbor, which had no right to have a policy of its own, and the *Journal de Saint-Pétersbourg* not only spoke of new trials to which Bulgaria was exposed by Prince Alexander's facing about, but did not hesitate to say that "the Russian Generals had obtained the authorization of the Emperor to tender their resignations"—as if the Czar were the legal sovereign or suzerain of the Bulgarian Principality. As things stand, both Prince Alexander and King Milan may be reckoned as opponents of Russia's policy in the Peninsula, but their peoples, the late change in Bulgaria notwithstanding, both gravitate in the Russian direction.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, October 10, to TUESDAY, October 16, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

A DECISION was rendered by the Supreme Court of the United States on Monday in five civil-rights cases, based on the first and second sections of the Civil-Rights Act of March 1, 1875. They are respectively prosecutions under the act for not admitting certain colored persons to equal accommodations and privileges in inns and hotels, in railroad cars and in theatres. The Court holds that Congress had no constitutional authority to pass the sections in question under either the Thirteenth or Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution. The decision, however, is held to apply only to the validity of the law in the States, and not in the Territories or the District of Columbia, where the legislative power of Congress is unlimited. Justice Harlan dissented.

Full returns from the Ohio election give a Democratic majority in the State, for Governor, of about 12,000. The Legislature is Democratic on a joint ballot by about 25 votes. The Prohibition party vote in the State is estimated at from 15,000 to 20,000, and the Greenback at 2,000. The total vote was 711,681, and the vote for the prohibition amendment to the Constitution 320,454 This gives a majority against prohibition of 70,793. These figures, while not official, are nearly correct.

In Iowa the Republican plurality is about 30,000, with 57 majority in the Legislature.

In Virginia the Readjusters are much discouraged over the Republican defeat in Ohio, which they think will make it more difficult for Mahone to carry the State.

The Greenbackers of Massachusetts who have no particular faith in Governor Butler, and who hold themselves aloof from the older wing of the party, met in convention at Worcester on Tuesday to nominate a State ticket. John F. Arnold was nominated for Governor.

A consultation of leading Democrats of this State, including many editors, was held in Albany on Friday to consider the interests of the State ticket. A serenade was given to Governor Cleveland in the evening. He made a speech which was more partisan than any of his public utterances. At noon on Saturday the Republican candidates for State officers held a conference in Albany. The State of the canvass was considered and Republican success was predicted.

The Citizens' Committee of Fifty held an important meeting in this city on Friday afternoon. It was decided, on the recommendation of the Executive Council, to take an active interest in the campaign, and to make nominations for all the city and county offices. The Executive Council reported that at the most about $45,000 would be sufficient for a most thorough canvass. On Tuesday two nominations were made for Supreme Court Judgeships, and two for Justices of the City Court. Other nominations will be made.

The Rev. S. Parsons, of Summit, has been nominated by the New Jersey Prohibitionists for Governor. He says that he will stump the State until election day.

The Secretary of the Treasury on Saturday issued a call for $15,000,000 of 3 per cent. bonds.

Secretary Folger, after long consideration, has decided the noted Hesing whiskey compromise case by accepting without modification the offer made by Hesing.

The report of the Commissioner of Pensions, which has just been forwarded to the Secretary of the Interior, is a most complete and exhaustive review of the pension system. It will show that the number of pensions on the rolls increased from 280,000 on July 1, 1882, to 303,000 on July 1, 1883. Of the applications on file 148,000 are for arrears of pensions; the rest, about 100,000, are for current pensions only, applications having been filed since July 1, 1880. Of the claims for arrearages it is estimated that about 60 per cent. will be allowed. The average amount paid to each claimant for arrears, when the system of examination by one physician only was in vogue, was $1,900. Now that the plan of boards of examiners has been very generally established, the average is reduced to $1,400.

The resignation of Commissioner of Patents Marble has been accepted, and the place has been offered to Mr. Ben. Butterworth, of Ohio, who has accepted it.

Surgeon-General Charles H. Crane died at his residence in Washington on Wednesday morning, at the age of fifty-eight. He entered the army as an assistant surgeon in February, 1848. On July 3, 1882, he was promoted to the rank of Surgeon-General.

In view of the retirement of General Sherman from active duty on November 1, and the succession of Lieutenant-General Sheridan to the command of the armies, the following changes will take place: The Department of the South has been consolidated with the Department of the East, with General Hancock in command, headquarters at New York. General Schofield will take command of the Division of the Missouri, with headquarters at Chicago; and General Pope will succeed the last-named in command of the Pacific Division at San Francisco. Brigadier General Augur will succeed Major-General Pope in command of the Missouri Department, with headquarters at Fort Leavenworth. Brig.-Gen. R. S. Mackenzie will succeed General Augur in command of the Department of Texas.

The first three months of the term of service of the United States Civil-Service Commissioners expired on Monday. In that period twelve clerks have been appointed under the rules in the War Department, six in the Treasury, and two in the Post-office.

A loophole has been discovered in the Chinese immigration law by which Chinese have been permitted to land at San Francisco. The second article of the treaty permits any Chinaman other than a laborer to come to the United States if he be provided with a certificate issued by the Chinese Government identifying him as being engaged in other pursuits than that of a laborer. The steamer *Rio Janeiro*, which arrived at San Francisco on Saturday, brought 132 Chinamen for San Francisco, 77 of whom held tradesmen's certificates, issued by the officials of the Chinese Government. Notwithstanding the strongest external evidence of their being ignorant Chinese laborers, all but six were permitted to land. The Custom-house officers say that they have no power to go back of the Chinese Government's certificate.

Governor Eli Murray, of Utah, has made an alarming report to the Secretary of the Interior on the condition of affairs in that Territory with reference to the Mormon problem. He recommends "that it be made lawful for soldiers of the United States to be used for the execution of processes out of the courts of the United States, in the hands of the United States Marshal of Utah." As a remedy for the many evils complained of, he asks that if the Legislature elected under the Edmunds bill fail to repeal all laws passed by former Legislatures respecting the establishment of religion, and all statutes by which laws of Congress have been nullified, or to pass laws forbidding polygamy, and punishing all persons who solemnize plural marriages, and providing for neglected and deserving wives, and to recognize the sovereign authority of the United States, then that Congress shall repeal that section of the organic act establishing such a body, and assume control in the government of the Territory.

At the annual meeting of the Board of Trustees of the John F. Slater Fund in this city on Tuesday, it was reported that the income of the fund for the current year is about $60,000, from which an appropriation of $20,000 has already been made, and the sum of $16,250 has been allotted to twelve institutions in seven of the Southern States. All these institutions have undertaken to provide industrial training. Other appropriations will soon be made to the extent of the available means of the fund.

The will of the late Henry Farnam, of New Haven, gives the homestead in Hillhouse Avenue, upon the death of the widow and his son, Prof. Henry W. Farnam, to Yale College in trust, with a request that it be tenanted by the President or one or more of the professors to be designated by the President. Included in this bequest are lots adjoining the homestead. The value of the bequest is about $200,000.

The Bankers' Convention met at Louisville, Ky., on Wednesday, and was opened by an address by President George S. Coe. On Thursday it adopted a resolution in favor of a national bankruptcy law, and also one in favor of the coinage of only so many silver dollars as the business of the country requires. L. J. Gage, of Chicago, was elected President, Mr. Coe declining a reëlection.

The Congregational Council has been in session at Concord, N. H., during the week. The Secretary's report showed a net gain of 262 churches during the past three years, and of 5,079 in membership. The addition to churches by profession averaged 12,500 annually. The contributions for Sabbath-schools last year amounted to $300,000, and for charitable objects to more than $6,000,000.

The General Railway-Time Convention in Chicago on Thursday voted to adopt on November 18 a uniform standard-time schedule. There will be four standards for the entire country, differing by exactly one hour each.

An extensive strike of switchmen for higher wages began in St. Louis on Monday.

President Green's annual report of the Western Union Telegraph Company shows that they have 432,726 miles of wire and 12,917 offices; 40,581,177 messages were handled during the year, the receipts from which were $19,454,902 08, against $17,114,165 92 last year. The expenses for the year just closed were $11,794,553 40, leaving a net profit of $7,660,349 58, an increase of 8 per cent. over the preceding year. A Board of Directors for the new year was elected on Wednesday. There were only two changes from the old Board.

The long-pending negotiations between the Globe Telephone Company, of New York, and the Shaw Telephone Company, of Chicago, have been completed, and the Globe Company now becomes the owner of the patents for the United States formerly owned by the Shaw Company.

The taking of testimony in the Sessions bribery trial began on Wednesday afternoon at Albany, with ex-Assemblyman Bradley, who narrated the incidents of the alleged attempt of Mr. Sessions to bribe him. Mr. Bradley admitted that when he took the money, promising to vote for Depew, he did not mean to do so. His cross examination was continued on Thursday. After the testimony for the prosecution had been heard, a motion to quash the indictment was made. The Justice denied the motion on Saturday, and the testimony for the defence began.

A brilliant reception was given Lord Chief-Justice Coleridge of England at the Academy of Music, in this city, on Thursday evening, under the auspices of the State Bar Association. Elliott F. Shepard, Chief Judge William C. Ruger, and William M. Evarts made addresses. Lord Coleridge made a graceful and thoughtful response.

The Rev. Dr. Ewer, of St. Ignatius Church, in this city, died in Montreal on Wednesday morning.

A severe earthquake shock was felt at San Francisco on Wednesday morning.

FOREIGN.

The prospect of an easy settlement of the difficulty between France and Spain was disturbed on Wednesday by the impression prevailing in Madrid that France was not disposed to go further in the way of an apology for the insult to King Alfonso. It was reported that the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs had recommended that the Ambassador to France be recalled unless further reparation were granted. The other ministers opposed this step as extreme. The Foreign Minister then threatened to resign. On Wednesday evening it was known positively in Madrid that France had refused further satisfaction. Prime Minister Sagasta then considered that the moment had arrived to leave to a new Ministry the task of adopting final measures in the affair. King Alfonso accepted the resignation of Sagasta's Ministry, as they were unable to agree what course to pursue. He thereupon asked Señor Sagasta to form a new Ministry, but as the Dynastic Left did not show any disposition to come to terms with the latter, he was obliged to decline the task, and advised that it be intrusted to Señor Posada-Herrera, who, he said, would perhaps be able to effect a union of the different groups of the Liberal party. Señor Sagasta promised to support a Cabinet formed on that basis. King Alfonso then summoned Señor Posada-Herrera, who undertook the task.

The new Premier has long been prominent in Spanish politics. In 1877 he was elected President of the Chamber of Deputies. He belongs to the Progressist Moderate party, and is sixty-eight years of age. Alfonso granted the new Premier power to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, which makes him more independent than previous Premiers. Señor Camacho declined to continue as Minister of Finance in the new Cabinet, as he was reluctant to trust his projects for financial reforms to a coalition Cabinet. On Friday the Duc de Fernan-Nuñez, the Spanish Ambassador to France, resigned, and declared his determination to insist upon the acceptance of his resignation. In the evening, at an interview between Señor Posada-Herrera, Señor Moret, and Marshal Serrano, Señor Moret explained to Señor Posada-Herrera the conditions upon which the Dynastic Left would enter the Cabinet. A full Cabinet was announced on Saturday, with Señor Posada-Herrera as Premier, Señor Gallostra as Minister of Finance, Señor Moret as Minister of the Interior, General Lopez-Dominguez as Minister of War.

It was also announced from Madrid on Saturday that the friendly assurances and cordial explanations tendered by Prime Minister Ferry had satisfied the Government. The Alfonso incident was therefore considered at an end, and the Spanish Government, with the assent of France, announced that such was the case in a circular to its representatives in other courts. The new Cabinet has been sworn. It is considered doubtful whether a majority of the members of the Cortes will unconditionally support the Cabinet, especially in its policy on the questions of universal suffrage and constitutional reform. Señor Moret's organ asserts that the aspirations of the Left will receive satisfaction in the programme of the new Ministry.

Señor Moret, the new Spanish Minister of the Interior, has requested the officers in his department not to resign, as is the usual course in a change of Ministry. He explains that the present Government seeks the co-operation and good will of all the factions of Liberalism, in order to correct abuses and to prove to the nation that the Liberals can form a compact party, and will not wreck, by divisions in their ranks, the splendid opportunity afforded by the reconciliation of the monarchy with the democracy. Gen. Lopez-Dominguez, Minister of War, does not propose to displace any generals of the army, but if any tender their resignations they will be replaced by friends of Marshal Serrano.

In Madrid on Friday evening the anniversary of the discovery of America was celebrated with a splendid banquet and a number of speeches in the opera-house.

At the French Ministry of Marine the claims of Mr. Shaw, the English missionary who was involved in the Madagascan trouble, are considered settled. He will receive an indemnity of 60,000 francs, and the French Minister of Foreign Affairs will address to the British Foreign Office a diplomatic letter regretting the occurrence.

Prime Minister Ferry, of France, in a speech delivered at Havre on Monday, foreshadowed the withdrawal by France of the present embargo upon the importation of American bacon.

The revised estimates of the French budget show a deficit of 55,000,000 francs, which M. Tirard, Minister of Finance, proposes to cover by a reduction of governmental expenses.

The French Cabinet has adopted the proposal of Admiral Peyron, Minister of Marine and of the Colonies, to create a Superior Council for the colonies, to be composed of thirty-six members. A French Radical manifesto, signed by three members of the Senate and seven members of the Chamber of Deputies, including M. Clémenceau, M. Laisant, and Tony Revillon, has been published, urging the formation of permanent electoral committees throughout the country, to register all citizens desiring the organization of the republic by the vote of a Democratic constitution.

The Governor of Cochin China reports that he has completed an agreement with the King of Cambodia by which the latter will introduce for the future government of his kingdom a new Constitution. The agreement confirms the establishment of a French protectorate, provides liberal institutions for the people, establishes measures for the security of property, reorganizes the administrative and judicial systems, and entirely abolishes slavery.

The report that the French defeated the Chinese at Bac-ninh is unconfirmed. Lin Yang Fu, commander of the Black Flags in Tonquin, has issued a challenge to the French troops to come forth from Hanoi to battle. It was reported in Hong Kong on Thursday that the Black Flags had quarrelled with their allies, the Chinese regulars, in the provinces of Yunnan and Kwangsi. The Yellow Flags have disbanded, the majority joining the enemy because the French interfered with their commander. It was also reported that a Chinese Admiral with four gunboats had left Pakhoi for Lung-mun, near the Tonquin frontier, to embark most of the Chinese troops there. The Admiral will return to Canton soon with General Fang. It is supposed that the intention of massing Chinese troops on the Tonquin frontier has been abandoned.

A riot has occurred at Foochoo, China, owing to the French Consul's having objected to the burial in ground adjoining the foreign concession of a Chinaman who had died from cholera. The temper of the Chinese at all the treaty ports is dangerous.

O'Donnell, the slayer of Carey, the informer, has daily interviews with his solicitor. He complains of the severity of prison discipline. Three hundred pounds have, so far, been spent in his defence by bringing witnesses from the Cape of Good Hope. The police have failed to find any evidence showing connection between O'Donnell and the Irish Invincibles. On Monday the Recorder of the Central Criminal Court, in London, charged the Grand Jury in O'Donnell's case. He said that it would be the sworn duty of the jury to return a true bill for murder. The indictment will not be returned until Wednesday next.

At the regular fortnightly meeting of the Irish National League in Dublin on Wednesday evening it was announced that £1,000 had been received from Australia by the treasurer during the week, and also £1,000 from America.

A rumor was circulated on Wednesday that Sir Stafford Northcote had been shot and dangerously wounded in a small Irish town. The rumor proved to be unfounded.

The British Liberal Conference began its sessions at Leeds, England, on Tuesday. Mr. John Morley presided. The programme of the subjects to be considered includes the extension of the franchise, reform of the government of London and of the counties, equalization of the county and borough franchise, woman suffrage, a redistribution of seats in Parliament, and an improved registration of voters and of the methods of voting.

The Lower House of the Hungarian Diet on Wednesday, by a vote of 187 to 105, passed the resolution of Herr von Tisza, the Hungarian Prime Minister, for the settlement of the escutcheon question in Croatia. It provides that the present Croatian inscriptions be retained, and that the Hungarian and bilingual inscriptions be discontinued. This reform was carried into effect at Agram on Tuesday.

The Czar and Czarina of Russia ended their visit to Copenhagen on Thursday, and started for St. Petersburg.

During the services in a Jewish synagogue at Zivonka, in the Government of Podolia, Russia, on Saturday, a false alarm of fire was raised in the women's gallery, which caused a panic. There was a terrible crush, during which forty women were killed and thirty others injured.

The Danish polar steamer *Dijmphna* arrived on Wednesday off the island of Vardöe, Norway. She got clear of the ice on August 2, but afterward lost her propeller and became ice-bound again in the Straits of Kara until September 26, when she was released.

Four hundred persons are prostrated by trichinosis in ten villages of Saxony.

The Khedive of Egypt has issued a decree granting amnesty to all persons implicated in the late rebellion except those convicted of murder and outrage.

Doctor Koch, of the German Commission which went to Egypt to investigate the cholera epidemic, reports that he has discovered that cholera is due to a living, thread-like microscopic organism resembling that seen in cases of phthisis.

Sir John Macdonald, Premier of Canada, was on Thursday convicted of bribery through agents in the Lennox Parliamentary district. It was proved that many votes were purchased in his interest.

A Durban despatch on Tuesday announced that the remnant of King Cetewayo's party, having assembled with the intention of rescuing Cetewayo from Inkankla Bush, where he had been in hiding, Chief Usibepu, whose forces had been watching the borders of the Reserve, near Babanango, South Africa, surprised them and slaughtered one-half their number. Cetewayo has surrendered to the British Resident. He will be conveyed to Natal.

A despatch from Vladivostok to St. Petersburg announces that the steamer *Kamtchatka* arrived there on Wednesday. She reports that eleven trading schooners, whose nationality is unknown, after driving off the American guardship *Leon*, belonging to the Alaska Commercial Company, stationed at the island of Tjulenij, landed sixty armed men, including some Japanese, and took possession of the island.

THE END OF THE CIVIL-RIGHTS BILL.

The calm with which the country receives the news that the leading sections of the celebrated Civil-Rights Act of 1875 have been pronounced unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, shows how completely the extravagant expectations as well as the fierce passions of the war have died out. The Act was forced through Congress as the crowning measure of the plan of reconstructing the South on which the Republican party entered at the close of the war, and under the influence of that feeling of omnipotence with regard to the South which was the natural and unavoidable result of the prolonged exercise of the war power, and which survived the war for fully fifteen years. Some of the ablest lawyers in both houses saw its unconstitutionality clearly enough, and pointed it out; but some voted for it as a useful piece of party work, which might do good and could not possibly do any harm. What the Act directed the hotel-keepers and railroad managers and theatrical managers to do in the treatment of colored people was good in itself, and if they did it, all would be well; if they did not do it, the colored people would be no worse off than they were before the Act was passed, and the Republican party would still have the credit of doing its best to put them on a footing of complete social as well as political equality. It was as clear then as it is now to almost every candid-minded man, that the Fourteenth Amendment, on which the promoters of the Act professed to base it, was really directed against State legislation, and not against the acts of individuals. This was about as plain as words could make it, but the legal argument had little or no weight against the argument drawn from party advantage.

The reason why the Fourteenth Amendment had not given Congress power to legislate directly in defence of the social rights of the negroes in the several States was plain enough, too. It was that the Republican party, when the amendment was adopted in 1868, was occupied solely with the defence of the ordinary civil rights of the freedmen against hostile or reactionary State legislation. It was, in short, due to the fear that slavery might be succeeded, for the colored people, by a carefully prepared condition of legal inferiority, and against this the men who abolished slavery determined to guard. An amendment providing for the admission of negroes to hotels and theatres and public conveyances would not have been adopted, because the notion that the social equality of the colored people could be hastened by legislation sprang up later, when they had come more distinctly into view as citizens and property-holders, theatre-goers and travellers; but it never was strong enough to procure either the adoption of a Constitutional amendment or the passage of an act which anybody expected to be enforced. The Civil-Rights Act was really rather an admonition, or statement of moral obligation, than a legal command. Probably nine-tenths of those who voted for it knew very well that whenever it came before the Supreme Court it would be torn to pieces.

Any one who has forgotten, or is not old enough to remember, the arguments which were made to do duty in the service of the bill when it was before Congress, will find an interesting summary of them in the comments of Mr. Greener, the colored lawyer, on the late decision of the Court, in the *Evening Post* of Tuesday. As a reminiscence of ways of thinking about constitutional questions which have almost wholly passed away, they are interesting reading. It will be seen that there is very little flavor even of legality about them. They are almost all based on moral considerations with which courts of law under our system have little or nothing to do. The decision is wrong because it is likely to annoy and inconvenience the colored race. It is wrong because it disregards, in disobedience to the Constitution, certain primeval natural rights brought over here by the first settlers; because it may lead to Catholic bishops or Jewish rabbis being expelled from railroad cars; because it raises inconvenient questions of social equality; and because, coming just after the Ohio election, "it can scarcely be construed as anything else than a covert and insidious blow at the institutions of the Republican party."

What the Court has decided, we need hardly say, is simply that the Fourteenth Amendment does not authorize Congress to protect the civil rights of colored people within the States against anything but hostile State legislation; or, in other words, that the powers of Congress are defined by the Constitution, and not by considerations of humanity, or even general utility, or by the opinions or wishes of prominent politicians. Consequently, nearly all that the arguments originally produced in support of the Act, as well as those of Mr. Greener now against the Court's interpretation of it, really prove is, that the division of powers made by the Constitution between the States and the Union is not a proper one, and that the framers might have made a far better Government than the one they did make, if they had only tried.

SOME SUGGESTIONS OF THE OHIO ELECTION.

The Republican defeat in Ohio is an unpleasant fact, both because of the encouragement it will give the Democrats throughout the country, and because it has clearly been due in a large measure to an agency which is not likely to prove merely temporary or transient —we mean the temperance question. It has been plain enough, ever since the South dropped out of politics, that the Republican party would have to husband carefully such resources as it had apart from the slavery question and the war. Foremost among these was the passion of a very large proportion of its members for what are called "moral issues." The nucleus of the party has, in fact, from the beginning consisted of men who are never satisfied in politics unless they think they are doing what is right, as well as what is expedient. Since the party ceased to meddle in Southern affairs, no provision has been made in party management for this portion of it, in which so much of its strength lies. The civil-service reform movement in some degree, at least in the Eastern States, touched their imagination, and a proper mode of dealing with it might have done much to strengthen their declining allegiance. But the persistence of the managers in flouting and deriding it, down to the elections of last fall, had the unfortunate effect of convincing large numbers — even those who cared little about civil-service reform, but liked to take a serious view of public affairs—that the party was thoroughly controlled by triflers and jobbers. The conversion which has since occurred, however useful to the country, has unfortunately had too much the air of deathbed repentance to do the party much good. In other words, its hold on its most earnest section, to which it undoubtedly owed its prolonged possession of the Government, has been seriously weakened, without any better compensation that one can see than "two per cent. on the annual compensation" of a few office-holders.

The growth of the temperance movement in the West, and its increased and increasing force as a disturbing agency in politics, are in all probability the result of these longings for moral issues, for which many Republicans have been unable to find satisfaction within the party ranks. Strong drink is undoubtedly a fearful scourge all over the West, in even a greater degree than at the East. The towns swarm with saloons, which are a constant snare and temptation to every passer-by. There are probably very few households containing young men which are not made more or less unhappy by it, through the apprehensions of the women about husbands and sons; and there are few callings which are not thickly strewn with the wrecks it has caused. The liquor agitation has been for many years, as one might expect, trying to force its way into party politics, and has often in "off years" done the Republicans, to whom it furnishes some of their most earnest supporters, considerable damage. Hitherto, however, it has not been able to make itself felt in years when defeat was likely to prove a serious discouragement. This time, in the year before the Presidential election, it has proved strong enough to "smash things," in complete apparent indifference to consequences. It has gone so far in Ohio as to put the real party of liquor in power, simply to punish the Republicans, and has tried to saddle the State with a prohibitory amendment to the Constitution, the execution of which would undoubtedly have been attended with great difficulty and confusion. In Iowa, also, the Republicans have triumphed by a large majority, under an obligation to pass a most stringent prohibitory law, the temperance question there, apparently, dominating all others.

The proposed amendment in Ohio forbade "the manufacture of and traffic in intoxicating liquors to be used as a beverage," and directed the Legislature to provide for the enforcement of the prohibition. What this would mean in practice may be inferred from the fact that there are in the State 221 distilling, brewing, or wine-making establishments, with a capital of $13,739,230, and producing annually about $16,000,000 worth of drink-

ables more or less intoxicating, or about one-twentieth of the total manufactures of the State. In this is not included the value of the stock of liquors on hand, in the distilleries, breweries, and saloons and taverns, because these would presumably not be destroyed by the amendment, but might be sent out of the State for sale elsewhere. But the loss to the dealers over and above their stock and fixtures, by the mere destruction of "the good-will" of their business, would certainly exceed $5,000,000 annually. This undoubtedly made the amendment seem a very serious matter commercially, and possibly involved a legal point which, if it has never been raised, probably will be before long, and that is the right of the State to destroy suddenly a large mass of private property without compensation.

The effect of prohibition as an irritant would have varied according to the class of the population which it reached. As a general rule, native Americans can bear having their liquor cut off with perfect calm. Few except the very rich drink anything intoxicating with their meals, differing in this in a marked degree from every other people in the world. One of the large hotels in London, we believe, now refuses accommodation to Americans, because they drink no wine at dinner, or, as English landlords express it, take nothing "for the good of the house." All foreigners, too, are surprised by the absence of bottles and decanters from the American tables d'hôte, and are puzzled by the equanimity with which what is called "the average American" washes down his food with plain ice-water. It is true that there is an enormous amount of solitary as well as social drinking at bars; but this, if a pleasure at all, is a pleasure so brief and evanescent that none but confirmed topers would be much put out if every bar in the country were closed.

The Germans and other foreigners take a very different view of the matter. To them wine or beer with their meals seems an absolute necessity. Food without claret is to a Frenchman a cruel mockery, and so is food without beer to most Germans. There are about 394,000 foreigners in Ohio, and upon the half of these, who are probably Germans, the prohibitory blow would fall with crushing severity, for they not only take beer with their meals, but they use it as an aid to social intercourse, and as in fact an inseparable accompaniment of all their amusements. Moreover, like all the nations of Continental Europe, they have never yet understood the temperance movement. Interference on the part of the State with a man's food or drink seems to them a blow at the very foundations of personal liberty, submission to which on the part of the two great liberty-loving communities of the world—England and America—is to them perfectly incomprehensible.

The future of the liquor interest in this country must be considered greatly clouded by what has happened in Ohio and Iowa, and there could hardly be a worse time than the present for any party to propose, as Mr. Randall has done on behalf of the Democratic party, that the tariff should be saved by making whiskey free. Moreover, as far as one can see at present, we have probably witnessed the entrance into the political arena of a new organization, with which both parties will hereafter have to count, but from which the Republican party is likely to suffer most, and which is permeated by much of the iconoclastic spirit which first made the Republican party a power. One of the great advantages the Republican party enjoyed in the beginning was that it made politics interesting and even exciting to the women. One of the greatest disadvantages under which the Democratic party has labored for the last quarter of a century, at least at the North, has been, not simply that it had nothing to attract the young men, but nothing to touch in the smallest degree the female imagination. An ardent female Democrat is something which probably nobody has seen at the North for twenty-five years, while enthusiastic female Republicans have abounded in every village. It looks now as if the Republicans were likely to suffer from having nothing in their programme which can be called interesting family reading, or which gives voters the character of defenders of a sacred cause in the eyes of their own household. It is more than ever doubtful whether any party in this country can hereafter long retain power without it.

PROHIBITORY GIFT DUTIES.

Mr. George Jacob Holyoake attempted, on his recent visit to this country, to bring with him some presents for distribution here, and, like all foreigners who have made that experiment, he lived to regret it. He has published an account of his struggles, which, in spite of its unfriendly allusions to our beloved protective system, is amusing reading. His first trouble was with a photograph of John Bright, which he brought over as a present for a Chicago friend. He found that he could get it through the Custom-house only on payment of $6, and was naturally somewhat astonished by that fact. He recalls the graceful invitation sent a short time ago through Mr. Evarts to Mr. Bright to visit America, and remarks that under the statutes there is no provision whereby Mr. Bright's portrait can be admitted "unless the importer pays a penalty at the Custom-house for his temerity in making the offer of it."

Mr. Holyoake's greatest trouble was with a bale of books which he had consented to distribute for the Mayor of Brighton. The Mayor is very much interested in sanitary science, and had caused to be published, in a handsome volume, the proceedings of the first Congress of Health held in England. He wished to present a hundred or more of these books, together with some documents of scientific interest relating to Brighton, and likely to be of interest to the coast cities of the United States, to such American cities as would like to have them. Mr. Holyoake found that he could only get the books through the Custom-house by paying $100, or by writing to the authorities of the cities to which he intended to make his gifts, and getting from each a letter testifying its willingness to accept. As to get such letters would have entailed a loss of much time, and an expense of roomrent and clerk-hire amounting to at least $500, Mr. Holyoake informed the customs officers that the books might as well be treated as the tea was in Boston Harbor. They advised him to go to Washington and consult the authorities, which he did. While there he learned that consignments of goods addressed to the Smithsonian Institute were permitted to come in free of duty, and having obtained the consent of Professor Baird to have his books distributed through the Institute, he finally got them to their destinations. He is evidently in no mood to attempt further benevolent acts of this kind. "Protection," he says, "is a good thing, I am aware, and many people need to be protected from evils known and unknown; but I was surprised to find that an intelligent country like America thought it necessary to be protected from information acquired at much cost by others, and unobtainable in that form by themselves." On being shown the clause of the law which forbids the free admission of more than two copies in one invoice of any book, map, or chart intended as a gift to a school, institution, etc., he came to the conclusion that "nothing save a minor present could be made to America, and that only by an intrepid and wealthy donor prepared to take infinite trouble to make his gift."

Mr. Holyoake is not the first foreigner who has had trouble of this kind. Mr. Richard A. Proctor wrote a letter to the London *Times* a few months ago, complaining that some "little gifts, intrinsically worth less than cost of carriage, and not including a single dutiable article," which he sent from London to friends in Missouri at Christmas time, "were kept at New York till enormous customs charges were paid." He concluded his complaint with this vigorous passage: "Consigned to St. Joseph, Mo., 1,500 miles from New York on one side, by people in England 3,000 miles away from New York on the other side, they lie there the prey of the great nation which has the eagle for its national emblem, but, judged by its customs, might much more appropriately take the raven." Of course, expressions of this kind are open to the criticism that they are of British origin, and are possibly uttered by emissaries of the Cobden Club who have been sent over here to work secretly in the interest of free trade by casting ridicule upon the protective system.

Occasionally, however, complaints are heard on this side. A short time ago an irate American wrote to the *Tribune* a moving description of the experience he had had in receiving a present which had been sent to him from Italy. The donor had sent him word that the present was coming, saying it consisted of a couple of terracotta figures, the original cost of which was only $1. When the package arrived he was presented with a bill of $6 for duty, freight, commission, and several other things. As he must either pay the bill or put himself in the position of declining his friend's present, he paid the charge, and on opening the package found the figures so broken as to be valueless. The Government officials knew they were broken when they made the charge, but concealed the fact until the bill was paid. When the receiver demanded reparation he was referred to the steamship company which had transported the package, and when he applied to the company he was told he must go

to the packer who had put up the goods in Italy, for the breakage was clearly due to his imperfect work. In another instance a gentleman in this city received a Christmas present of a bronze flower-dish from a friend in Germany. To get it out of the Custom-house cost him $10, and when it was taken from the box one of the side handles was found to be broken off, making the gift practically worthless. These are only specimen instances in hundreds which happen every year. A present from abroad is really a financial misfortune from which every American has reason to pray that he may be delivered, but he has no especial excuse for complaining. He pays enormous taxes on nearly everything he wears and upon most of the things he uses, and it merely completes the symmetry of our tariff system to make him pay for his presents also.

THE REPUBLIC AND THE COALITION.

PARIS, September 27, 1883.

THE journeys of sovereigns have had this year a peculiar significance: they have obviously tended to extend the sphere of influence of the German and Austrian alliance. This alliance, concluded a few years ago by Prince Bismarck, and since renewed for a longer period, has become the corner-stone of European politics. It is very different from the so-called alliance of the three Emperors which followed the war of 1870, as it is not only concluded for the preservation of peace, but also for the attainment of certain specific objects. The conversations which Prince Bismarck had at different times with foreign ministers and ambassadors on the characters and ultimate objects of the alliance, are well known in political circles. Prince Bismarck has well explained how, even on the day after Sadowa, he became anxious to spare Austria and to reserve for her a new rôle. He found great difficulties in this attempt at first, but as soon as the wounds of Austria began to heal, as soon as it became possible for him to play on the old antagonism of Russian and Austrian interests in the valley of the Danube and in the peninsula of the Balkans, he did not lose his opportunity. His journey to Vienna was the triumph of his politics. He showed the Austrian Emperor what was the "manifest destiny" of his *Oesterreich*—how Austria was the natural heir of Turkey in the East; how she seemed created in order to bring by degrees under her influence the numerous principalities which shook off the hated sovereignty of the Sultan, and to make, with the help of the Eastern populations themselves, a formidable barrier against the ambition of Russia. There are old mosaics in which the Emperor is represented on his throne, surrounded by Italia, Allemania, Austria. What is Allemania? It is modern Germany—Prussia with all her confederates. What is Austria? It is the actual Empire of the Hapsburgs; and this empire must find new confederates in Rumania, in Servia, in Bulgaria.

The King of Rumania is a Hohenzollern, a German, a man of considerable intellect. He has exchanged his title of Prince for the title of King, and, though his government is a constitutional monarchy, with two Chambers and responsible Ministers, there is no doubt that his influence is very great, especially with regard to foreign affairs. The position of Rumania is a singular one. Rumania has been looked upon by Russia as a sort of advanced position, a *tête de pont*. Before the last Eastern war, Rumania was obliged to sign a secret convention, in which she gave to the Russian armies the right of passage across her territory as soon as war should have been declared with Turkey. When hostilities began, the Rumanian army became a part of the Russian army, and at Plevna the courage of the Rumanian regiments was much admired. How is it that so soon after these great events Rumania is now drawn toward Austria and depending upon the protection of the traditional enemy of Russia? It is almost needless to explain. When Russia stopped before the gates of Constantinople, she gave a proof of impotence and of incoherence which will not be forgotten for years to come. Nihilism achieved what a mistaken diplomacy had begun. The huge Russian empire appeared suddenly as a colossus with feet of clay; it is a stupendous mass, in a sort of atomic or molecular state, without any nerves, any nervous centres, any organization. Opinion always runs from one extreme to another. The strength of Russia was overestimated; now it is probably underestimated. It is said that when Prince Bismarck was still in diplomacy, whenever he left a court he had a seal made with an inscription which condensed his opinion of the country and the people he was leaving. When he left St. Petersburg, he ordered this simple word to be engraved on a seal, "Nichts." Public opinion has been recently drawn to the same conclusion; and it is curious to notice the casual coincidence of this word "Nichts" and Nihilism.

If there was anywhere a prince who owed everything to Russia, it was Prince Milano, who has also recently expanded into a King Milano, but he too has forgotten the old services of his protectors, and has tried to become a *persona grata* at Vienna. Bulgaria is the creature of Russia. We all remember how the last war began with the "Bulgarian atrocities." Russia, while she stipulated hardly anything for herself, assured the independence of Bulgaria, and Europe found a sovereign for the new principality in the person of Prince Alexander of Battenberg. We hear now that he likewise wishes to show his independence, and to take a place in the pleiad of Balkan principalities which are to form a sort of vanguard of Austria. It was easy to foresee that the dismemberment of Turkey would end in the formation of small states which would oscillate between Russia and Austria. The pendulum is now on the Austrian side. Austria herself has taken possession of Bosnia and Herzegovina; she is looking on Adrianople, and she is drawn, almost perforce, toward the Ægean Sea. Turkey can no longer stop the movement of disintegration which is taking place. She is bankrupt; almost all her taxes are in the hands of European receivers. The Mohammedans will gradually give way before the Christians.

The Austro-German alliance has not only been fortified by the gradual attraction of the principalities of the Balkans and of the Valley of the Danube—Italy has been allowed to join it. The King of Italy does not exactly go *pari passu* with the two Emperors, but Italy has bound herself to them by a regular treaty; all the eventualities of the future have been examined, and a common course of action has been adopted. The King of Italy has become Colonel of an Austrian regiment, and is called the Austrian Colonel in the radical papers of Rome. The policy of Italy has been determined by the Tunisian war and the semi-annexation of Tunis to French Algeria. A French professor has lately published a book under the title 'L'Italie qu'on ne voit pas,'* in which he makes citations from the geographical text-books used in the Italian schools. The Italian boys are taught that the natural boundaries of Italy take in Savoy and Nice, and even Corsica. The Irredentists do not speak much at present of the Trentino, or of Trieste; Italy is looking in other directions, and she has joined the fortunes of the Powers whom she thinks the strongest and the most capable of doing something for their friends. The *rapprochement* of the Italian policy and the Austro-German policy has not produced a great political crisis in Italy: the Left is still in power; but the Conservatives have gained in influence, and their voice is again becoming heard. The Italians are wonderfully flexible; they understood at once that a sort of monarchical solidarity required a more conservative policy at home.

What is exactly the character of this monarchical solidarity? It is not yet to be compared to the famous Holy Alliance formerly made against Bonaparte and the principles of the French Revolution; but the monarchs of Europe seem to draw nearer together—they put themselves on the defensive. They dare not attack by deeds, nor even by words, the new French Republic; but it seems as if this Republic, placed in the midst of Europe, made them a little uneasy. France will always have an extraordinary power, which will extend far beyond her frontiers: her stage, her novels, her fashions, her sociability, the attractions which she presents to the foreigner—everything contributes to make France (and France in one sense is Paris) a focus which radiates in all directions. It was the policy of Germany to favor the establishment of the Republic in France. Without being too Machiavellian, Prince Bismarck probably thought that a French Republic could not be a dangerous Power; but there are many ways of being dangerous. He expected, perhaps, to see the French democracy using up its strength in vain and endless divisions, but even he did not understand the terrible force of centralization. All the machinery of the state, which extends even to the smallest village, works quietly and irresistibly for the Republic, just as it did for the Second Empire. Cabinets may change, the administrations continue their work. The Republic may have its Mexican expeditions, may throw great classes of the population into a state of despair, may persecute the congregations, may remove six hundred judges from the bench, may dilapidate the resources of the country; on goes the old engine of centralization, and everything is as quiet as if the country was living under an absolute ruler. Not a peasant thinks of transgressing the military laws, or of refusing his taxes. Nothing can stop the great current; the country is obedient, quiet, peaceful, but ready for all the sacrifices of war, if these sacrifices be asked. This is not the kind of republic which Europe expected. Very few statesmen, even among the most experienced, really understood the forces which universal suffrage creates, and which create a power all the more irresistible that it is (so to speak) anonymous. The sovereigns, led by a sort of instinct of preservation, begin to see, even better than their ministers, that the continuation of a republic which, with all its mistakes and faults, is prosperous, and does not attack the foundations of property, must become in the end a sort of *reductio ad absurdum* of the monarchical system.

We see the young King of Spain now joining the charmed circle of the Kings and Emperors. A short time ago a military pronunciamiento was made in Spain, directed against the monarchical form of government, and republican in its tendency. The young King had already promised to go to Berlin and to witness the great manœuvres of the German army. He left his own country before the mystery of the pronuncia-

* See the *Nation*, No. 930.

miento had been well explained, and paid his visit to the Emperor of Germany. He comes back as colonel of a regiment of Uhlans garrisoned in Strassburg. It has always been the fashion in the German, Russian, and English Courts to interchange colonelcies of regiments. The Kings of the two Sicilies and the Dukes of Parma and Modena accepted colonelcies from Austria at the time when Italy was under the Austrian régime. But Alfonso II. is the first King of Spain who has consented to become colonel in a foreign army. No French Prince under the Bourbons or the Orléans was ever allowed to command, nominally, foreign troops. The acceptation by Alfonso of Spain of the colonelcy of Uhlans has given great offence in Paris, and the Radicals threaten to make a demonstration at the entrance of the young King into Paris or during his short stay in the French capital. Nothing could be more unfortunate, for any offence against the King of Spain, on a futile pretext, would only tend to change the monarchical *rapprochement* into a real coalition.

I have shown the various forces which seem to be slowly uniting. It remains to be seen, first, if there are not counter-forces which are beginning to come into action, and, secondly, what is the real *objectif*, as military men are accustomed to say, of the monarchical union. Who is the enemy in view? Is it France? Is it Russia? Or is the union directed against both France and Russia? This problem deserves a close examination.

FROM LONDON TO AMSTERDAM.—II.

PARIS, September 6, 1883

IN the summer at all events the ride from Ghent to Antwerp is of the dustiest and most disagreeable. The few historic places on the way do not count at all. But Antwerp once in view, one's spirits rise. This indeed is really the only way to approach the fine Flemish capital. From the other side of the Scheldt only does one get a just view of the city, the matchless spire of its cathedral rising high above its neighborhood of picturesque roofs across the broad river, which with its multifarious craft has so often been painted by Clays, and which makes the approach from the Ghent side seem not a little like New York seen from a ferryboat leaving the Weehawken dock. Only with us there is no spire which, *pace* Mr. Upjohn's admirers, Charles V. would have wished encased in glass, or Napoleon compared to Mechlin lace; and, admitting Mr. Quartley as a satisfactory substitute for Clays, the country with us does not—in so far as man has had to do with it—lie so ready-made to the painter's hand. The Antwerp spire is the last thing of Belgium one sees in passing through to Holland; on a second visit at least, of all Belgian things it leaves the most durable impression on the mental retina when once the border is crossed and one feels that he has left the entire category to which it belongs for good and all behind him. And, on a second visit, one misses this deplorably, and one's sensations are in consequence very nearly doleful.

Could an obtuse traveller's ingratitude go further? any one may demand who chooses, and I shall not complain. But it is to be remembered that Holland is *par excellence* the country of first impressions. In that respect it is like everything unique—like Venice, for example. Nowhere else, not even in Venice, does one experience the delight of mere novelty more keenly than on entering Holland for the first time. The landscape is astonishing, no matter how many descriptions one may have read of its wide, incredible flatness, dotted with scores and even hundreds of wind-mills; with sleek black and white cattle and shaggy horses; with long, low white houses, half-hidden in clumps of bushy light-green trees; large sloops and schooners mysteriously wafted to and fro on invisible canals; the immense expanse of sky full of infinite cloud variety, shadows sweeping quickly across the foreground, rain falling in one corner, square miles of yellow grain swaying in the distance, the very essence of light and air everywhere—in a word, the concrete inspiration of Ruisdael and Van Goyen. Everything is intensely characteristic The lack of compromise in this respect—that is, the absence of even the hint of what elsewhere constitutes "scenery," in England, in Italy, in Switzerland, in Catalonia, in Provence—is so positive and complete as to be singularly stimulant and refreshing. One can understand the rise and excellence of the Dutch landscape school: its excellence when its rivals were Claude and Salvator Rosa, and its superiority at the present day, with a competition indigenous to the Rhine valley and "Saxon Switzerland" on the one hand, and the succession to Corot and Rousseau, now wholly given over to the literal, on the other. The "values" of the landscape are so subtle, its elements so few and simple, and its "effects" so delicate, so clear, and so unconventional, that the painter of it has but to copy well to succeed; the qualities of skill and fidelity here take the place of the imagination elsewhere and serve as well.

Could one praise a country more highly? But one feels all this in its acuteness only once, and, as I said, Holland revisited does not at all produce the same effect. There was a reason after all, one reflects, for the unpatriotic self expatriation of Both and Berghem and Swanevelt. They did not succeed too well, to be sure: European galleries in fact are strewn with their "Italian" failures. But undoubtedly they felt, in their indigenous landscape, the same lack that is felt by the returning traveller whose enthusiasm has had time to cool, and who dejectedly realizes that of all countries it is especially true of Holland that it can be seen once only for the first time. It is as fresh, as clear, as green and gray as ever, the vessels are sailing down through the fields, the horizon is as low as before, and there are the same 180 degrees of marvellous clouds; but one no sooner crosses the Hollandsch Diep than he wonders how it is that now for the first time he appreciates the distinct and definitive lack of *charm*. It is all picturesque enough, if you will, but picturesque by paradox, picturesque because it is unfamiliar, unexampled, novel, unique; because there are no conventional standards of measurement and admiration in the negative result of involuntary contrast. At length all that clear and fresh green and gray becomes almost defiantly prim and prosaic. *This* time you perceive that you were mistaken a twelvemonth ago in preferring good prose to even mediocre poetry; and that the latter has at least a superior atmosphere, an atmosphere more or less impregnated with charm.

The prosaic note is everywhere. Belgium is a flat enough country north of Antwerp, and it may seem to the inexperienced as if the transition could hardly be noticeable. But aside from the visible fact that every feature which the two countries possess in common is rapidly accentuated as one moves northward, the way in which a people impresses its characteristics upon even general landscape physiognomy is nowhere better illustrated than on either side of this boundary. The difference between the Flemish and Dutch temperaments will hardly be gainsaid, certainly since the war of separation. In two hours one exchanges a Catholic country for a Protestant, and the difference is immense. For the direct fostering influence which the Catholic church has had on the fine arts there is, to my notion, less than nothing to be said. But it is hardly disputable that indirectly it has been almost a condition of their existence in the modern world. Charging itself exclusively with the consciences of its members, and arranging for these the grand affair of conduct which has absorbed so much Protestant mental activity since the time of Huss, it has indubitably left untrammelled to expand to their utmost the natural energies of its devotees. Can anything more dismal be imagined than the interior of a Dutch church—for example, the Nieuwe Kerk at Amsterdam, justly termed by the guide-book "one of the finest churches in Holland"? Amsterdam itself bears the appellation of "Venice of the North," and it would be ridiculous to assert that it is not an interesting city: it is thoroughly imbued with a kind of prim picturesqueness, full of novelty and features exclusively characteristic, full, too, of that most interesting of all civic characteristics, a varied, actual, modern life, of which indeed Venice, at last feeling the pulsations of united Italy, is only beginning to manifest the signs after its long chrysalis existence as a subject for Mr. Ruskin's threnodies and a museum for his peregrinating pupils. In fact, to a reflecting observer—that is, to the modern observer, the observer to whom the most ethereal flights of fine art appeal in virtue of their illustration of the human mind and spirit instead of as sentimental ministrations to the fancy—the contrast between Venice and Amsterdam in this respect has many points in favor of the northern capital; and a city one-fourth of whose inhabitants are paupers does not in many ways *look* as well (to say nothing of total impression) as one where more or less equally distributed prosperity reigns. Here also, however, one's liking for the Dutch quality is born of contrast rather than positive: and in fifty years (or more, or less), when the new steamers on the Grand Canal are twice as numerous and twice as well stocked with passengers; when the Giardini Pubblichi become a real instead of a nominal resort, and the Lido as popular as Coney Island; when the Riva gives tokens of a visibly profitable commerce, and every steamer between the city and the Giudecca does not hail from Southampton or Trieste; when the crumbling Gothic monuments shall have been definitively restored, and a score of Tintorettos and Titians rescued from the oblivion of damp crypts and gloomy tawdry altars, it will be only with an ironical intention if Amsterdam is still called the "Venice of the North." For this trim, characteristic, and prosperous city has an enormous point of difference from Venice as it is: it lacks charm, and no one needs to be told that Venice is saturated with charm, that it is charm quite as much as being built on piles that renders her unique.

At Amsterdam there is not even taste. It is curious that with us the recently popular architecture, based exclusively on taste and defiant of both the Gothic principle of decorative construction and the Classic theory of felicitous proportions with decorative detail, should have taken Amsterdam as its model; for I suppose Mr. Norman Shaw himself would admit the Dutch origin of his so-called "Queen Anne." A city built of black brick with white or pale yellow (generally wood) "trimmings" illustrates "taste" chiefly from the undertaker's point of view. The inevitable gables provided with block and tackle, for the excellent reason that in a city built on made land the attic must take the place of the cellar as a storehouse (is it not singular that this gable should have become the main feature of "Queen Anne" architecture in a "dry land"?), have a cumulative effect that is the very antithesis of taste. If there is a bit of

stained glass or a church fresco in all Holland, it is not in Amsterdam; there are instead tall clocks and so-called "picturesque," that is, whimsical, domestic furniture. The "Dam" is a fine square, and the Kalverstraat an interesting thoroughfare, but the buildings on the one, notably the Palace, are the last word in clumsiness, and the shop-windows on the other are eloquent of the national genius for the heavy and the awkward; one would not find such shoes in Sixth Avenue, such cutlery in the Bowery, such *articles de vertu* in the Piazza di San Marco, such "insincere" as well as ineffective workmanship in Naples. Yet I have heard the Kalverstraat compared to the Palais Royal. That great attraction, too, of Latin cities (whence the very word urbanity), whose want is supplied in Germany by good nature and in Belgium by geniality—I mean a general and evident amenity—is conspicuous by its absence. Amsterdam is remarkable for the number and excellent management of its charitable institutions, and perhaps this is why there is no overflow, no unorganized surplus of human feeling wasted in the general movement of life in the cafés and along the sidewalks. If you desire to be directed any whither, a casual informant takes the utmost pains to set you right; you are well enough served in the restaurants; officials everywhere discharge their functions in your regard with minute fidelity; but you must have no vague demands to make on the people in general: your needs must be concrete and definitely expressed. You must have no sentimentality to be wounded if fat burghers and dames in metal and lace headdresses crowd you off the little sidewalks, almost upset you in a rush for the tramways, step on your feet when once within, stare at and talk about you at the same time. I remember being forced into the gutter of the Kalverstraat, in company with a lady with whom I was walking, by a couple of officers, one of whom turned, in answer to my look of meek protest, and raised his hat with a curious expression which said plainly, "Ah, yes, you are strangers; you are not used to our ways; you seem to expect street amenity. I am an officer; I ought to have indulged you." And his uniform! The Dutch women's headdresses are pleasing—any survival of old costume jostling the monotony of modern attire is pleasing; but the spectacle obtained by the conjunction of Dutch physiognomy with Dutch taste, civil or military, in the detail of official dress, is grotesque. Fancy a convention of New England deacons dressed as the military contingent in a burlesque.

What gives Amsterdam its paramount and permanent interest is, however, not the fact that it is "the Venice of the North," but its collections of Dutch pictures. There are fine Rembrandts everywhere from Vienna to Madrid; there are lovely De Hooghes in London and Paris; Paul Potter's "Bull" is at the Hague; Franz Hals is at his best in Haarlem; Hobbema is as good in London, and Van der Helst in Florence and New York, where he is at any rate not fatiguing; but nowhere is the Dutch school in its entirety presented so splendidly as Amsterdam presents it in the Rijks Museum, the Museum Van der Hoop, and the collection of Heer Six in the Heerengracht. Every one knows that "The Night Watch" and "The Syndics" and the Six portraits are at Amsterdam, and I am not going to abuse the reader's patience by prating of Rembrandt, nor even to yield to the temptation to confute the many sceptics who maintain that in mellowing the general tone he begged the question of flesh-painting, by insisting a little on that miracle of moist pink and white blondeness, the portrait of Anna Six. The visitor ought to be reminded, however, that to neglect the splendid collection of the master's etchings which is to be seen for the asking at the Rijks Museum, is to lose not only a pleasure, but what is necessary for a complete induction in Rembrandt's case. And I should like to call his particular attention to the perfection to which that most interesting and sympathetic of Rembrandt's followers, Nicholas Maes, brought the expression of his single theme, and to a marvellous figure piece by Van der Meer, of Delft, in the Six collection, which for beauty and grace adjoined to perfect reality might be taken as an epitome of the best that Dutch *genre* affords. As to the De Hooghes in the Van der Hoop Museum, one will only be at a loss to determine his preferences among the four—to decide which one he would exchange for that one in the London National Gallery which has an open-air vista, in order to have the four finest De Hooghes in the world.

Little professional as Fromentin was, and universal as in general his perceptions are, I wish that he had been less a painter in speaking of Pieter De Hooghe, so that he might not have failed to distinguish him from Metzu and Terburg, who have in common with the former nothing but the identity of a superb technic, and no spiritual relationship whatever. Did any one ever mistake an interior by De Hooghe for one by Terburg or Metzu, or indeed by any painter but himself? His rivals have the same technical *cachet*, if you choose, though the difference in personal force makes itself felt even here, but this difference is the main thing, and it is immense; it is the difference between Raphael and Fra Bartolommeo, between Claude and Turner, between—to make a fanciful digression—Reims and Cologne. There is no term for it more definite than spiritual distinction, but that is a quality which however vague is very palpable, and—as one could have said before Ruskin's abuse of the epithet—very precious. What is it but this that endues with such serene charm the little out-of-doors scene in the Van der Hoop Museum? Its elements are those of the simplest *bourgeois* idyl: a low red-brick house with white wooden pilasters and bright red-tiled roof; to the left is a fence, across the top of which inclines a bushy little tree, in whose shade on the hither side sit and stand a group of three persons sipping some drink or other; nearer the house and to the right a sturdy woman bends over a barrel, and beyond, still further to the right, is a fence with an open door disclosing a vista of trees and distance tempered light. The sky is as rich as Dupré would have his, and the color would be resplendent but for the mellow tone arrived at by that observance of "values" which so delights Fromentin; every detail tranquilly transpires "after noon." Contrast with this fusion of poetry and science, of delicate sentiment and consummate skill, the most ambitious of Mr. Alma-Tadema's compositions, or even the most successful effort of Mr. Tadema's master, the late Baron Leys!

But we can cool our enthusiasm equally well by a visit to the International Exposition, which also can very well wait another letter.

W. C. B.

Correspondence.

THE "RESOLUTIONS OF '98."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Mr. George Ticknor Curtis's 'Life of James Buchanan,' as contained in No. 952 of the *Nation*, it is said that "the Kentucky resolutions of 1798 had become the favorite form of expression among all the Southern extremists, because their phraseology was the most explicit and clear as to the alleged constitutional right of secession." And the phrase cited as being explicit and clear to this effect is the clause they contain affirming that, in cases of alleged violation of the Constitution, the several States are "*the judges, not only of the infractions, but of the mode and measure of redress.*" The reviewer expresses the opinion that "no subtilty of sophism has ever been able to rid these words of the whole sweeping doctrine of the disunionists, that, they themselves being the judges of cause, necessity, and policy of secession, the States had each and all the constitutional right to leave the Union when they pleased, and that, once having acted, they were as independent of the Union as if they had never joined it."

The reviewer discriminates clearly enough between the original meaning of these resolutions, as conceived by their authors and supporters at the time of their adoption, and the subsequent construction put upon them by the latter-day disunionists; but I think his language leaves the impression on the mind of the reader that these resolutions do really contain, and were meant to contain, "the whole sweeping doctrine of the disunionists." As my studies in the political history of 1798 have led me to believe that it is only by "the subtilty of sophism" that "the whole sweeping doctrine of the disunionists" was ever deduced from either the Kentucky or the Virginia resolutions of that date, I crave permission to give my reasons for holding this opinion.

Every body knows that the so-called Kentucky and Virginia "resolutions of '98" originated in a plan of political agitation concerted by the Republican leaders of that day for the purpose of creating a public opinion against the alien and sedition laws. Mr. Jefferson has explained to us that these politicians, finding themselves "browbeaten by a bold and overwhelming majority" of the Federalists in Congress, determined "to retire from that field and take a stand in the State Legislatures" (see Jefferson's 'Complete Works,' vol. vii., p. 229).

Pursuant to this plan, Jefferson wrote a series of resolutions defining the position of the Republicans as to those two laws in particular, and as to the principles of constitutional limitation in general. He sent a copy to Mr. Madison, for purposes of mutual advice and consultation, and another copy to Colonel George Nicholas, with a view to their introduction by him into the Legislature of Kentucky. As Colonel Nicholas was not a member of the Kentucky Legislature at that time, he handed the series to Mr. John Breckinridge, by whom the resolutions were submitted to that body. They were passed through both houses with only a few dissenting votes, but not until they had undergone very important modifications, as can be seen by comparing them with the original draft of Mr. Jefferson (Jefferson's 'Works,' vol. ix., p. 464). And by comparing a letter of Mr. Jefferson's to Mr. Madison, under date of November 17, 1798, with another letter on the same subject to Mr. Wilson C. Nicholas, under date of September 5, 1799, the reader will understand the reason why the language of Mr. Jefferson's first draft was toned down in the passage of the resolutions through the Kentucky Legislature (Jefferson's 'Works,' vol. iv., p. 258, and p. 305).

The Virginia resolutions of 1798 were penned by Mr. Madison in Room No. 9, as a well-authenticated tradition asserts, of the old Swan Tavern of Richmond, the "Republican headquarters" of that city. But as Mr. Madison was not a member of the Virginia Legislature of that year, he handed the series to John Taylor, of Caroline County, by whom they were carried through the House of Delegates after a spirited debate, of which we still have the record.

The Federalists of that day, both in Virginia and elsewhere, contended that this whole mode of attack on the two statutes in question was misdirected, and that, in its tendency, it was disorganizing and seditious so far as it impugned the constitutionality of a Federal law in the name of a State; that laws of Congress obnoxious to public censure could be properly and constitutionally opposed in only one or all of the three following ways: (1) by petition for their repeal; (2) by resort to the Federal courts for redress; or (3) by popular initiative in each Congressional district or State, looking to the election of Federal legislators disposed to vote for the repeal of the statutes in question.

The Republicans maintained, on the other hand, that while these three remedies were entirely right and proper as far as they went, they did not exhaust the modes and measures of redress which were otherwise open to the people under the Constitution; that besides them it was competent for a State Legislature (1) to pass resolutions solemnly remonstrating against laws believed to involve an infraction of the Constitution; (2) to instruct its Senators and request its Representatives in Congress to vote for the repeal of such laws; (3) to invite its sister States to coöperate in these efforts to arrest unconstitutional proceedings; (4) to interpose for the arrest of dangerous infractions by inviting its sister States to join in the call for a national convention to revise the Constitution in parts where it had been broken or was found to be weak; and (5) to interpose for the arrest of dangerous infractions by communicating with its sister States in the hope of inducing two-thirds of all the Representatives of the States in Congress to propose amendments which should meet the exigencies of a given situation.

To recapitulate: The Federalists suggested three modes and measures of redress. The Republicans specified five other modes and measures of redress, cutting deeper into the heart of a complication without running the knife outside of the Constitution, and two of these modes looking to that radical measure of redress which requires the joint action of three-fourths of the States, which are certainly "parties to the compact" whenever new constitutional engagements are formed. I have merely summarized these eight modes from the debates of the Federalists and Republicans on the passage of these resolutions through the Virginia House of Delegates.

Having thus got the historical bearings of this question, we are now in a position to understand what the Kentucky resolutions of '98 import on their face, and what they were meant to import when they say that each State, considered as an integral party to the Constitution, has an equal right with all its sister States "*to judge for itself, as well of infractions as of the mode and measure of redress*" which will suffice to meet the demands of a given emergency. It can take its choice among eight modes, all equally within the Constitution; and that the "redress" contemplated by the Kentucky resolutions of '98, whether considered in its "mode" or its "measure," was to be pursued "*in a constitutional manner*" is expressly affirmed by the kindred resolution of '99, when the protest of the preceding year was reiterated in still more trenchant language.

And we are now in a position to understand what this resolution of '99 imports when it says that "*a nullification by those sovereignties* [the States] *of all unauthorized acts done under color of that instrument* [the Constitution] *is the rightful remedy.*" All idea of force or of revolution or of disunion must here be eliminated from the meaning of the word "nullification"; for no other "nullification" is admissible under the express terms of the resolution than such as can be effected "in a constitutional manner." Those who recall how swiftly the case of Chisholm *v.* Georgia, because of the alarm which it spread among the States, led to the adoption of the Eleventh Amendment to the Constitution, will see at least one way in which dangerous principles, even when they have passed the final ordeal of the Supreme Court, can still be "nullified" in a constitutional manner. The South Carolina politicians afterward gave a bad name to the word "nullification," but they first purloined the word and then debased it. On this point I need but cite Mr. Madison's well known letter to Mr. Everett, written in the year 1830.

And we are now, too, in a position to understand what Mr. Madison meant when he wrote, in the Virginia resolutions of '98, that "in case of a deliberate, palpable, and dangerous exercise of other powers, not granted by the compact [the Constitution], the States who are parties thereto have the right, and are in duty bound, *to interpose for arresting the progress of the evil, and for maintaining within their respective limits the authorities, rights, and liberties appertaining to them.*" They are to "interpose" in such a "mode" and in such a "measure" as shall meet the requirements of each crisis, extending even to a reconstruction of the Constitution, should it be necessary. But nothing extra-constitutional and nothing outside of the Union was here intended if Mr. Madison understood the purport of his own language.

And finally we are now in a position to understand how it was that these same Republican leaders of '98 and '99 did but act in simple consistency with their professed principles when they stigmatized secession as "treason." This they did on a notable occasion in the same old Swan Tavern in which the resolutions of '98 had been penned, and only ten years after those resolutions had been promulgated. The occasion was a public banquet then and there given to the Electoral College of Virginia, to celebrate the elevation of Mr. Madison to the Presidency. It was in the month of December, 1808, when the disunion agitation of that day, growing out of opposition to the Embargo Act, was at its height in New England, and was so rife as well as so notorious that a prominent Federalist of Maryland, Mr. A. C. Hanson, could write even two years afterward to Timothy Pickering, of Massachusetts, that in his opinion "if the question was barely *stirred* in New England, some of the States would drop off from the Union like fruit *rotten ripe.*" (See Henry Adams, 'New England Federalism,' p. 382.) As the Electoral College was then in session in Richmond, and as the leading dignitaries of the Republican party were then assembled to celebrate the renewed triumph of their principles, they seized the opportunity to put themselves on record against the new-fangled doctrine of "secession." The quadrennial banquet of the Electoral College was not a merely casual and festive entertainment in Virginia—it was a Virginia "institution" down to the year 1860, the favorite time and place for enunciating political policies and opinions before the country, especially during the continuous period of twenty-four years when the President of the United States was a Virginian. And so on the 8th of December, 1808, among the "regular toasts" provided for the political demonstration of that year, we find the following: "*The Union of the States: the majority must govern: it is treason to secede.*" (See Richmond *Enquirer*, December 10, 1808.) Among the men who drank to that sentiment were the members of the Electoral College, the Madison Corresponding Committee, who had conducted the canvass, the Governor of the State, the President of the State Senate, and many other distinguished Virginians—all stanch supporters of the "resolutions of '98." I find it difficult to conceive that these gentlemen could have drunk to that toast with a decent respect for themselves or for the opinion of their countrymen if they had supposed that those resolutions, whether of the Kentucky or Virginia Legislature, lent any color of pretext to the pernicious dogma of "secession." Whatever else may be said of these men, it has not been common to hold them as merry Andrews and fools, but it is not easy to defend their repute for sobriety and common sense if they committed themselves consciously or unconsciously to the doctrine of secession in 1798, and then ten years afterward denounced it as "treason."

I find, on recurring to the contemporaneous political literature of that day, that the Republicans of Kentucky, equally with the Republicans of Virginia, protested that their resolutions were mere expressions of opinion, designed to be accompanied with no other effect than such as they might produce by exciting reflection and leading to corresponding constitutional action. And while the opponents of the resolutions deprecated them as being of *evil tendency*, because they might possibly lead to the disobedience of the laws in question before they had been repealed, it was nowhere charged by anybody, so far as I can discover, that the resolutions contained, either implicitly or explicitly, the dogmas of "secession" and "nullification," as afterward attempted to be read between their lines by a new race of Southern politicians.

JAMES C. WELLING.

WASHINGTON, October 5, 1883.

[Our correspondent takes no issue with us upon the points actually made in the review, which bore solely upon the doctrines of the disunionists of the Calhoun school, under whose lead the great rebellion occurred. The question, What was the intention of the original framers of the resolutions of '98? is a quite distinct one; but while it was not within the scope of our discussion of the political career of Buchanan, we still think the considerations urged by Mr. Welling do not free the Kentucky resolutions from the meaning which the later disunionists gave them.

The action of the Virginia politicians does not affect the question materially, for the distinction between the two sets of resolutions was notorious. The influence of Madison had kept out of those of Virginia the explicit and trenchant radicalism of those of Kentucky. Yet even then some things must not be forgotten. Taylor, of Caroline County, who introduced the resolutions, had in the same year brought forward a proposition looking to the secession of Virginia and North Carolina, and the formation of a separate confederacy by them. Jefferson's original propositions were such that Madison could not accept them, and greatly modified them in the form introduced by Taylor. The action at the Swan Tavern in 1808, when the embargo was straining the attachment of New England to the Union, only proves how easy it has always been for politicians to change front when their devices have "returned to plague the inventor." Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Delaware, and New York, by action of their Legislatures, all denounced the secessionism of the resolutions of '98, interpreting them in the same sense in which they were understood in 1860.

In the original draft of the Kentucky reso-

lutions, to which our correspondent refers, was one which was in substance the nullification resolution of 1799. It "resolved" that when the general Government assumes powers "which have not been delegated, a nullification of the act is the rightful remedy; that every State has a natural right, in cases not within the compact (*casus non fœderis*) to *nullify of their own authority* all assumptions of powers by others within their limits." There is no real dispute that prudence alone suppressed this resolution in the Kentucky series of 1798, and the following year it was passed, making the whole complete again. The resolution of 1799 was the reply of the anti-Federalists to the indignation which their former resolutions had excited. The distinguished author of the resolutions had acquiesced in temporizing so far as immediate action was concerned. His letter to Madison of November 17, 1798 (Jefferson's 'Works' iv., p. 25), had said: "I enclose you a draft of the Kentucky resolutions. I think we shall distinctly affirm all the principles they contain, so as to hold to that ground in future, and leave the matter in such a train as that we may not be committed absolutely to push the matter to extremities, and yet may be free to push as far as events will render prudent."

If, as Mr. Welling argues, the only intent of the resolutions had been to agitate on lines wholly within the Constitution, the resolutions took a strange way of expressing it. There had been no dispute about the right to do every one of the five things which he enumerates. The real question was quite beyond these: Could a State, regarded as a separate sovereignty, an original party to a compact, nullify that agreement, or laws passed by the Federal Government under it, *without* securing repeal either through Congressional action or Constitutional amendment? The resolutions are utterly empty of meaning if they did not refer to this. Their own language is the most conclusive reply to Mr. Welling's argument. Let us read again the text of the one which we did not take space to quote in full in our review. It said: "Whenever the general Government assumes undelegated powers, its acts are *unauthoritative, void, and of no force;* that to this compact [the Constitution] each State acceded as a State, and is an integral party; that this Government, created by this compact, was not made the exclusive or final judge of the extent of the powers delegated to itself, since that would have made its discretion, and not the Constitution, the measure of its powers; but that, *as in all other cases of compact among parties having no common judge*, each party has an equal right to judge for itself, as well of infractions as of the mode and measure of redress."—Ed. Nation.]

THEORETICAL ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your article on "Theoretical English" (October 11) are one or two references to the reluctance of Germans to accept any help whatever in their English studies from Americans. They prefer to dispense with all assistance, but ours seems to them nearly worthless. Now, their belief that Englishmen know the language better than we do is natural: most of us would rather study German in Hanover than in Pennsylvania. But the belief is a good deal stronger than it would be had our English cousins not taken such extraordinary measures to strengthen it. I lately brought from England a small dictionary, German and English, given me by a German friend long resident there. It was published in Germany in 1861, and is based upon a larger work, both being evidently of English origin. Notice is given that "Americanisms" are italicized, and since a very few of the italicized words and phrases are marked as vulgarisms, the student's inference must be that the rest pass in America for good English. Under the letter "A," in the English-German part, I find *absquatulate, all-fired, amost, argufy* (which it appears that even we know to be a vulgarism), *ary* (for "either"), *awfully* (in the sense of "extraordinarily"), and many others. Elsewhere a brief inspection supplies me with such specimens of "theoretical American" as *flusteration, to flunkify* (to alarm), *nimshi* (an awkward fellow), *plaguy, savagerous, yourn*, etc., etc.

It is unnecessary to say that only two or three of these words are recognized by American lexicographers, even as vulgarisms, and quite as many are as much English as they are American. Of course the work in question gives as Americanisms some which are really such—forms originating here without necessity, or in violation of English analogy, and used by some respectable writers. Many more, however, are words or meanings which we have been compelled to coin in order to represent new objects or ideas. These are our legitimate contribution to the common stock, and are fast becoming everywhere current. Out of seventy-three examples of Yankee-English, however, taken from this small dictionary twenty-four are not to be found in Webster's great one, fifteen are traceable to England, and only nine are recognized by Webster as peculiar to this country. On the last point, indeed, an American can hardly be the final authority; but, if he cannot be good authority about the language in general, then so much the worse for large numbers of Englishmen. On the shelves of the small library, less than forty miles from London, in which I made most of the above-mentioned discoveries about my native *patois*, stood an English edition of Webster's "Unabridged," while on the drawing-room table lay an English pocket edition of Worcester.

I cannot close a letter complaining of a grievance without saying that I brought home, along with this exasperating volume, a heightened admiration for England, and the most grateful and affectionate recollections of Englishmen. A.

ENDOWMENT FOR BIOLOGICAL RESEARCH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your number for this week you notice Professor Lankester's address on the endowment of biological research. His lamentations over the want of pecuniary assistance to science in England are certainly only too well-founded, but his statements and comparisons have a still more emphatic lesson for Americans to learn, because America does far less for biology than England. If, then, England needs $10,000,000 for the adequate endowment of biology alone, how much more pressing is the necessity for an equal sum for the same purpose in the United States, with twice the population of England. Counting physiology, anatomy, pathology, botany, and zoölogy each separately, I cannot make out a list of quite a dozen American biological institutes of active research, and on that list appears the Johns Hopkins laboratory of physiology as the only one which can be said to be both adequately organized and endowed. We must, therefore, look to the future, and turn our hopes not toward the central Government, but toward private munificence. The prosperity of biology in America depends upon the liberality of our wealthy citizens; we cannot appeal to the national treasury as Professor Lankester asks for English public funds, for such an appeal is contrary to all our traditions.

It would be possible now to found an institution for the prosecution of biological research which would be invaluable to the progress of science. With an income of thirty or forty thousand dollars an institute could be carried on which would contribute more to the increase of biological knowledge than is now contributed by all the institutions of the country collectively, excepting *perhaps* the national organizations. This may seem an exaggeration, but mature deliberation has convinced me that this assertion is far within the bounds of a reasonable estimate, provided that the money be spent in salaries for a corps of workers hired solely to investigate, and in the purchase of apparatus and materials for research, and that no money is required to be spent in building or in maintaining a museum. Each worker would then perform his allotted work, employing his highest faculties; no ability would be wasted or overtaxed; the career of discovery would be assured, because there are immense fields of possible knowledge which may be mastered by intelligence and perseverance. The *great* discoveries cannot be promised, because there is no guarantee for genius. Such an institution would in a few years confer vast benefits on mankind and bring honor to the country. It is an ideal which I have thus hinted at; should the plan ever be actually executed, it still would be ideal. All must hope to see American science develop until it may be compared with European science without any longer awakening our shame. I share with others the faith that the time is not far distant when this will be accomplished. Biologist.

October 13, 1883.

CONCERNING PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In England, I understand, the question is still asked, Who reads an American book? In this country, the query is put, in somewhat similar spirit, Who reads a pub. doc.? This is a pertinent and suggestive inquiry.

Unlike any other publisher, the Government looks for no returns in the book business. It is not obliged to take the merchantable quality of its publications into consideration. The issues of the public press are not in the open market until they reach the second-hand bookstores by the usual devious channels. The typical public document is an official "report," of a purely perfunctory character, which may or may not possess any public interest. It is usually prepared in the routine of a public desk to satisfy the ordinary requirements of official machinery. The question whether these requirements could be as well fulfilled by the manuscript report without printing it, is seldom answered, or even asked. Its publication being provided for by law, it is accordingly published, and the final cause of its existence is accomplished when it issues from the public press. A requisition has been properly filled, some tons of books have been duly delivered, and "that job is done."

All except being paid for. The money, of course, comes out of the appropriation, and the contracting officials settle their accounts in due form, finally closing the whole transaction according to law. But the appropriation for printing is drawn from the public funds, and

this is but another name for the people's money. It is the people who pay for the publication at last, and they have to pay for it whether they want it or not. At this stage of the proceedings the Government has placed itself in the position of a publisher who has got up a book by involuntary subscription, and which he may, if he chooses, deliver to some of his subscribers by a method of his own devising, commonly known as the "distribution of public documents." It is true that he sells out his stock at cost; but that is his affair; and everybody knows plenty of books that nobody would have, at cost or at any other price.

The Government has manufactured many a ton of books which it has sold to its subscribers at its own price, and which its subscribers have forthwith sold for what they could get in the paper-mill market—the contents of the same being a profound mystery outside the circle of the faithful and laborious Government proof-readers. It is the old story of the button and the button-hole. The Government button-hole, in books as in many other fabrics, possesses the quality of elasticity to such magical degree that every Government button fits it exactly. Here is the button-hole, in the shape of a certain requisition for printing; and here is the button, in the shape of the required report, which must fit, for it has been "ordered by Congress" to do so. Some buttons, however, are so constituted that they obstinately refuse to fit any imaginable button hole, giving rise to the natural question, What is the use of sewing them on?

It is the buttons of this kind which have so often made misfits of the literary garments of the Government that the public document has been brought into very general disesteem. The vast majority of the books which have issued from the public press are absolutely unknown to the people at large, who have paid for them. "Their names are never heard"; and, on the whole, it is perhaps best that they should await in peace the fate which reduces them to the pulp from which they came. Bearing the Government imprint are also many more books, unfortunately better known, whose names are never mentioned but with derision—books which furnish the never-failing occasion for staple cheap jokes about their whole furnishing, from the nature of their contents up to the quality of the paste with which the covers are stuck on. But these are likewise bought and paid for by the people.

It is not pretended that many publications of no obvious public utility are not both necessary and proper cogs in the machinery of government, nor that the proper authorities in each department are not necessarily the judges of what is required in a given case. If, for instance, they want to issue what are virtually nothing but advertisements, it may be sound business policy to do so, as long as the appropriation holds out. But it should never be forgotten whose money is being spent.—Very truly yours,

ELLIOTT COUES.

WASHINGTON, Oct. 6, 1883.

Notes.

PROFESSOR BAIRD'S Smithsonian Report for 1881 has just been printed. In addition to the report proper, this volume serves the function of a scientific annual in its summary reviews, by various experts, of the year's progress in astronomy, chemistry, botany, meteorology, physics, zoölogy, and anthropology; while the appendix is still further enriched with miscellaneous papers on the last-mentioned topic (American aboriginal, wholly), and by a history of the Smithsonian exchanges.

'A Sylvan City' (Fords, Howard & Hulbert) consists of fifteen papers, of a magazine lightness, all relating to Philadelphia, and all derived from *Our Continent*, in which they originally appeared. Some of them, perhaps many (six are from one hand), were written by those not to the manner born, and the defects of superficiality are superadded. However, for popular reading too much must not be exacted, and these sketches of Penn, of Franklin, of Girard, of the early churches, the libraries, the post-office, the old houses, the hospitals and medical schools, etc., have a readability and a connection which justify the experiment of binding them up together. The illustrations were certainly worth repeating.

After the publication in October of his 'Old-World Idylls,' which, as we have already announced, is substantially identical with the American edition of 'Vignettes in Rhyme,' Mr. Austin Dobson will begin to collect his later poems, to be published some time next year under the alluring title, 'At the Sign of the Lyre.'

A new edition of 'Plato's Best Thoughts, compiled from Professor Jowett's Translation,' by Professor Bulkley, of Howard University (Charles Scribner's Sons), gives proof of two facts: first, of the popularity of Professor Jowett's translation, and, secondly, of the continually increasing interest in the writings of Plato, to which we lately called attention in our note on Professor Campbell's edition of the 'Theætetus.' The present volume contains about one-fifth of Plato's works. The extracts are arranged alphabetically according to subjects, commencing with "Ability and strength, difference between," and ending with "Zeal, right or wrong." Quite frequently an extract seems to us to be placed under an unsuitable head; but this defect, if it exists, is almost entirely remedied by the great abundance of cross-references. With the aid of these the reader can hardly fail to get a good idea of the best that Plato has said upon almost every subject mentioned. Books of "extracts" and "beauties" are necessarily fragmentary, and in most cases unsatisfactory and tiresome. Professor Bulkley has on the whole done his work with judgment and taste, and his compilation will prove interesting to most persons whose thoughts sometimes rise above dollars and dimes. What the classical scholar will perhaps miss most is the ineffable grace with which Plato, in the opening passages of his dialogues, introduces the interlocutors to the reader, and the skill and vividness with which he pictures the external circumstances which led to the discussion. In the dialogues of Plato more than anywhere else one gets a clear idea of the manners of cultured and refined Athenian gentlemen in their intercourse with each other. However, no one can read a few pages of this book without afterward turning over their contents in his mind; and this in itself is a great good.

It is seldom that we feel called upon to express unqualified approbation of a text-book for schools; but Mr. Robert P. Keep's edition of 'The Iliad of Homer, Books I.–VI.' (Boston: John Allyn) leaves so little room for fault-finding that we shall not attempt any. Facing the title-page is a beautiful facsimile of a page of the Codex Venetus A (13x10 inches), the most important MS. of the 'Iliad.' The introduction gives a very good summary of the results of the investigations of modern scholars as to the origin and mode of transmission of the Homeric poems; and, though necessarily brief, it will yet inform the student of what many quite recent text-books of the 'Iliad' do not, that there is such a thing as "the Homeric question," and impart some idea of its nature and the different answers which have been given to it. The sections on the structure and scansion of Homeric verse, on the dialect of Homer, and the commentary generally show a nice appreciation of what a student needs and ought to have. Altogether, the book is very handsome and very scholarly, and we have no doubt will prove very useful. Its material, make-up, and general appearance are a credit to the publisher.

Two reports by Prof. H. W. S. Cleveland, of Chicago, on possible park improvements in Providence, R. I., and in Minneapolis are full of suggestiveness and value for the residents and municipal authorities of other cities also. In Providence, Mr. Cleveland's treatment of "the Cove" would remove a source of danger by diverting sewage from that basin; while in Minneapolis his proposed boulevards he expressly urges as a protection against fire. Any one familiar with the localities in question must approve the main features of Mr. Cleveland's solution of what, in Providence at least, is a tolerably complex problem.

"The Folk-Lore of Yucatan" forms the subject of an interesting paper by Dr. D. G. Brinton in the *Folk-Lore Journal* for August. The native imagination revels in a singular variety of supernatural and malevolent beings, conspicuous among whom are the not unpoetic Balams, or gods of the cardinal points and of the winds and rains that proceed from them.

To match the series of delightful little volumes in which Mr. David Douglas, of Edinburgh, has presented to the British public what will in time be a complete edition of Mr. Howells's writings, Macmillan & Co. announce an 18mo edition of Mr. Henry James's novels and tales, to be contained in fourteen volumes, of which the 'Portrait of a Lady' will fill three, 'Roderick Hudson' and the 'American' two each, 'Washington Square,' 'Confidence,' and the 'Europeans' one each, while the remaining volumes contain the shorter stories, 'Daisy Miller,' the 'International Episode,' the 'Siege of London,' the 'Madonna of the Future,' etc.

Uniform with the Breakfast-Table series of Dr. Holmes and with the tales and travels of Mr. Howells, Mr. Douglas has issued Miss Howard's 'One Summer,' Mr. Burroughs's 'Winter Sunshine,' Mr. Stockton's 'Rudder Grange,' and Mr. Cable's 'Old Creole Days.' To these he will add at once Mr. Cable's 'Madame Delphine,' Mr. Burroughs's 'Locusts and Wild Honey,' Mr. Curtis's 'Prue and I,' and two other volumes not yet announced in America, Mr. Stockton's 'The Lady or the Tiger, with other Stories,' and Mr. Joel Chandler Harris's 'Mingo and Other Stories.' Altogether, this collection of American authors is one which Americans may contemplate with satisfaction. They are all published by arrangement with the authors.

Mr. Julian Hawthorne's 'Fortune's Fool' is published in London by Chatto & Windus; and as his other tales are included in the series of "Piccadilly Novels" issued by this firm, Mr. Hawthorne bids fair, like Mr. James and Mr. Howells, to have an English edition of his works.

The Paris daily newspaper, *Le Temps*, is now publishing, as a serial in its *feuilleton*, translations of stories by Mr. John Habberton, under the general title "Chez les Yankees."

The latest of M. Jules Claretie's contributions to the entertaining little series of 'Célébrités Contemporaines' are brief biographies of the late Jules Sandeau; of M. Paul Deroulède, the fiery patriotic poet of *la revanche;* of M. Ludovic Halévy; of M. François Coppée, the poet of modern life in Paris; and of M. Édouard Pailleron, the happy author of 'Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie,' who is about to be received into the French Academy, to which he was elected by the votes of some of those whom he was supposed to have satirized in that very lively and suc-

cessful comedy. The portraits, which accompany every biography, have greatly improved of late; the facsimiles of MS. are interesting at all times.

Polybiblion for September begins a bibliography of the Comte de Chambord, or of Chambordism, as we might say, bringing it down to 1839. It promises to be sufficiently voluminous.

An interesting discovery is reported from Munich. The bookseller Karl Fr. Meyer, in cataloguing the library that formerly belonged to the Carthusian monastery at Buxheim, found two leaves of a manuscript written upon parchment serving as fly-leaves to an early-printed book. On examination they turned out to be fragments of 'King Rother,' written toward the end of the thirteenth century. There are about 400 lines, belonging to a part of the poem of which hitherto only one manuscript was known. The newly-found text differs considerably from its predecessor, the Heidelberg manuscript, furnishing not merely various readings, but some new lines, and also omitting some.

—A manual or text-book upon the "Science of Food," on a plan drawn up by the late Sir Henry Cole, of the South Kensington Museum, has just been compiled by his eldest daughter, who presents herself to the public under the initials of L. M. C. The little volume is a model of clever arrangement and happy selection. It gives us chapters on food and its composition; food, its nutritive value; food and its functions; food and its selection; and provides further a series of questions on these vital subjects, somewhat similar to those set by the British Home Government in the "Food" branch of its teachings in Domestic Economy. Miss Cole has compiled her work from the best sources of information in the English language. Professor Huxley, Charles Darwin, Sir H. Thompson, and sundry physiologists lend their authority, and various official journals, guides, and inventories are quoted; while on the specially interesting subject of "Food and its selection," or, in plainer terms, 'marketing," Miss Cole has called to her aid five first-class West End tradesmen of London (their names are immortalized in the preface), dealing in fish and venison, butchers' meat, poultry and game, butter and cheese, and greengrocery. The text-book will repay careful reading; but there is an addendum on teaching cookery in schools, by the Rev. Newton Price, which we commend to the disciples, scattered far and wide, of Miss Parloa, Miss J. Corson, and other ladies concerned in advancing our culinary education, and causing "every-day cookery" to be added to the curriculum of our public seminaries. "In the Watford Health School, the time for dinner is half-past twelve, when about ten persons sit down to the meal—the teacher, the cooks, the cleaners, and as many more as are required to furnish the table with guests. *Each child who dines pays two pence (four cents)!* The teacher is expected to provide dinners the cost of which will not exceed three pence per head (six cents), and, as a matter of fact, for eight years this rate has never been exceeded." The trifling "loss on food" during the year did not quite reach $24, for which, with the $45 returned in dinner fees, 1,174 dinners were provided.

—The compulsory deposition of books in the National Library rests in France upon a different basis from the American. The Library of Congress receives one copy to serve as a proof of the publication of the book, and another copy as in a way a testimony of gratitude to the Government for maintaining the copyright. In France it is based on the necessity of police surveillance of literature. M. Georges Picot has written a pamphlet in which he proposes a third and better foundation for the practice so much complained of by publishers—the principle of the preservation of literary monuments and of scientific utility. *Polybiblion* points out that there are certain questions to be considered which M. Picot has not touched upon. Must everything printed be deposited? The number will be enormous. If not everything, who shall weed out the unnecessary part? Shall only what is published be deposited, or everything that is printed? If the latter, what is to be done when only one copy is printed? *Polybiblion* proposes to except *billoquets*, which we suppose to mean circulars, advertisements, billheads, commercial cards—matter that is neither literature nor science; and to claim the three copies from the author, giving him a right to collect them gratis from the publisher. The author, it thinks, for his own fame, now and with posterity, and from his desire to be useful in the world, would be much more likely to attend scrupulously to the deposit. To us it seems that a business man is more likely to attend in all cases to a business operation to which he is habituated, and the omission of which would bring a penalty upon him, than the often careless author, who may not know that he has anything to do, and usually will not know how to do it.

—Among Parisian journalists of the more pronounced Parisian type, no one is better known than M. Albert Wolff, one of the stars of the *Figaro*. M. Wolff is a Parisian of the Parisians, and his wit has the very latest boulevard flavor, and yet he is not even a Frenchman by birth. He is an imported Parisian, born in Germany, just as Fiorentino, another typical Parisian journalist, was an Italian. In the last century Grimm and Galiani were Frenchmen from Germany and Italy, just as Antony Hamilton, still a century earlier, was an Englishman. M. Wolff, even now that he is a Parisian and the chief writer of *chroniques* in the *Figaro*, and its art critic, does not seem to the profane outsider a very important or a very remarkable person. But in the eyes of M. Gustave Toudouze he is a great man indeed, and so M. Toudouze has devoted a volume of 368 substantial pages to M. Wolff's birth and youthful struggles and final success, his sayings and doings, the calumnies against him, and his propensity for gambling. The book is called 'Albert Wolff: histoire d'un chroniqueur parisien' (Paris: Favard; New York: F. W. Christern); and when he received it we incline to believe that M. Wolff longed for a chance to wring M. Toudouze's neck. M. Toudouze is not as humble or as skilful as Boswell, although he is perhaps quite as admiring; and M. Wolff is not a Johnson; and the result is that M. Toudouze in the best of faith makes a pitiful exhibition of M. Wolff in particular and of Parisian journalism in general. Almost the only thing of interest in the book is the assertion that M. Wolff, in conjunction with his friend M. Ernest Blum, was the author of the 'Memoirs of Thérèsa,' the comic singer—a book which had an enormous vogue in the latter days of the Second Empire. Prefixed to the volume is a portrait of M. Wolff, etched by M. Bastien-Lepage, which makes M. Wolff almost as unpleasant physically as M. Toudouze has shown him to be morally.

—A very curious conjectural emendation is proposed by M. Clermont-Ganneau in the *Revue Critique*. In the mediæval representations of the crucifixion of Christ, the soldier who pierces the side with a lance is often labelled Longinus, and the person who holds up a sponge dipped in vinegar at the end of a reed is labelled Stefaton or Stephaton or Stepiton. Now it has already been suggested that the name Longinus, *i. e.*, ΛΟΓΓΙΝΟΣ, is a misinterpretation of ΑΟΓΧΗΝ, a lance. M. Clermont-Ganneau suggests that ΣΤΕΦΑΤΟΝ is derived in the same way from ΣΠΟΓΓΗΝ, a sponge, the accusative form being used as in the case of λόγχην. The resemblance is not striking, yet if the two words be written one above the other, it will be seen that the eye of an ignorant or hasty copyist might well make a mistake. As a name, Stefaton is otherwise unknown, and it is difficult to see whence these names of the soldiers could have come if not from some such misunderstanding of the labels explaining the objects which they bore. M. Clermont-Ganneau does not stop here, but suggests that the name of the good robber Dysmas, who appears as a saint in the calendar of the Eastern Church, comes from the last word of the phrase εἰς τὰς δυσμάς, indicating the direction in which the face of Christ was turned, a matter about which there was a long controversy in the early church. The rest of the phrase (εἰς τὰς) he supposes to have been separated from the last part by the cross of Christ, and so to have been taken for the name of the robber on the right, ΕΙCΤΑC giving rise to the various forms in which the name is now found, ΕΤΕΓΑC, ΓICΤΑC, ΓΕΥCΤΑC, ΓΕCΤΑC.

—In No. 925 of the *Nation* we presented to our readers the grounds on which M. Naville, the Egypt Exploration Fund traveller, founded his identification of Pithom, the store city of Exodus, with the present Tell el-Maskhuta, near Ismailia. We alluded to the exultation with which the explorer reported his success, and to the hope of future revelations which the Honorary Secretary of the Fund based on the discovery, in the firm belief that the former had "found the very walls on which the enslaved Hebrews worked." We thought this hope to be a little too sanguine, and the belief exaggerated, even "if the identification is fully confirmed." Mr. Poole, however, and his learned colleague, Miss Amelia B. Edwards—as their frequent communications on the subject showed—continued to be enthusiastic about M. Naville's archæological achievement. And so was Professor Sayce, who is generally carried away by the faintest plausibility of a find in the obscure fields of Semitic or cognate research. "Menephtah," the latter wrote in the *Academy* of September 1, "whom Egyptologists . . . have long believed to have been the Pharaoh of the Exodus, . . . is now proved to have been so by M. Naville's recent excavations on the site of Pithom." Professor Lepsius, of Berlin, however, an Egyptologist of an entirely different calibre, was far from seeing things "proved" where there were only sufficient grounds for a conjecture worthy of examination. And, considering the conjecture carefully, he found that there were strong reasons for rejecting it, and he stated them in the last number of the *Zeitschrift für ägyptische Sprache und Alterthumskunde*. To this refutation of M. Naville's arguments Mr. Poole attempted a reply in the *Academy* of September 22; but the extreme weakness of his position is shown by his being driven to assume —"supposing the authority of the Itinerary [of Antoninus] to be of equal weight with the mentions of Pi-tum found by M. Naville in the scanty monuments of Tel-el-Maskhutah," which, we must say, few will doubt—"that there was a city called Pithom at either extremity of the Nome" in question, and thus "Tel-el-Maskhutah would . . . still represent the Pithom of Exodus." To Mr. Poole "the existence of two Pithoms within twenty-four Roman miles of each other presents no difficulty, for one would be specially designated, as in parallel cases." Such really parallel cases he ought to have pointed out.

TAYLOR'S ALPHABET.—II.

The Alphabet: an Account of the Origin and Development of Letters. By Isaac Taylor, M.A., LL.D. Vol. I. Semitic Alphabets; Vol. II. Aryan Alphabets. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1883. 2 vols. 8vo.

AFTER devoting a very interesting chapter to a discussion of the primitive form of the alphabet, the names and the phonetic powers of its various letters, and the order in which they were arranged, our author proceeds to give an elaborate account of the Phœnician alphabet, properly so called. Of this venerable alphabet there is only a single representative left in the line of direct descent, the Samaritan, "the sacred script of the few families who still keep alive the old life of Israel on the site of Sechem, and still worship, as of old, on Mount Gerizim." With this exception, it has become extinct, and is only known to us by inscriptions, of which several hundred have been discovered thus far. They can be divided into two distinct classes by easily recognized variations in the shape of certain letters, which form two well-marked alphabetic types. To the oldest of these the provisional name of the Moabite has been given (but for this the more comprehensive substitute of the Tyrian is suggested by the author), and to the second that of the Sidonian. The monuments belonging to the first, or Tyrian, epoch are exceedingly few, of which by far the most important is the celebrated Moabite Stone, or the inscription of King Mesha. This was discovered, in 1868, on the site of Dibon, the ancient capital of the land of Moab, and what portions of it have been preserved are now in the Louvre. It gives an account of the revolt of Mesha, King of Moab, against Jehoram, King of Israel, and can be referred with great precision to the year 890 B. C. Although so venerable a record, it is surpassed in antiquity by the inscriptions upon certain fragments of the sacred brass vessels belonging to the temple of Baal on Mount Lebanon, which were discovered in 1876 by M. Clermont-Ganneau, and are now in the cabinet of antiquities of the National Library at Paris. Upon sufficiently strong grounds, these have been assigned to the beginning of the tenth century, or possibly to the end of the eleventh. Inscriptions written in the second, or Sidonian, type of the Phœnician alphabet are very numerous. The most important is the inscription on the magnificent sarcophagus of Eshmunazar, King of Sidon, now one of the glories of the Louvre, to which the probable date of the fifth century B. C. has been assigned. From all the varied materials that have come down to our day the history of the alphabet of Phœnicia has been constructed, beginning with the reign of Solomon and ending with a coin struck at Tyre during the reign of Antoninus Pius, in the year 153 of the Christian era. After a brief account of the Punic alphabet—a direct descendant of the Phœnician, whose inscriptions, though numerous, possess comparatively little interest—the history of the development of its other offshoot, the Hebrew alphabet, is given with more detail. This has been rendered possible by the accidental discovery, so recently as June, 1880, of an inscription in the ancient tunnel which conveys water to the Pool of Siloam, and which, it is agreed, must be placed somewhere between the eighth and the sixth centuries. Thus a monument of the early Hebrew alphabet of unimpeachable authenticity and unrivalled in antiquity has been added to the little that previously was actually known of the ancient alphabet of Israel.

Herodotus tells us that "the Phœnicians introduced into Greece the knowledge of letters," and this, the universal belief of the ancient world, is fully confirmed by internal evidence. The names, the number, the order, and the forms of the letters of the primitive Greek alphabet attest its Semitic origin. Of this archaic alphabet our knowledge has been obtained by a series of inscriptions, upward of ten thousand in number, the earliest to which a definite date can be assigned having been discovered not in Greece, or in any of the numerous seats of Hellenic culture, but in the remote Nubian desert, almost beyond the confines of ancient civilization. Upon the colossal portrait-statues which Rameses the Great carved in the front of the stupendous cave-temple constructed at Abu Simbel, at a time when the Hebrews were still toiling in Egyptian bondage, certain Greek mercenaries in the service of Psammetichus, one of the kings of the twenty-sixth dynasty, toward the end of the seventh century B. C., inscribed a record of their visit in five precious lines of writing. These the dry Nubian atmosphere has left in almost their pristine sharpness, and they afford the first unassailable standing-ground for constructing the history of the early alphabet of Greece.

The Cadmean legend, according to which Cadmus, the Tyrian—in Semitic speech, "the man of the East"—sailed for Greece in search of Europa, the damsel who personified "the West," must be regarded as an eponymic myth referring to the exploration of western lands by eastern navigators. This legend designates the island of Thera as the earliest site of Phœnician colonization in the Ægean, and there inscriptions have been found in which, though the language is Greek, the forms of the letters are of the most primitive Phœnician type. So Thera may be regarded as the first spot of European soil on which words were written. Its modern name is Santorin, and it is an extinct volcano, whose crater, partially submerged, forms an excellent land-locked harbor. Two ancient cemeteries, half-buried beneath the ashes of some eruption of long ago, have yielded upward of twenty inscriptions, traced upon blocks of basalt, which contain the names of the Dorian settlers whose graves they cover. They extend over the whole period during which the change in the direction of writing took place. The older records are written in horizontal lines from right to left. Somewhat later we find a curved script running round the margin of the stone. This was succeeded by the *boustrophedon* writing, in which the lines proceed alternately from right to left and from left to right, as oxen, when ploughing, draw the alternate furrows in opposite directions. Finally came the more convenient habit of writing from left to right. The inscriptions from Thera exhibit better than any others the early form and the progressive evolution of the Cadmean alphabet. From other regions, especially from Athens, a few records have been obtained belonging to the same primitive period.

While Thera is claimed as the site of the first Phœnician colony, yet the Cadmean legend gives to Bœotia the glory of having been the birthplace of letters in Greece. Still, it so happens that no very ancient inscriptions have come to light in that country. The oldest monuments of Greek epigraphy which have been found on Hellenic soil, bearing a definite date, are inscriptions on the pedestals of the statues which lined the sacred way leading to the temple of Apollo at Branchidæ, near Miletus. Several of these are now in the British Museum, bearing various dates ranging over a considerable portion of the sixth century B. C. These belong not to the primitive alphabet, but to one of the local varieties—the Ionian—which mark the second stage in its history, and which may be designated as the Epoch of Transition. This began in the seventh century, and lasted to the close of the fifth, and in this period we have several important dated monuments exclusively of Ionian origin. It is not till the middle of the fifth century that we have any dated monuments belonging to any of the Western types, but these are of the very highest interest. Among them are the names of the allied states of Hellas, inscribed on the coils of the three-headed bronze serpent which supported the gold tripod, dedicated to the Delphian Apollo, 476 B. C., from the Persian spoils of the victory at Platææ. This famous monument was transported to Byzantium by Constantine the Great, and still stands in the Hippodrome at Constantinople. Of almost equal interest is the bronze Etruscan helmet, now in the British Museum, which was dedicated to the Olympian Zeus by Hiero I., King of Syracuse, in commemoration of the great victory off Cumæ, in which he destroyed the naval supremacy of the Etruscans. This battle was fought in the year 474 B. C., and is celebrated in an ode of Pindar. These two inscriptions serve as epigraphic standards to fix the dates of some very important undated monuments, among which are treaties between different states of Greece. The third epoch witnessed the emergence, through the action of the law of the survival of the fittest, of the classical alphabets of European culture—the Ionian and the Italic. The former of these was adopted by the Athenians by a formal decree, passed in the archonship of Euclid, 403 B. C., which ordained that the old Attic alphabet should be replaced in all public documents by the Ionian, which was already in literary use in many parts of Hellas. This Ionian alphabet has been the source of the Eastern scripts—the Romaic, the Coptic, the Slavic, and others. Of the Italic, which became the parent of the modern alphabets of western Europe, we will proceed to speak at somewhat greater length.

Probably about the ninth century B. C. there came colonies from Chalcis, in Eubœa, to Sicily and to Cumæ and Naples, in central Italy, bringing with them their own local type of alphabet, from which the various national alphabets of the Italic peoples derived their origin. These were the Etruscan, the Umbrian, the Oscan, and the Latin, which, owing to political causes, finally displaced the others. This primitive alphabet, used by the first settlers, may be conveniently designated the "Pelasgic"; and in the so-called "abecedaria" of Formello, Cære, and Colle we are furnished with authentic examples of it. These are alphabets scratched upon children's cups and buried with them in their graves, or painted in large letters upon the walls of rock-hewn tombs, as in the case of Colle, near Siena. This was discovered so long ago as 1698, but only the first sixteen letters could be deciphered, the rest having faded away. But in 1836 there was found at Cervetri, the ancient Cære, a little village on the coast midway between Rome and Civitavecchia, an ancient tomb, containing among other objects a small vase of plain black ware, now preserved in the Vatican, in the Museo Gregoriano. Round its base is engraved an alphabet almost complete, and on the body of it is rudely scratched a syllabary with various blunders and erasures. "Few more curious relics have come down to us from the ancient world than this insignificant 'Pelasgic ink-pot,' which probably formed the alphabet and primer of the child, in whose tomb it must have lain some five-and-twenty centuries." So late as 1882 another vase of black ware, in the shape of an amphora, was discovered in a tomb at Formello, near Veii, bearing an Etruscan inscription of ownership, together with a syllabary, and the Greek alphabet twice repeated. These two alphabets are of unique interest, as they contain archaic forms of every one of the

twenty-two primitive Phœnician letters, arranged precisely in the order in which they stand in the Semitic alphabet, while at the end are appended four additional signs of Greek origin. Besides these abecedaria, two others have been discovered giving a purely Etruscan form of the alphabet.

Upon the question of the origin of the Etruscan alphabet the opinion of scholars has been much divided. By some its peculiarities have been referred to the immediate influence of Greek potters, who immigrated into the country, the Eucheir and Eugrammos, the "Fine-Hand" and "Skilful Pencil" of ancient legend; others find the solution in a direct derivation from the Phœnician. If, however, we confine ourselves to the lapidary characters, its Chalcidian origin can hardly be gainsaid. In regard to the origin of the Latin alphabet, its Chalcidian affinities were first pointed out by Otfried Müller, and they have been recognized by Mommsen, and finally established by Kirchoff. As the alphabet of Rome, it became the alphabet of Latin Christendom and the literary alphabet of Europe. Although essentially identical with the Greek, seven of its letters differ more or less in their forms, three in their values and three in position; two, which became obsolete in Greek, were retained in Latin, and one new letter, G, was evolved. Like the Greek, the Latin alphabets are divided into four styles—capitals, uncials, cursives, and minuscules. Of the Roman capital letters, examples in use as early as the third century B. C. are to be seen in the well-known inscriptions upon the tombs of the Scipios now in the Vatican, and their form is practically the same as that now used by printers. The uncials were a formal book-hand, clear and legible, used by the professional scribes. The letters are not so square or so upright as in lapidary script; the forms are somewhat rounded, and have usually a slight inclination of the vertical strokes. The third script was a careless and rather irregular cursive character, employed for private letters and for keeping accounts. In 1875 a remarkable discovery was made at Pompeii of 132 wax tablets (*libelli*) written in this ancient cursive hand, and containing the business accounts of a banker, L. Cæcilius Jucundus, for the years 55 and 56 A. D. From a combination of the uncial and cursive scripts there sprung in the ninth century a new character, the minuscule, which became the book hand of the future.

Our author now enters upon the vast domain of Greek and Latin palæography, which of itself has become the subject of a copious literature, epitomizing briefly the history of the various mediæval alphabets, both in the East and the West, giving a short account of the most important manuscripts, and pointing out the landmarks of palæographic science, and finally referring the student to all the latest and best authorities. In fact, throughout this work we have noticed that great pains is taken everywhere to give a complete bibliography of the subject in hand. A variety of national scripts arose with the establishment of the Teutonic kingdoms upon the ruins of the Roman Empire. The most important of these were the Merovingian, the Lombardic, and the Visigothic, to which must be added the Irish, the most magnificent of all mediæval scripts, and which exercised a profound influence on the later alphabets of Europe. From a combination of the two great schools of caligraphy, the Roman and the Irish, arose the Anglo-Saxon script, the precursor of the so-called "Caroline minuscule," which was developed in the ninth century by the famous Alcuin, of York, the friend and preceptor of Charlemagne. This was the parent of the "Roman" alphabet in which our books are now printed, and which does not vary appreciably from the forms of the types used at Subiaco, Rome, and Venice by the Italian printers of the fifteenth century. But in the intervening centuries there had gradually crept in a deterioration in the art of writing, which resulted in the development, in the fourteenth century, of the Gothic, or black-letter, character. This was imitated by the first printers in their movable types, and these barbarous forms are still essentially retained by the Teutonic nations, though discarded by the English and the Latin races. But, from its superior excellences, the Roman alphabet is constantly extending its range, and it bids fair to become ultimately the sole alphabet of the future.

We have no space to follow our author further in his studies of the various Iranian and Indian alphabets, nor even in his interesting narrative of the development of the different alphabets of Hellenic origin, such as the Coptic, the Slavonic, the Albanian, and especially the mysterious Ogham characters of the ancient Irish. But we feel bound to notice briefly his discovery of the real origin of the Runic characters of northern Europe, as this appears to us to be his most important original contribution to knowledge.

In the Scandinavian lands there are to be found multitudes of inscriptions in the ancient alphabet of the Norsemen, which is called the Runic, and similar records occur over all the different regions that were overrun or settled by them, like the valley of the Danube or the British Isles. The oldest of them probably date as far back as the second century A. D., and they continued in use as late as the fourteenth. The alphabet goes by the name of the Futhorc, from the names of the first six letters, and, like the abecedaria, there have been found examples in which all the twenty-four letters occur in their regular order. Runes of different periods and countries exhibit considerable differences, but they can all be classified in three main divisions, the Gothic, the Anglian, and the Scandinavian, the primitive type being the Gothic. The numerous monuments bearing Runic inscriptions prove that the Scandinavian races were in possession of a definite and well-established alphabet before their dispersion began, but it differs so greatly from every known type that the question as to its origin has been a fruitful source of conjecture and controversy. The theory of Lenormant, that the Runes originated out of a Semitic alphabet transmitted by Phœnician merchants, is supported by no valid arguments, and the only possible sources left must be Hellenic or Italian. The Latin origin, though it has been strenuously advocated, is open, in Mr. Taylor's opinion, to very serious objections, geographical, chronological, and phonological. The Runes were unknown to the Teutonic tribes who came into early contact with the Romans, and yet this theory requires that they should have been transmitted from Gaul to the Baltic without leaving behind any trace of their passage. Not less formidable is the chronological difficulty; for the Runes date from the early empire, and this does not allow sufficient time to account for the differences which distinguish the characters from the Latin alphabet. Moreover, although the Latin alphabet offers easy prototypes for several of the characters, it affords no explanation for the origin of many others, which, however, can be explained without difficulty as derivatives from letters peculiar to Greece. Thus the Greek source remains the only possible hypothesis, and our author proceeds to a careful study of the manner in which the transmission may have taken place.

From the fourth century B. C. on, the Goths were in occupation of the region south of the Baltic and east of the Vistula, and in direct commercial intercourse with the Greek traders, who had long been established at Olbia, with whom they bartered the amber and furs of the north for the precious metals and various objects of Greek manufacture. Material evidences of this ancient commerce are common, such as the hoards of early Greek coins that have been dug up at Bromberg, in Posen, on the Lower Vistula, and near Kiev, on the Dnieper. Nor are other proofs wanting of the influence of Greek civilization in this region. From the Greek traders at Olbia the Goths could as readily have obtained a knowledge of the Greek alphabet as the Greeks themselves gained it from the Phœnicians. The probable date of this first acquaintance with letters goes as far back as the sixth century B. C. This is shown both by the forms of the Runic letters and by the fact that many of the oldest Runic inscriptions are either retrograde or boustrophedon in direction. The standard Greek alphabet of the fifth century does not supply so satisfactory prototypes for the Runes as does the earlier alphabet, which prevailed in Thrace and the Greek colonies on the Euxine during the sixth century, just before the commencement of the Persian war. In this certain forms were retained which afterward disappeared, and these peculiarities have been transmitted to the Runes. By his minute and technical study of all the individual Runic characters, and by the skilful manner in which he has pointed out the various changes they under went in the course of their evolution, and in the order of their arrangement, the author has produced a result so satisfactory that his arguments have met with general acceptance among scholars, including several who had previously advocated some other solution.

Here we must take leave of this valuable and interesting work, with the most hearty commendation of the talent, the learning, and the industry of the author, which have bestowed upon the world of letters a gift calculated to lighten the toil of succeeding generations of scholars.

RECENT POETRY.

THE poetry of the last season has been, like the season itself, cool and dry, with occasional impulses of extreme heat. The jets of warmth are not communicated, strange to say, by Mr. Swinburne, who comes before us in his 'Century of Roundels' (New York: Worthington) singing chastely and sweetly, but somewhat monotonously, the delights of parental affection and the charms of childhood. The roundel is, to our thinking, fitter for an occasional relish than for human nature's daily food, and the hundredth repetition of it must become cloying to any one. Yet this is Mr. Swinburne's whim, and he must have his way. But since a child is the most genuine thing in the universe, the poetry which would describe a child must not be weakened by a touch of affectation; and as there is nothing so endless as the variety in a child's life, it is a mistake to imprison it in a series of roundels. Nothing can be prettier than the following:

> "A little way, more soft and sweet
> Than fields adown with May,
> A babe's feet venturing scarce complete
> A little way.
>
> "Eyes full of dawning day
> Look up for mother's eyes to meet
> Too blithe for song to say,
>
> "Glad as the golden spring to greet
> Its first live leaflet's play,
> Love, laughing, leads the little feet
> A little way" (p. 55).

It is no wonder that Mr. Swinburne wishes to claim Catullus as his "brother" (p. 89), recalling, doubtless, a grace which even he cannot equal in that delicious description by the Roman poet:

"Torquatus volo parvulus
Matris e gremio suæ
Porrigens teneras manus
Dulce videat ad patrem
Semihiante labello."

But it is really a pleasure to see a man of Mr. Swinburne's genius appearing at last clothed and in his right mind; and we cannot wish him back in his period of outlawry.

Nor can we find any perilous torrid heats in Miss Ella Wheeler's 'Poems of Passion' (Chicago: Belford, Clarke & Co.), for the simple reason that the passionateness on which she seems to pride herself is really less poetic, as well as less womanly, than her calmer song. When she writes thus, for instance, she strikes an obviously false note:

"She touches my cheek, and I quiver—
I tremble with exquisite pains;
She sighs—like an overcharged river
My blood rushes on through my veins;
She smiles—and in mad-tiger fashion,
As a she-tiger fondles her own,
I clasp her with fierceness and passion,
And kiss her with shudder and groan" (p. 47).

There is surely nothing tempting about this. It is not the passion of Rossetti or Browning, nor even of Gautier and Baudelaire; it is a woman's crude imitation of all these. But when Miss Wheeler writes simply and calmly, keeping on her own ground of life and experience, she is strong—as in this really fine poem:

"LOVE'S COMING.

"She had looked for his coming as warriors come,
With the clash of arms and the bugle's call;
But he came instead with a stealthy tread,
Which she did not hear at all.

"She had thought how his armor would blaze in the sun,
As he rode like a prince to claim his bride:
In the sweet dim light of the falling night
She found him at her side.

"She had dreamed how the gaze of his strange, bold eye
Would wake her heart to a sudden glow:
She found in his face the familiar grace
Of a friend she used to know.

"She had dreamed how his coming would stir her soul,
As the ocean is stirred by the wild storm's strife:
He brought her the balm of a heavenly calm,
And a peace which crowned her life" (p. 75).

It is impossible to deny real passion, and of a sad and very poetic sort, to 'The Love-Poems of Louis Barnaval,' edited, with an introduction, by Charles De Kay (New York: D. Appleton & Co.). This remarkable volume takes a stride so far in advance of anything yet done by Mr. De Kay, that we can hardly wonder at the ready acceptance by the public of the "Louis Barnaval" authorship, laboriously fortified as it is by a prolonged memoir and by an actual dedication "to Maria Teresa de Kerleroz, formerly Maria Barnaval, of Tensas Parish, Louisiana." This is certainly carrying out an *alias* very boldly, if an *alias* it be; yet we can only say that, if there ever was a Louis Barnaval, his literary methods and whims and surprises were marvellous duplicates of those of his editor. Such lines as these recall the roughest places in Mr. De Kay's epics:

"Great God! these toads that still infest her way,
Huddle in holes and beastly propagate;
Anon, when Luna marches forth in state,
Majestic, amorous of departing day,
And shows the world that love is no disgrace,
Out crawl these toads and blubber in her face."
(p. 146).

It is a suspicious fact that there is nothing tropical but passion in these poems attributed to the young New Orleans creole. All the poetic allusions and properties, all the descriptions of nature, are drawn from his brief life of maturity at the North. His wild flowers—and they appear often, and are very genuinely painted—are the violet and wind flower, the mullein and the Indian pipe. Almost the only bit of Southern nature is in the poem on Pizarro, which has a dramatic quality apart from the fires of passion:

"When first he ravaged the Peruvian lands,
Pizarro, chief and torturer of his peers,
Imbibed through greedy, all-believing ears
Tales of the golden and the silvery strands,
Tales of a nation boastful by the water
Where streams like seas meet in a mightier flood,
Tales of the women who their flesh and blood
Spare not, but give each infant son to slaughter.

"Greed saw it rise, the glittering high-faned town
Far in the wood wastes; and desire, the shining
Of golden cornices, the gems entwining
Locks that the feathers of the war-bird crown.

"Thirsted for them the gross Pizarro spirit:
Set on, O comrades! at the last we know
Where fitly love lurks under woman's blow
In warrior wives who warrior souls inherit.
. . . . . .
"A Barnaval with many a comrade clashes
Sword on his helm. Alas for firm-set wills!
Alas for tangles of Madeira's hills!
The parrot screams among their moldering ashes"
(p. 105).

Echoes of passion—and of Keats—are to be found in a sumptuously printed volume, 'Poems Antique and Modern,' by Charles Leonard Moore (Philadelphia: J. E. Potter & Co.). The poems are smooth, exotic, cultivated, graceful, and a little cloying; but one of the best is on the home theme of Edgar Poe. There is an imaginative touch that would have pleased Poe himself in the closing lines:

"An altar in each heart for him shall burn
As long as sorrow lasts,
As long as Autumn, or the dim twilight,
Usurp the seats of Summer or throned Day,
As long as shadows thicken in our minds—
He reigns, who was the very spirit of strife,
Who was primeval to the hoary night,
Who was the god and image of decay;
And all the tossed waves and storm-stricken winds
Of distressed, human life
Answer to him, who, with the secret stars,
Rises o'er chaos to renew its wars" (p. 322).

The faults of Mr. Moore apparently are those of youth; but the author of these lines ought, with profounder personal experience and more concentration of his powers, to produce something of more value than this fair volume.

In strange contrast with these classic and romantic strains, comes again the pure and cloistered voice of Jones Very. It may be said of him, as was once said of Thoreau: "His range is narrow, but to be a master is to be a master." Of the meditative sonnet Jones Very was master; no one has ever done anything in that direction more genuine or of clearer note. It is as if the very finest essence of Puritanism had come distilled through the soul of one of Hawthorne's saintly women; and those who can recall Mr. Very in his prime, when first touched with the sense of religious mission that seemed to wrap a white mantle of purity around him, will enjoy the appreciative memoir by his friend, Mr. W. P. Andrews. It is a curious coincidence that a sleepy old town like Salem, Massachusetts, once the home of such dark tragedies and then of such busy enterprise, should in one year send forth the memoirs and literary remains of two such lofty, ascetic souls as Jones Very and Samuel Johnson.

Mr. Browning's 'Jocoseria' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is in strange contrast to the smooth and meditative strains of the New England seer. Some of the poems are written in his most abstruse, others in his most jarring, mood; while others, as "Pambo," are simply a hammering out of some well-known legend, without improving it. Yet there occur some strains so melodious as to recall the author's early 'Dramatic Lyrics,' and almost all have a tantalizing gift of yielding more and more wisdom upon repeated reading—a power in which Browning still stands unequalled among his contemporaries; a power which makes of his especial disciples a class apart, and loyal to their master in precise proportion to the world's neglect.

There comes also from England a poem with this prolonged title, 'Mano: a Poetical History, of the time of the close of the Tenth Century, concerning the Adventures of a Norman Knight, which fell part in Normandy, part in Italy. In Four Books. By Richard Watson Dixon, Vicar of Hayton, Hon. Canon of Carlisle' (London: George Routledge & Sons). It belongs to the same class with Mr. Morris's or Mr. De Kay's very longest narrative poems, but is more languid than the one, while smoother than the other; and might serve for a whole summer-day's pleasure—perhaps, indeed, for a whole season's—to some young lady in a hammock, with a taste for that sort of thing. Yet we cannot assign to it a high or permanent place in literature; we should rather take the risk of awarding such place to a drama which comes to us from Rome—'Mary Magdalene: a Poem,' by Mrs. Richard Greenough (Boston: Osgood). Mrs. Greenough is the wife of the well-known sculptor, and the drama is suggested by his statue of Mary Magdalene at the tomb. The author is known in literature through an early volume of rather striking tales and one or two graceful lyrics, but none of these predicted the sustained power and the even excellence of this fine treatment of an oft-told story; and the historical painting and other accessories are eminently well done. More fortunate than his English compeer, Mr. Woolner, Mr. Greenough does not need to handle in person both pen and chisel; there is a division of labor in his household; and the poem of 'Mary Magdalene' shows in passages almost the vigor of Mr. Woolner's 'Pygmalion,' while softer and more Christian in its tone.

Among minor American volumes there is to be noted one called 'Dreams' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.), chiefly noticeable for a poem of considerable length and some ability upon the early loves of Mary Wollstonecraft, whose name the author repeatedly misspells; an odd collection of 'Versicles,' by Isaac Flagg (Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.), with some quaint and rather overdone translations from the livelier idyls of Theocritus; a rather striking Spanish poem on Niagara ('El Poema del Niagara': New York), by Juan Antonio Perez Bonalde, who dedicates his little volume to Castelar, and is himself the subject of a preliminary sketch by José Marti. There is also a collection, somewhat ambitious, but not without merit, of sonnets on the successive months, under the title of 'The Yearly Moons,' by Joseph H. Young (Philadelphia: Lippincott); a small volume of poems in dialect, 'The Old Swimmin' Hole and 'Leven More Poems,' by Benj. F. Johnson, of Boone [James Whitcomb Riley], (Indianapolis, Ind.: Geo. C. Hitt & Co.); and an attractive group of 'Poems from the Spanish of Fra Luis Ponce de Leon,' translated by Henry Phillips, jr. (Philadelphia: Privately printed). These last sustain the merit of the Spanish translations in Mr. Phillips's 'Poems from the Spanish and German' which appeared four or five years ago. Mr. Chas. F. Lummis has also sent out a new series of 'Birch-Bark Poems,' written and printed by himself, on a paper made of the material thus indicated, in Chillicothe, Ohio. There are also some new collections of poetry; as, for instance, a very well-devised little volume of 'Five-Minutes' Daily Readings of Poetry,' selected by an English editor, H. L. Sidney Lear (New York: Whittaker). With this may be classed 'Surf and Wave: The Sea as Sung by the Poets,' edited by Anne L. Ward (New York: Crowell & Co.). This volume we have, however, found very disappointing; its tawdry binding and very mediocre illustrations indicating a certain mediocrity in the book itself, which differs from its more fastidious predecessors in the same line, 'Thalatta' and 'Sea and Shore,' in being rather a collection than a selection, including a good deal that is commonplace and not worth reprinting. The editor has the advantage, however, of a theme that is inexhaustible, and of doing her work later than those who have made up previous collections.

No recent volume of the minor sort has given us so much real pleasure as 'Songs of Fair

Weather' (Boston: Osgood & Co.), by Maurice Thompson, the well-known writer on archery. Many of the poems are shot swift and straight as arrows, and the reader feels the very thrill in the air; while there are descriptions of nature which are real additions to our literature, they are so fresh and vigorous. A hundred odes on skylark and nightingale, written by young American bards who never saw or heard those celebrated performers, are not worth the flavor of Southern woodland life in lines like these:

"THE BLUE HERON.

"Where water-grass grows overgreen,
On damp, cool flats by gentle streams,
Still as a ghost and sad of mien,
With half-closed eyes, the heron dreams.

"Above him, in the sycamore,
The flicker beats a dull tattoo;
Through papaw groves the soft airs pour
Gold dust of blooms and fragrance new.

"And, from the thorn it loves so well,
The oriole flings out its strong,
Sharp lay, wrought in the crucible
Of its flame-circled soul of song.

"The heron nods. The charming runes
Of Nature's music thrill his dreams;
The joys of many Mays and Junes
Wash past him like cool summer streams.

"What tranquil life, what joyful rest,
To feel the touch of fragrant grass,
And doze like him, while tenderest
Dream-waves across my sleep would pass!"

THE DAWN OF ITALIAN INDEPENDENCE.

Lettere edite ed inedite di Camillo Cavour; raccolte ed illustrate da Luigi Chiala. Volume secondo, 1852–1858: Crimea, Congresso di Parigi, Plombières. (Pp. cccix.–453.) Torino: Roux e Favale. 1883.

CAVOUR succeeded Santa Rosa as Minister of Agriculture on October 11, 1850, and became Minister of Finance in the following April. On November 4, 1852, he was intrusted by the King with the formation of a Cabinet of which he was Premier. During the next five years the progress of Italy toward independence may best be followed by studying Cavour's career. A remarkably short time had sufficed to bring him to the foremost position in Piedmont; henceforth, his aim was to force Europe to recognize Piedmont as the leader of Italy. Few men have understood the task before them better than Cavour. He knew that practical commonsense, unromantic and persistent efforts at reform, unpoetical sacrifices, and systematic endeavors would in the end accomplish more than sentiment, enthusiasm, Carbonarism. Sardinia he wished to make a model constitutional kingdom. England he kept before him as a pattern. When he could justly call the world to witness that in liberalism and enlightenment Sardinia was the peer of the most progressive country in Europe; when he could prove that down-trodden and derided Italians were capable of the highest order of self-government; when he could point to the condition of the Lombards and the Neapolitans, confident that the contrast with the Piedmontese could not escape the most casual observer; then he felt that the liberation of the Peninsula could not be far off. He wished not only to gain the moral support of foreigners, but also to make sure that all Italians should look up to the stanch little kingdom of Victor Emmanuel as the home of liberty and the rallying-ground of their cause.

To appreciate the difficulties with which the Sardinian Premier was confronted we must recall the dismal condition of the people whose fortunes he had undertaken to guide. The battle of Novara left Piedmont without an army, and, what was worse, it confirmed the scoffers who had asserted that the Italians were deficient in military qualities. Education was still so largely in the hands of priests that it was a weapon of ignorance, not of progress. Even acknowledged Liberals were timid and doubtful. The State Treasury was empty. But under Gen. Alfonso La Marmora the regular army was remodelled; the fortifications along the Austrian frontiers were strengthened; means were adopted for a speedy mobilization of the reserve force upon an emergency. All this required money, which could only be provided by large loans involving heavier taxes. Public works of all kinds—particularly the construction of railways—were warmly encouraged. The school and electoral systems felt almost immediately the influence of Cavour's reforming genius.

Whatever he achieved was at first stubbornly opposed. The reactionaries were naturally his enemies, but more dangerous still was the lukewarmness or active opposition of Moderates of undoubted patriotism, who could not, however, understand the wisdom of Cavour's policy. Very soon he showed the Clericals that he would not stop short of active warfare in his dealings with the Vatican. He was the author of a bill sanctioning civil marriage, and of another abolishing the convents of Sardinia. Their possessions, valued at $20,000.000, were sold, the proceeds being devoted to the improvement of the regular clergy. This radical reform had scarcely been brought before the Parliament ere several members of the King's family died almost simultaneously, and the Papists did not let slip the excellent opportunity of declaring that Heaven was thereby avenging itself upon the wicked sovereign. Victor Emmanuel was too good a Catholic not to heed the Pope's words in matters spiritual, but he had also too much common sense ever to fall deeply into superstition. "They tell me," he said in the present case, "that God has wished to punish me because I have consented to these laws. He has taken away my mother, my wife, and my brother; they threaten me with still heavier punishments; but they do not seem to understand that a ruler who wishes to secure his own happiness in the next world must first assure the happiness of his subjects in this."

While these perplexing questions busied Cavour at home, he was not blind to events abroad. He was on the alert watching the complications in which the great Powers were rapidly becoming entangled, and he was the first to perceive how the approaching conflict in the Orient might be turned to the advantage of Piedmont. Even before Napoleon created himself Emperor, Cavour recognized in him a possible future ally, or at least one whose friendship would be worth keeping. In October, 1854, when as yet Sardinia had not joined fortunes with France and England, Cavour wrote to Dabormida: "If Sebastopol is taken we must compliment the Emperor. They wish the Government to confide this mission to Count Arese. In his quality of old friend, this mission would have something quite personal about it which would perhaps flatter Louis Napoleon. Besides, were he welcomed—and he could not but be—it would be a famous lesson for Austria. Think of it. The idea is somewhat novel."

More novel still was the idea which about that time took shape, that Sardinia should enter the Alliance of the Western Powers. She was not rich enough in either money or men to be of great assistance. The expedition must entail large expenditures, and how would it benefit Victor Emmanuel and the Italians? Cavour could not explain to the world that his chief object in sending troops to aid the Allies was to secure their active good-will so that they might even be induced to take arms in Italy's behalf. He could not reply directly to those enemies who asked pertinently what possible business Sardinia had to meddle with the affairs of the Crimea. The result silenced those who repeated the wearisome *Qu'allait il faire dans cette galère?* and established for ever the sagacity of Cavour's policy. In the spring of 1855 General La Marmora embarked with 18,000 soldiers. For several months Italy watched with anxiety for some military achievement. At last, on August 17, 1855, a telegram came to the War Office at Turin announcing that 50,000 Russians had been repulsed by the Piedmontese troops in the trenches of the Tchernaya. That exploit redeemed the martial prestige of the Italians.

The position which Piedmont took proved of unexpected value to the Allies because it decided Austria to remain neutral. Had she been true to her promises, or had she followed her wishes, she would have joined Russia. In that case, France and England would have been overmatched. Cavour's prompt action warned Austria that she would be obliged to fight again for her Italian possessions, and she therefore chose to keep out of the conflict. When the Congress of the Powers met at Paris early in 1856 to settle upon the terms of peace, she tried to exclude Cavour, who represented Piedmont, from the deliberations. Well had it been for her had she succeeded, for, on the 8th of April Cavour rose in the Congress and uttered his famous appeal for Italy. The plenipotentiaries who had assembled at Paris to discuss the boundaries of the Danubian provinces, found themselves suddenly forced to listen to the grievances of Italy. From that moment they knew that the Italian Question could no longer be ignored.

The years 1856–7–8 hastened the solution of the problem. Cavour's aim was to secure the active support of France and England, to propitiate Prussia and Russia, to strengthen Piedmont's position at home, to encourage the aspirations of Italians abroad, and by every means to deepen the shadow of unpopularity which fell upon Austria at the Congress. More than once it seemed that he must fail. Mazzini was a perpetual source of anxiety. The mad attempt of Orsini to assassinate Napoleon almost caused a rupture between France and Piedmont. The emissaries of the Vatican were busier and more insidious than ever. Famine, and consequent disease, added to the discontent of the people and the perplexities of the ministers. Nevertheless we can see now, although it was not plain then, that the indefatigable Prime Minister gained ground steadily during those three anxious years, which were to the champions of Italian independence what the hardships of Valley Forge were to the patriots of the American Revolution. The crowning event of this period was Cavour's interview with Napoleon at Plombières, on July 21, 1858. That meeting, which seemed so casual as to be insignificant, was one of the most important single scenes in the entire drama. Cavour, who had been taking a short vacation, stopped over night at the little town of Plombières. The Emperor happened to be there. The next day they drove together in a two-seated wagon, drawn by a single horse. No one accompanied them, Napoleon himself being the driver. They were gone eight hours. During that time Cavour had extracted from the Emperor the promise that French bayonets should help the Sardinians to expel the Austrians from Italy. That drive bore fruit in 1859 and the following years.

Signor Chiala gives 341 edited and inedited letters of Cavour in his second volume. In them we are able to trace the growth of the Premier's plans from the moment of their conception to their accomplishment. We hear his private reasons for a stroke of policy which in public he could not unreservedly explain. We are everywhere struck with the completeness, the universality of his statesmanship. Like Mr. Gladstone, he did the work of half-a-dozen ministers.

Evidences of his tact, his sense of humor, and of his affection for his intimates abound. But it is to his utterances upon the Italian Question that the historical student is naturally most attracted. On February 12, 1853, Cavour wrote Lord E. G. Hatherton concerning the clerical situation and Pius IX.: "Up to the present his efforts have only resulted in making him lose credit with us and in diminishing his influence. His efforts are completely impotent. The more he busies himself, the more the masses detach themselves from him: it is not to be said that on that account they cease to be Catholics, but with them the sentiment of being independent of the court of Rome becomes stronger every day." Again, he declared that "in spite of the utmost good-will it is impossible to get along with Rome. She is angry at our liberty, at our independence, much more than at the laws [relating to civil marriage, etc.] which tend to introduce into our country, in a moderate measure, what has existed for a half-century in every other Catholic country."

After the Austrian decree of February 13, 1853, by which the property of certain Lombard exiles living in Piedmont was confiscated, Cavour puts the situation forcibly before Massimo d'Azeglio, then in London:

"This act violates in the most flagrant manner every principle of equity and justice. It has no precedents in modern history, for the [French] Convention itself attacked the *émigrés*, but not those to whom it had given a release from French citizenship. We must go back to the Middle Ages, to the epoch of Guelfs and Ghibellines to find anything analogous. . . . Austria, in aiming at Sardinian citizens, has intended to cast a slur on our Government, to degrade it in the eyes of Italy and of Europe. She would succeed if, after repeated and vain protests, we *remained with our hands in our pockets*. This we cannot, we ought not do. We cannot allow the constitutional and liberal principles of which we are the defenders and custodians in the South of Europe, to be vilified."

Plainly, the sentence which we have italicized indicates that even in 1853 Cavour saw that, if the worst came about, Piedmont might be driven to choose a desperate struggle instead of dishonor. Three years later, he alluded to this possibility in terms that were not ambiguous. In an interview with Lord Clarendon, immediately after the famous appeal of April 8, 1856, Cavour said (we quote from a letter of his to Rattazzi):

"'My lord, what has passed at the Congress proves two things: first, that Austria is decided to persist in her system of oppression and violence toward Italy; second, that the efforts of diplomacy are impotent to modify her system. . . . My friends and I shall not fear to prepare ourselves for a terrible war, for a war to the death, for a war to the knife!' Here I paused. Lord Clarendon, without showing either surprise or disapprobation, said then: 'I believe you are right. Your position becomes very difficult. I believe an explosion is inevitable, only the moment has not come to talk of it openly.' I replied: 'I have given you proofs of my moderation and prudence. I believe that in politics one must be excessively reserved in words and excessively decided in actions. There are positions where there is less danger in an audacious move than in an excess of prudence. With La Marmora I am persuaded that we are in a state to begin war, and, however brief it may be, you will be forced to aid us.' Lord Clarendon replied with great vivacity: 'Oh! certainly, if you are in trouble you can count on us, and you will see with what energy we will come to your assistance.'"

Cavour had already thought out the details of the conflict as carefully as if he were sure of its immediate outbreak. In his mind he had prepared for everything, as he shows further on in the same letter:

"I believe it opportune," he confides to Rattazzi, "to go to London to talk with Palmerston and the other leaders of the Government. If they share Lord Clarendon's views, we must make ready quietly, get a loan of thirty millions, and upon the return of La Marmora [from the Crimea] give an ultimatum to Austria which she cannot accept, and begin the war. The Emperor cannot be averse to this war: he desires it at heart. He will certainly aid us if he sees England decided to enter the lists. Moreover, I will talk to the Emperor as I talked to Lord Clarendon. The last conversations I had with him and his ministers were of a kind to prepare the way for a warlike declaration. The only obstacle that I foresee is the *Pope*. What to do with him in case of an Italian war? I hope after reading this letter you will not think that I have been attacked with brain fever, or that I have fallen into a state of mental exaltation."

There are many other important extracts which we might make, but we have space for only one more. It is taken from a confidential letter addressed to General La Marmora, after Cavour's famous interview with Napoleon at Plombières. The Sardinian statesman thus sums up the result of that meeting:

"It was agreed, first, that the State of Massa and Carrara should be the cause or pretext of war; second, that the scope of the war should be the expulsion of the Austrians from Italy, and the constitution of the kingdom of Upper Italy, composed of the entire valley of the Po, of the Legations and Marches; third, the cession of Savoy to France—that of the county of Nice undecided; fourth, the Emperor believes himself sure of the coöperation of Russia and of the neutrality of England and Prussia. . . . The sole point not defined is that of the marriage of Princess Clotilde. The King had authorized me to agree only in case the Emperor made that a condition *sine qua non* of the alliance. Since the Emperor did not push his demands so far, as an honest man I did not assume the engagement. But I am convinced that he attaches the greatest importance to this marriage, and on it depends, if not the alliance, at least its final issue. . . . I left Plombières with my mind more serene. If the King consents to the marriage, I am confident, I will say almost certain, that within two years you will enter Vienna at the head of our victorious troops."

Signor Chiala's historical commentary, prefixed to the letters, contains much valuable crude material for readers to digest at their leisure. He has collated so many anecdotes and speeches that we are surprised he should have omitted a full report of Cavour's appeal at the Congress of Paris, and also Cavour's official account of the Plombières interview, which probably exists in the archives of the Italian State Department. With these exceptions the editing is generally satisfactory.

Essays, Modern.—Essays, Classical. By F. W. H. Myers. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883. 2 vols.

THE leading essay in these two volumes, the paper on the "Greek Oracles," is reprinted from *Hellenica*. At the time of its original publication it attracted considerable attention among scholars as a serious attempt to vindicate the dignity of the Greek belief in Delphi, and to support on grounds of knowledge the Emersonian affirmation that the oracle "never fell from lips of cunning." The author treats mainly of this, the omphalos of earth, and traces its history from the time when it was hardly more than a centre of animistic superstition, through its blending of nature-worship with sorcery, until it became less the voice of Apollo than the conscience of Greece. Finally he reports its last mystic aspirations, when, like a long-extinct crater, it rekindled in the outflow of religious feeling in the first Christian centuries. This history, which mirrors the religious growth and spiritual needs of the Greek race for a thousand years, including without a break the passage of the mind from fetishism to pantheistic ecstasy, is necessarily profoundly interesting and suggestive. In recounting it the author shows such quick susceptibility to different moods of the religious emotion, and such apprehension of its phases, as to prove that, though a scholar and writing about a long-silent shrine, he is most interested in religion as alive and contemporary—if, indeed, its fortunes were not the thing nearest to his heart. In the additional essays, now collected from various sources, the predominant topic, whether introduced from the ethical, humanitarian, or philosophical side, is the same, and is treated with equal readiness of insight and fervency of sympathy. Thus, when, with the reticence and glow of personal attachment, he describes the charm of George Eliot, the seriousness and elevation of her life, he focuses his praise into a eulogy of her moral ideal; or he seems to recount the career of Mazzini mainly to celebrate the latter's self-derived religion; or, while apparently being tempted to assent to Renan's half-ironical, half-serious relegation of the supernatural to another world, he makes his most vigorous assault on scientific indifferentism. The curious and marked characteristic of this survey of the opinion of some of the most eminent moderns is, that Mr. Myers does not, as is usually the case with men of broad religious sympathies, spend his emotion in mere sentimental effusiveness; he evidently hopes for, if he does not expect, a scientific solution of the eternal secret. In the "Greek Oracles" he made a promise (which he now says he failed to keep, not because of the lack, but the abundance, of material) to illustrate the ancient mysteries by modern discoveries. In the face of Renan's contented agnosticism he takes occasion to suggest that Socrates held the same attitude toward physical science as is now maintained toward supernaturalism, so called, because of "the arbitrariness of the explanations and the inaccessibility of the phenomena." He reminds us repeatedly that no proper examination of certain phenomena, alleged through all time and among all races, has been made, and among these he classes the Resurrection, and in all respects he writes like a member, if not an evangelist, of the Society for Psychical Research. Certainly he seems to anticipate by such research some enlightenment in regard to the points at which the unseen world impinges on the seen, and the modes of facilitating intercourse between the two. These propositions are urged with such sincerity, such high and earnest feeling, and are so enforced by rich, if not eloquent, language, by effective quotation and skilful allusion, that one must possess a heart very insensible to the plausibilities of rhetoric not to wish the author God-speed should he ever thus find "that true interrogation which is the half of science."

Other portions of these essays, if less unusual, seem to us more valuable. The passages in which, commenting on the author of 'Natural Religion,' Mr. Myers insists on the equality in worth of all high emotion felt toward an ideal, as well through art or poetry or landscape as through the more distinctive media of religious feeling; and the essay on Rossetti, in which this part of his creed is most effectively stated—are powerfully and suggestively done. His denial of the worship of Victor Hugo is just such a delightful blending of the serious and the droll as a modern "Get thee behind me, Satan," should be. But in singling out the best for praise, that for which the volumes are worth possessing, there can be no hesitation—it is the paper on Virgil. Many a vapid translation in late days had almost convinced us that the knowledge of Virgil was gone; but here is a writer, deeply versed in the classics, and unterrified by the Germans, who has the skill and boldness to make Dante's Guide credible by criticism. It is an admirable essay, at once learned, temperate, and almost affectionate in its sympathy, while it is no less marked by historical grasp than by poetic sensitiveness.

Heroes of Literature: English Poets. A Book for Young Readers. By John Dennis. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co. 1883.

THIS title is merely a catchword (the book is one of a series), and misleading. The volume it labels does not contain an account of those poets only whose lives were heroic, nor is it written, as one would suppose, in a vein to interest the young imagination. The "heroes" are all the notable authors in English poetry since Chaucer, irrespective of their moral character or the splendor or romance of their career. Seventy-nine of these worthies are mentioned, and of most of them brief biographies are given, in chronological order, together with some sound criticism, and especially some advice in regard to which of their poems are interesting and profitable to the youthful reader. The author does not claim any originality. The facts and opinions he has taken from the best literary specialists; the advice is conventional, and somewhat more marked than is usual by that consideration of what is "proper" for English boys and girls to think and know which seems to dominate their early education. Thus, in allowing that Burns's song, "A man's a man for a' that," contains a highly admirable sentiment, Mr. Dennis carefully tells his supposed childish audience that "the distinctions of rank and wealth are necessary to the healthy growth of a state, and that, if it were possible to place all men on a level, some of the fairest and noblest virtues of the race would disappear." But he naïvely adds: "This was not evident to Burns." In such solicitude for the respect to be paid by well-bred youth to "his lordship," and in the surely inaccurate statement that Shakspere's dramas are not found in the hands of English laborers and artisans, there is the suggestion of a social bias, as there is a hint of limited appreciativeness in the fact that the only full quotations are from Cowper and Thomson; while the quiet assumption that only those children who are in the English Church will be interested in literature, strikes an American, and we should think would strike a Nonconformist at home, as inexpressibly comical. Such things as these, however, are only curious. The cheapness and information of the manual are not marred by its high and somewhat dusty respectability; it will be serviceable enough to pupils already engaged in the study, but it is not likely of itself to awaken a lively interest in literature in the ordinary American boy.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Belot, A. Fedora; or, The Tragedy in the Rue de la Paix. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $1.
Beyond the Sunrise. Observations of Two Travellers. John W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Blackie, J. S. The Wisdom of Goethe. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 25.
Brchat, A. de. The Black Sorceress: a Tale of the Peasants' War. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $1.
Briggs, Prof. C. A. Biblical Study: Its Principles, Methods, and History. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 50.
Brooks, W. K. The Law of Heredity: a Study of the Cause of Variation and the Origin of Living Organisms. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.
Broughton, Rhoda. Belinda: a Novel. D. Appleton & Co.
Cunningham, P. The Story of Nell Gwyn; and the Sayings of Charles the Second. John Wiley's Sons.
Denton, F. E. Early Poetical Works. Cleveland, O.: W. W. Williams.
Edgeworth, Maria. Classic Tales. With a Biographical Sketch. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Forrester, Mrs. June. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
Gladden, Rev. W. The Christian League of Connecticut. The Century Co.
Hale, E. E. Seven Spanish Cities, and the Way to Them. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.
Harland, Marion. The Cottage Kitchen: a Collection of Practical and Inexpensive Receipts. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Hawthorne, J. Fortune's Fool. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.
Hazard, R. G. Man a Creative First Cause. Two Discourses. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Howe, Julia Ward. Margaret Fuller. [Famous Women.] Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
King's Handbook of Boston. Cambridge: Moses King.
Langdell, C. C. A Summary of Equity Pleading. Cambridge: C. W. Sever. $3.
Livermore, A. Anti-Tobacco. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Meredith, G. Poems and Lyrics of the Joy of Earth. Macmillan & Co. $1 75.
Murray, D. C. Hearts: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Pangborn, F. W. Alice; or, The Wages of Sin: a Novel. Charles T. Dillingham.
Pattison, M. The Sonnets of John Milton. D. Appleton & Co.
Prentiss, Mrs. Fred and Maria and Me. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Robertson, J. M. Handbook of Mexico. Thompson & Moreau.
Sanborn, Kate. A Year of Sunshine: Cheerful Extracts for Every Day in the Year. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Shakspere's Works. Vols. viii. and ix. D. Appleton & Co. $1 25 each.
Southey, R. The Life of Nelson. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Thackeray, Miss. A Book of Sibyls. Mrs. Barbauld—Mrs. Edgworth—Mrs. Opie—Mrs. Austen. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Williams, S. Wells. The Middle Kingdom: a Survey of the Geography, Government, Literature, Social Life, Arts, and History of the Chinese Empire and its Inhabitants. Revised ed. 2 vols. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $9.
Wister, Mrs. A. L. Banned and Blessed. After the German of F. Werner. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 50.
Worthington's Annual: a Series of Interesting Stories, Biographies, Papers on Natural History, etc., for the Young. Illustrated. R. Worthington.
Wright, Prof. E. P. Animal Life; being the Natural History of Animals. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. $2 50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 25, 1883.

The Week.

THE official figures from Ohio show a majority of about 70,000 against the prohibitory amendment. This was cast almost entirely by the cities. In eighty-three counties of the State the amendment had a clear majority of nearly 5,000, but in the remaining five counties, which contain the large cities, the majority against it exceeded 75,000. In Cincinnati over 60,000 votes were cast against it, and only 8,000 for it. In Cleveland, Columbus, Toledo, and other cities the vote was in the ratio of about two to one against it. The meaning of these figures is obvious enough. In the rural sections of the State, where the difficulties in the way of enforcing prohibitory laws are comparatively slight, the sentiment in favor of such legislation has gained remarkable strength. Both Republicans and Democrats are in favor of it. Eleven counties which gave majorities for Hancock in 1880 have cast majorities in favor of the amendment, and the entirely reasonable estimate is made that one-third of the total prohibition vote was cast by Democrats. In the cities, however, the tide of sentiment runs almost as strongly in the other direction. The vote against prohibition in them is so large as to preclude the possibility of explaining it as being due mainly to the combined opposition of the liquor interests. The opposition was undoubtedly swelled by the votes of many temperance people who believe that license is a more practicable check to intemperance than prohibition.

Massachusetts Democrats are predicting Butler's defeat by 20,000 Republican majority, and the reason they give for it has been apparent to close observers of the campaign from the start. They will allow him to be beaten because if he is elected he will appear before the Democratic National Convention and demand a nomination for President. If he were refused this, they are afraid he would bolt and run as an independent candidate, drawing away enough support from the Democrats to defeat their ticket. By letting him be disastrously defeated now, they think they will so destroy him politically as to make his future movements comparatively harmless. This is the view taken by Democratic authorities in all parts of the country, and even if he is defeated, Butler ought to be able to derive a grim sort of satisfaction from the spectacle of the leaders of a great political party running away from him at the top of their speed lest he make a sudden grab and kidnap the whole party.

One of the great difficulties in Butler's path of reform during the past year has been the difficulty of proving that the tanning of the skins of paupers had become one of the State industries. He has relied considerably on this tanning for reëlection, but has been much bothered by the scarcity of proof. All that he was able to make out was that one skin had been tanned at some time or other, probably by some medical student, while what he wished to make out was that the tanning of paupers' skins was a branch of local manufacture fostered and encouraged by the State Government and the Republican party. The situation was becoming more serious as the election drew near and no fresh evidence was forthcoming. But relief has at last appeared, just where we might have expected it to appear, in the testimony taken by the famous Senate Committee on Education and Labor. A tanner named Chase, who is out of, and says he finds difficulty in getting, employment, owing to prejudiced employers having black marks against him on their books, has turned up as a witness, and says he has seen a great deal of this tanning, and "that the business has increased of late years," but "was stopped four months ago," of course owing to Butler's exposures. Becoming more particular, he said he had seen "several whole hides of women" that had been tanned, and extremely well tanned, for they "looked as natural as life." Chase is evidently ready to tell as much more about this business as may be necessary between now and the first week in November, and for reasons probably not remotely connected with the difficulty of obtaining employment, from which he says he suffers.

The market for American railroad securities has within the last week shown the first symptoms of a reaction from the decline which has continued almost without interruption for several months. It is of course well known that a general decline has been in progress for nearly two years. But the decline of the last four or five months had scarcely been interrupted by any reaction until it began to appear last week that the stock market, at least, had been immensely oversold by speculators, and that a gradual absorption of stocks by purchasing investors during the last few months had taken a large amount out of the market. Whether this is anything more than a merely temporary reaction it is impossible to say. That there has been a vast amount of idle capital awaiting some sort of investment that will pay a moderate but certain interest, is well known. But it is still an open question whether the late withdrawals of railroad stocks should not be regarded as speculation instead of investment for dividends. If so, an advance of 10 or 15 per cent. would bring the major portion of these stocks into the market again, and the situation would not be greatly different from what it was before. There is nothing to show that confidence in railway management generally, or in the general aspect of commercial and industrial affairs, has been restored in any considerable degree. The facts still remain that the railroad mileage of the country has in the last few years grown faster than the traffic of the country, and that the excess of railroad building has caused an increase of the plants of iron mills and the output of coal properties to a point in excess of the requirements of the country, unless the increase of railroad mileage is to continue. But this cannot be, and the iron and coal trades have perhaps not yet seen their lowest point of depression. Hence, one may doubt whether the vast amount of securities in the market will find purchases for investment at present prices. For the first time this year the rates of sterling exchange have declined to a point at which it will pay to import specie.

The tangle in which the "bears" in Northern Pacific preferred involved themselves on Saturday is perhaps the most curious phenomenon in the history of the Stock Exchange. Weeks ago it was announced by public advertisement that the transfer books for this stock would close on Saturday for the purpose of voting on the question of a mortgage. It was perfectly plain that the stock would "corner" itself if let alone, and that anybody who was "short" of it would be placed in a position of peril. These facts were so well understood that holders of the stock naturally supposed that the "short interest" would be practically eliminated before the day fixed for closing the books. This belief was so commonly entertained that very shrewd observers on the long side of the account, whose shares were not locked up in the transfer office, made haste to sell their stock early in the day at 4 or 5 per cent. premium, and were astounded to see the price advance to 17¼ per cent. premium before 3 o'clock. The only explanation of the affair is that the bears in the market, emboldened by a long and successful campaign, had become stone-blind to the plainest facts. There is no evidence that anybody made any profit out of the "corner" except a few fortunate holders who were indifferent to the vote on the mortgage question, and who happened to have their shares in convenient places where they could be hurried to the market for the sake of the premium. All that was needful to produce a corner was for the bears to set at defiance all the facts known to them. This they appear to have done in the present case. It is seldom that so large a price is paid for so little information.

Among the many suggestions made for either getting rid of the silver dollar or putting it to some use, that which proposes the suppression of the one and two-dollar notes seems to be the most feasible. If these notes were out of the way, a vacuum would be created for about $60,000,000 of silver. The liberation of this amount would be a great relief to the overburdened vaults of the treasury, and would postpone but would not avert the crisis which must come if the two-millions-per-month law continues in force. The objection raised against the suppression of the small notes—that without them we should have nothing with which to make small remittances in letters—has been removed by the introduction of the postal notes. An indirect gain from the suppression of the small notes and the substitution of silver, would be

found in the practical experience gained in carrying silver dollars. Sixty millions of these dollars weigh about two thousand tons. This weight distributed in the pockets of the people and carried around for a year, wearing holes in their trowsers, could not fail to have a wholesome influence upon public opinion, and would lead many people to take a more concrete view of the silver question than they have heretofore held.

The surplus revenues of the Government having again become a public nuisance, despite the large reductions in taxation effected last winter, it becomes necessary to look at the sources of the income and decide which of them shall be choked. The most hasty examination of the subject discloses two articles of consumption of nearly equal productiveness in the way of revenue, but very different in all other respects, viz., sugar and whiskey. Each yielded upward of $50,000,000 of revenue during the last fiscal year. The duties on sugar were lowered a trifle last winter, but it is likely that the increased consumption will soon bring the total revenue from this source up to the former figures. The protectionists call for a "clean sweep" of all internal taxation, including the tax on distilled and fermented liquors. The revenue reformers urge a reduction of the tariff sufficient in amount to cut off an equal sum. The temperance people, who are probably more numerous and certainly more active than the protectionists and revenue reformers combined, are justly horrified at a measure which proposes to reduce the prime cost of alcoholic liquor to twenty cents per gallon. The ideal measure to them would be a tax so high as to be prohibitory, or, better still, the destruction of all distilleries by fire. Neither prohibition nor destruction being possible through national legislation, the forces of temperance are leagued with those of revenue reform in solid phalanx to prevent any cheapening of the cost of liquor to the dram-drinker.

The application of the term "dude" to a particular kind of dandy has led to the use of it by a great many people as a term of reproach for all well-dressed persons whom they dislike, and, like all nicknames, is a labor-saving invention. Mr. Tourgée, the author of 'The Fool's Errand,' who has taken to lecturing, without any very good reason as far as we can see, has now turned the term to better account than ever by preparing a lecture on the dude. He uses the word to describe all sorts of persons with whom he does not agree or does not approve of. He has his literary dudes, and his political dudes, and his fashionable, sporting, and artistic dudes; but from his account of them one can see no reason in the world for calling them dudes, except that Mr. Tourgée does not like them. He might just as well call them kangaroos or prairie-dogs. We are afraid that Thackeray's 'Book of Snobs' has been too much in the lecturer's hands lately, but that in perusing it he has failed to perceive that Thackeray was careful to describe nobody in any sphere as a "snob" who did not exhibit the great snob characteristic, "mean admiration of mean things."

The President of a New England woollen company testified before the Senate Labor Committee in Boston on Wednesday that the condition of manufacturing industries in this country was not very prosperous because production was in excess of consumption. As for woollen manufacturing, he said it was a lamentable fact that Americans were getting out of it and foreigners were doing the most of the work. He thought free trade would put an end to it entirely for a time, and when asked if he thought that would be a good thing to do, declined to answer. He thought the present duties were high enough, however, thus intimating that, whatever the trouble might be, the remedy for it could not be found in protection. The real causes for the present state of affairs are not far to seek. The protective duties have given such a false stimulus to woollen manufacturing during the past few years that the supply has greatly exceeded the demand. This was so evident to the manufacturers at the beginning of the year that they agreed to run only two-thirds of their machinery, in the hope of warding off trouble from over-production. It is evident now that they took the alarm too late. Another cause has been the inferior quality of the productions. All jobbers in woollens complain of the lack of enterprise shown by American manufacturers in designing new styles and patterns, and say they put themselves outside the market by producing year after year the same kinds of goods. This has long been recognized as one of the most damaging effects of protection, which deprives business of that constant exercise of ingenuity and invention which an unrestricted competition makes absolutely essential to success.

The Atlanta (Ga.) *Constitution* calls the attention of the Southern farmers with much emphasis to the fact that they do not get as much money from a good crop of cotton as from a poor one. It quotes from Latham, Alexander & Co.'s cotton book to show that while 4,600,000 bales in 1875–6 brought $399,000,000, last year a crop of 6,900,000 brought only $327,000,000, or, in other words, although the latter crop was larger than the former by 2,300,000 bales, it brought $72,000,000 less money. In 1880–81 6,600,000 bales brought $336,000,000, or $9,000,000 in excess of last year, though there were 300,000 fewer bales sold. It calculates that the cotton crop of the last three years brought $1,000,000,000 into the South, but it says it went away to the North to enrich "money-changers and food misers," or in other words went to purchase corn, grain, and meat which the South could raise at home. The meaning of all this, it says, is plain:

> "Good prices come with moderate crops. Big crops tumble the prices down to the point of general demoralization and loss. If the South could confine the crop to 5,500.000 bales a year for three years she would realize more money than if she raised three annual crops of 7,000,000 bales."

It therefore advises Southern farmers persistently to shorten the acreage of their cotton and extend the limits of their grain-fields and pastures, with the object simply of keeping the money she sends away for provisions and forage at home; which, on this plan, would make the South "plenteously rich." At present "her labor enriches other sections, while she is kept in poverty and subjection."

What is curious about all this, as a piece of advice coming from a writer who professes to understand business and addressed to business men, is that it contains no calculation of what it costs the South to import its provisions, and no comparison between the value of a crop of corn and a crop of cotton raised on the same acreage. Whether it pays a Southern farmer better to grow cotton, of course depends partly on what he has to pay for his corn, and not, as the *Constitution* seems to think, wholly on what he gets for his cotton. If an acre of cotton brings $100 in a year of moderate crops, and the corn which would have grown on it can be bought for $60, it would be folly to grow the corn because in years of large crops the cotton only brings $90 or $80. In other words, a farmer has to keep his accounts like other people if he wishes to avoid bankruptcy or poverty. He must grow what he gets most for, and buy what he can buy for less than he could raise it for. And this calculation of the comparative merits of cotton and corn as a crop of course every farmer can and must make for himself, and probably does make for himself, and acts on the result. The notion of the *Constitution* that the $1,000,000,000 received for cotton would make the South "plenteously rich," if kept in the country and not sent away for commodities, is an interesting specimen of protection in its earliest stage.

The Medical Liberals won what is probably a decisive victory over the Conservatives at the meeting of the County Medical Society on Monday, electing their ticket by 375 to 220. They had a powerful reinforcement of new members, whose appearance seems to have taken the others by surprise and led to some unpleasantness. But, on the whole, the proceedings seem to have been harmonious, and nothing more serious occurred than the "taking down" of some remarks of an unparliamentary character. We presume the affair will have no direct effect on the quarrel of the codes, but it will undoubtedly make the new-code men feel themselves masters of the situation, and perhaps lead some of them to revel in consultation with homœopathists. The controversy will probably settle itself, as so many controversies now settle themselves, by the triumph of rationality. Doctors who think they can do any good by consulting with homœopathists will consult with them. Those who do not think so will not consult with them, and so no harm will be done. The whole quarrel reminds one of the story of the Episcopalian lady who went with her Baptist married daughter, whom she was visiting, to the Close Communion Baptist Church, and took the communion there. The deacons were much annoyed, and reported the matter, with some indignation, to the wise old pastor, and asked what should be done. "Well," said he, "watch and see if she does it again, and if she does, take my gold-headed cane from the vestry, and hit her smartly over the head with it."

Mr. Frank Hatton's recommendation that city postage should be reduced to one cent is worthy of attention on all grounds but one, and that is, that the existence of two kinds of postage-stamps for first-class matter is a constant source of confusion and delay. It opens up a daily opportunity for everybody to make the old mistake of putting a one-cent stamp on a two-cent letter. This ought not to be a serious matter, but the Post-office makes it a serious matter. It refuses to forward the letter under these circumstances, and thus exposes the sender to delay that may be very mischievous. One of the great comforts and advantages of the late reduction of postage to two cents all round is the getting rid of the two rates. It will be a great inconvenience if we have to go back to it under the old rules. If we are to have it again, the Post-office should forward *all* insufficiently-stamped letters, and collect the balance due on delivery, as the English post-office does. The penalty inflicted for the trifling mistake of putting on one stamp instead of another was tremendous enough to be ludicrous. No man's letter on which any attempt at prepayment has been made, ought to be stopped in transitu, except as a punishment for fraud.

Mr. Hatton's other suggestion, that there should be special rates and special messengers for letters requiring immediate delivery, seems open to somewhat the same sort of objection. A first-rate postal service in cities would and ought to deliver all letters as quickly as any letter can be delivered, and at uniform rates. It would be impossible to set up this special service without diverting to it some of the postal zeal, and money, and energy which are needed for all letters. The introduction, too, of a new corps of officials who would sometimes have too much to do and sometimes not enough, would probably create a good deal of confusion and laxity of discipline. It is not well for the Government to have in its employ a body of men or boys exposed to periods of idleness. It ought to have no one in its service whom it does not keep going all the time. Moreover, the special messenger service is already abundantly supplied for those who can afford to pay for it, in this city at least, and at very reasonable rates, by the District Telegraph Companies. Therefore, if anything can be done to expedite the city delivery, we think it ought to be done for all, and without extra charge. In London it is now so prompt that it has taken the place of special messengers even for invitations to dinner and the answers thereto.

The Newburghers have celebrated the hundredth anniversary of the last act in the great drama of the Revolutionary war—the disbandment of the army and its return to peaceful pursuits, to live under a new political order, and to witness the rise and progress of ideas and institutions of which only the faintest signs were then visible on the horizon. There were probably but few of the actors who had then any perception of the real greatness of the occasion. If there had been many it would perhaps not have been marked by so much heroic simplicity. The self-consciousness which the activity and influence of the press have since diffused through the community, and which makes us all look round to see if the reporters are present before we will consent to say fine things or do great deeds, was then unknown. The written style of the time was a little stilted, it is true, but the men and women were not. The Newburgh episode is perhaps most memorable as having given the finishing touch to Washington's fame. It was the critical period in his career—the period at which so many preceding politico-military heroes had failed, and more particularly his Anglo-Saxon predecessor, Cromwell. In fact, the great military chiefs who can advise the army to go home when the war is over, and put away power which it not only offers but can bestow, have been so few, that if Newburgh was celebrating Washington's conduct on this occasion, and nothing else, it would be celebrating one of the great events of human history. The last seven years have been studded thickly with Revolutionary anniversaries, but Newburgh commemorated what was, in moral significance, as the final test of the political capacity of the people and their leaders, the greatest event of the war.

The controversy between the Government officials and the officers of the Arctic relief expedition is bringing out a good many disagreeable facts. The main point at issue, as to who was responsible for the failure to accomplish anything for the relief of the Greely party, is still undecided, but enough has been revealed on both sides to show that the expedition was sent out in many respects inadequately equipped for the task assigned to it. The official instructions seem to have been lacking in explicitness, and the crew of one of the vessels was apparently as bad a lot of men as could well be got together. The conduct of those in command is at least open to the charge of bad judgment, and the general verdict upon the expedition is likely to be that it was badly managed throughout.

The news comes from Lima that a treaty of peace has been formally signed between Chili and Peru. This is doubtless the Iglesias treaty, by which Chili takes the nitrate and guano territory, without assuming any portion of the Peruvian debt of $200,000,000, and Iglesias takes charge of the Government of Peru. This leaves Peru stripped of her most valuable possessions, and gives the French and English holders of her bonds anything but a cheerful outlook. Iglesias has given evidence of a disposition to govern wisely, and to allow the country a period of repose and order in which to recover from the losses of this long and costly struggle. He will come into power with assurances of popular support, and if he keeps the promises of his pronunciamiento of a few months ago, his Presidency will be a fortunate one for Peru.

London *Truth*, which has the knack of giving the "true inwardness" of a good many social as well as political phenomena, publishes a letter from Paris which throws some new and probably correct light on the late Parisian insults to the King of Spain. It says that a feeling of irritation has been rapidly growing among the Parisian population, including the members of the Government, over the manners of the royal personages who still frequent the city, sometimes, as in Alfonso's case, in their full state, and at other times under the transparent disguise known as "incognito." When they go there incog., however, they are very apt, and not unnaturally, to frequent exclusively the society, whether Bonapartist or Legitimist, of what once was the governing class in France, but is so no longer. It is the society which they like best and to which they naturally belong—the aristocratic society, in short. But it so happens that this society now not only feels, but freely expresses, supreme contempt, not simply for the Republican Government under which it lives, but for the men personally who carry it on, on account of their humble origin and plain manners. It appears now that some royal personages, Alfonso among the number, when in this society permit themselves to share in the sneers and ridicule which its members heap on the Republican Ministers, and more particularly on their wives and daughters, and have, indeed, indulged in the immense impertinence of taking no notice of the ladies of President Grévy's family. The Princess of Wales is said to be the only English lady of the royal family who has called on Mme. Grévy on her visits to Paris. The others simply allow their husbands to return M. Grévy's visits.

What adds to the sting of all this is that it is an attempt to place the French Ministry in the position of social inferiority which royal and aristocratic personages in England and Germany mark out for bishops, judges, professors, literary men, and artists, by accepting or seeking the society of the husbands while snubbing or ignoring the wives. The husbands in these countries have always submitted to this sort of impertinence, some because they do not care, and others because, though they do care, there is no help for it. No man of ordinary sensitiveness likes to advertise to the world the fact that there are houses to which he had to go, or liked to go, in which his wife was not welcome. A great many, too, as in Carlyle's case, enjoy aristocratic company so much that they do not mind leaving their wives at home to chew the cud of sweet and bitter fancy, while they are being flattered and petted by duchesses and countesses. But the President of a republic of course cannot allow himself to be made the object of calculated bad manners, or permit any one to indicate in Paris, at least, that there is society too good for his wife. So M. Grévy has been driven into open resistance by refusing to accord any civilities to distinguished strangers which they were not ready to return. It was rumored, too, that Alfonso had made fun of republican manners, an indiscretion which might be forgiven in as young a man as he is; but a young man who commits it ought not to go to Paris in the character of a friendly sovereign. Anyhow the report of it, probably coupled with gossip about other slights which the President had had to endure, led the mob, it is said, to prepare a reception for the royal stranger which was anything but courteous.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, October 17, to TUESDAY, October 23, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Comptroller of the Currency has completed his calculation of the effect upon the national-bank circulation of the recent call of $15,000,000 of 3 per cents. It shows that more banks and a greater amount of national-bank notes are affected than was supposed. The second call touches the circulation security of 144 banks, and affects $8,352,000 of circulation.

The report of the free-delivery service of the Post-office Department for the fiscal year ending June 30, shows that during the year 42 offices were added to the list of "free-delivery" cities, making a total of 154. These offices employ 3,680 men, and cost the Government during the year $3,173,336. The amount appropriated for the service was $3,200,000.

The Secretary of the Navy on October 10 wrote to Commander Wildes, of the *Yantic*, asking for explanations of his course in the recent Greely Relief Expedition. Among the explanations asked was the following: "You were at Littleton Island on August 3, and learned that the *Proteus* had been crushed, and that Lieutenant Garlington and his whole party had gone south, leaving nothing for Greely at Littleton Island. You could have readily landed there provisions and supplies, but omitted to do so. You will please explain this omission." Commander Wildes, in his reply, says: "On learning of the loss of the *Proteus*, I considered my first and paramount duty was to pick up the boats which contained thirty-seven men. Having done that, it would be time to consider what next." He adds that ice-packs prevented his carrying out the programme, and carefully explains each move made by him. It is said that the Secretary of War is by no means satisfied with Lieutenant Garlington's defence of his conduct of the expedition, and an official investigation is likely to be ordered.

The Signal Service contemplates a project to announce weather predictions by displaying signals on railway trains in the rural districts.

The Secretary of State, Mr. Frelinghuysen, has addressed a letter to the Civil-Service Commission, outlining a plan of examination for the offices in his department which come under the civil service law.

Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, of the Civil-Service Commission, has expressed himself as opposed to a system of competitive examinations for promotions. It is known that another member of the Commission is equally strenuous in his objections, so that a majority of the Commission is against it.

One result of President Arthur's visit to the Northwest is said to be a determination to appoint only residents of Territories to the important Territorial offices. The people of the Territories are dissatisfied with appointments from without.

Mr. J. W. Niles, of Arkansas, who advocates "separation" for the colored people, has received from Attorney-General Brewster an answer to his communication, addressed to the President, alleging that the colored people of Arkansas were suffering certain grievances at the hands not only of private persons, but of the civil authorities. In his reply the Attorney-General points out that the grievances complained of come entirely within the jurisdiction of the State and not of United States authority. Mr. Niles has written, as a result, an address to the negroes, asserting that their only salvation as a people is to prepare to leave the country and "found a civilization in some congenial clime."

Vice-President Hoxie, of the International Railroad, has written to Governor Ireland, of Texas, that business will not justify the running of separate coaches for the negro. Under the recent civil-rights decision, he says, "we can now make colored men take the seats we desire." The Governor, in reply, strongly advocates different coaches for blacks and whites.

A call for a convention of colored people of Georgia in Atlanta on December 12 has been issued, signed by all the leading colored men of the State. The call declares that the condition of the colored people of the State is growing worse.

The Republican leaders of Boston, on Tuesday afternoon, held a meeting at which it was decided to appoint a vigilance committee to prevent fraud on election day through the election officers recently appointed by the Mayor in Butler's favor. Seven hundred reputable gentlemen, many of them heavy business men, have pledged themselves to visit the 107 polling places in Boston on the 6th of November, and guard the ballot-box from fraud. Persons of doubtful character will be challenged, and all possible precautions taken to prevent fraud.

The Massachusetts Democratic State Committee on Saturday substituted the name of S. A. B. Abbott for that of Frederick A. Prince (declined) on the Butler ticket as candidate for Lieutenant-Governor.

Tammany, Irving Hall, and the County Democracy, in this city, have harmonized, and, in accordance with the terms of the compromise, have nominated a ticket composed of representatives of each division of the party.

At a meeting of the Citizens' Committee in this city on Thursday letters were read from three of the candidates nominated by them, declining to serve. A report from the Executive Council was read and unanimously adopted, recommending that the effort to elect a Citizens' ticket be abandoned on account of the failure of the Council to arrange with the Republican Committee for a joint ticket. They also reported that they failed to see much general interest in the movement. The meeting was then dissolved. The Republican Conference Committee on the same evening determined to recommend to the County Convention the nomination of a straight ticket, and on Friday evening the nominations were made.

The Republican City Convention, of Brooklyn, on Wednesday evening approved of the non-partisan administration of Mayor Low, and renominated him by acclamation. The Democrats have made a nomination.

In the Sessions bribery trial at Albany, on Wednesday, ex-Senator Sessions testified in his own behalf. He emphatically denied that he had given Mr. Bradley any money for his vote. On Thursday the jury rendered a verdict of acquittal. The judge's charge was criticised as being too much in favor of the prisoner.

The centennial anniversary of the disbanding of the Revolutionary army by Washington was celebrated at Newburgh, N. Y., on Thursday, with great ceremony. There was a fine procession, an oration by William M. Evarts, a poem by Wallace Bruce, and other interesting exercises.

The amendments to the medical code were defeated at a crowded meeting of the Academy of Medicine of this city on Thursday evening. The meeting was very excited, and the amendments received 121 votes out of 213. A three-fourths majority was necessary to carry them. A motion was then passed rescinding the resolutions offered by Doctor Flint on April 19, 1883, one of which provides that no physician opposed to the code recognized by the American Medical Association be admitted to fellowship in the Academy. At a meeting of the County Medical Society on Monday evening, the new-code men succeeded in electing their ticket of officers.

A report is current in Salt Lake City that John Taylor intends to resign the presidency of the Mormon Church on account of his advanced age and feeble condition. George Q. Cannon, it is believed, would be his successor.

In Philadelphia the General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church still remains in session.

The Rev. H. C. Potter, D.D., was consecrated Assistant Bishop of New York in Grace Church, in this city, on Saturday morning. The ceremonies were impressive. Bishop Williams, of Connecticut, preached the sermon. Bishop Benjamin Bosworth Smith, who is nearly ninety years old, performed the consecration ceremony. About 350 clergymen of the diocese of New York, and 100 visiting clergymen, were present.

A reception was given to Lord Chief-Justice Coleridge on Tuesday evening by the Bar Association of this city. It was social and conversational, without speech-making. The invitations were limited to members of the Association, to eminent lawyers living out of the city, and to judges of the courts of this and other States and the United States.

Mr. Henry Irving and Miss Ellen Terry, the English actors, arrived in this country on Sunday morning. They were met down the bay by Mr. W. J. Florence and Mr. Lawrence Barrett with the steam yacht *Yosemite*. Mr. Matthew Arnold, the eminent English poet and critic, arrived in this city on Monday. He will deliver a series of lectures throughout the United States.

The Metropolitan Opera-house of this city was opened on Monday evening with a performance of "Faust." Nilsson and Campanini appeared. The occasion was a social but not entirely an artistic success. The opera season at the Academy of Music was opened on the same evening. Mme. Gerster made her reappearance.

The National Horse Show was opened in the Madison Square Garden, in this city, on Monday morning. A large number of famous horses are on exhibition.

The father of Charley Ross has been in St Louis following up another clue to the whereabouts of his child. The boy is said to be in Illinois with a family of negroes. It has just been revealed that a brother of Mosher, who was implicated in the abduction, was lynched in Wyoming several weeks ago. He said that he could give information in regard to a widely-known crime if the lynchers would give him time, but he was denied the privilege.

A serious accident occurred at the Harvard College boat-house on Saturday. The piazza in front of it was crowded with 100 students and their friends waiting for the start in the fall races between the college crews. Suddenly it gave way and precipitated them into the water below. Fortunately the tide was low and nobody was drowned. Twelve persons were injured, several of them seriously.

FOREIGN.

At the English Liberal Conference in Leeds, on Wednesday, Mr. John Morley, the presiding officer, expressed a strong opinion that the Government should bring in the County Franchise Bill at the next session of Parliament, because the whole Liberal party of the House of Commons, excepting, perhaps, Mr. Goschen, was united in believing that the question could no longer be delayed. If the House of Lords raised an objection to the measure, it would be very dangerous for them. Dr. Dale moved a resolution, which was carried, asserting that it is the duty of the Government to introduce a bill dealing with the county franchise at the next session of Parliament. A motion that any measure for the extension of suffrage should confer the elective franchise upon women fit to vote, was also carried. At the session on Thursday, resolutions were adopted in favor of the redistribution of seats in Parliament; condemning the action of the House of Commons in refusing to allow Mr. Bradlaugh to take his seat therein; and favoring the abolition of Parliamentary oaths, as well as the shortening of the period of time required for the qualification of voters. The Conference then adjourned after a very harmonious session.

A public meeting of the Liberals was held in the Town Hall in the evening. Mr. John Bright presided, and made a speech, in which he said that it was absolutely necessary, if any progress was to be made on the question of Parliamentary reform, that the question of suffrage be dealt with first in a separate bill. He recommended that the Government deal during the coming session with County Suffrage and the London Corporation Reform Bills. He expressed the opinion that a question soon to be met was the reconciliation of the two houses of Parliament, both to be made equally responsive to the national wants.

Sir Stafford Northcote is making a tour of Wales and addressing assemblages of voters.

An indictment charging O'Donnell with the murder of James Carey was brought into court in London on Wednesday by the Grand Jury. O'Donnell pleaded "Not guilty." At the request of counsel his trial was postponed until November 21.

General Pryor, O'Donnell's American counsel, in an interview in London, said he was satisfied that O'Donnell killed Carey in self-defence. He said it would be proved beyond question at the trial that O'Donnell went to Africa with no design of killing Carey, and was unaware of the latter's presence on board the steamer when he embarked.

Mr. Moody has been annoyed in his revival meetings at Cork, Ireland, by ruffians who make a disturbance outside of the hall. He is now saved from further interference by the police.

Mr. Lowell, the United States Minister to Great Britain, will be nominated a candidate for the rectorship of the Scotch University of St. Andrews.

Mr. J. W. Mackey and Mr. James Gordon Bennett signed a contract on September 28 with Messrs. Siemens Brothers for two transatlantic cables, which are already in process of construction at the works of Messrs. Siemens Brothers, near London. The first cable will be open to the public about June 1.

The Cambridgeshire Stakes were won at the Newmarket races, in England, on Tuesday, by H. T. Barclay's colt Bendigo.

An explosion in a Yorkshire (England) colliery on Thursday night killed twenty miners who were in the pit.

Capt. Mayne Reid, the novelist and traveller, died at his residence in London on Sunday night, at the age of sixty-five. He was a native of the North of Ireland, but when twenty years of age his love of adventure led him to this country, where he began life as a trader in New Orleans. He made long journeys into the interior of this country, and became well acquainted with Indian life, which furnished him with subjects for his novels. Among the best known of his stories are 'The White Chief' and 'Afloat in the Forest.'

The Paris *Temps* denies that the French Government has arrived at any decision regarding the amount of indemnity to be paid to Mr. Shaw, the English missionary.

The Paris *Figaro*, on Tuesday, asserted that England had sent a note to France complaining of the prolonged occupation of Tamatave, to the injury of commercial interests.

General Campenon, French Minister of War, will, it is said, devote all his energy to reforming the system of mobilizing the army. The prospect of a war with Germany appears, it is rumored, to be uppermost in his mind.

The French Senate and Chamber of Deputies reassembled on Tuesday. M. Tirard introduced his draft of the budget, although it had been severely criticised and rejected by the Budget Committee, because, while affecting to show an equilibrium, it really shows a deficit of 65,000,000 francs. It is rumored that M. Tirard will resign from the Ministry.

On the same day the Yellow Book was issued. It recounts the operations of the French forces in Tonquin, and says their position in that country has materially improved. They now can move freely to all parts of the Red River delta and hold all the strategic points in that territory. The Mandarins who still resist the French authority will be removed by envoys of the King of Anam, and the people are regaining confidence. The Anamite troops have been disbanded, and the Black Flags have retreated from their positions. The French army now only awaits reinforcements to complete the pacification of the country. The book also gives at length the details of the negotiations with China, which have been conducted, it says, in good temper on both sides. China indicates her willingness to come to terms, but declines to accede to the demands of France.

In concluding the details of the negotiations the Yellow Book says that on August 18 the Government of China submitted proposals involving the evacuation of Tonquin by the French troops, the maintenance of the suzerainty of China over the territory, and the opening of certain towns to the benefits of trade. These proposals were rejected. A counter proposal was submitted by France on September 15 for a neutral zone between China and Tonquin. This proposition was declined by China on October 16, that Government declaring that she would accept a neutral zone only on the southern instead of upon the northern frontier of Tonquin; while, it was stated, she was also willing to make arrangements for the opening of the Red River delta to trade. The account concludes: "Thus China demands the whole of northern Anam and the French evacuation thereof, allowing us only the southern provinces. There is no doubt that the arrival of the reinforcement expedition will promptly terminate the work so gallantly begun in Tonquin. France is still ready to negotiate with China in a friendly spirit."

Lieutenant Viard, who was the author of the report printed in the Paris *Figaro* that the French sailors massacred the natives at Hué, has been removed from active service. The report is officially declared to be false.

Reports concerning an approaching war with foreigners are circulating in the interior of China, and the people in Yunnan believe that the Chinese army is preparing to wage a war of extermination against all foreigners. The Viceroy of Canton objects to foreigners traversing the streets of the city. He has 10,000 men concentrated in the neighborhood of Canton, ostensibly on account of anticipated popular commotion, but doubtless really in readiness to resist an expected French attack. A decisive action of the French forces from Hanoi against the Black Flags at Bacninh is impending.

The Paris *Gaulois* announces that Prince Jerome Napoleon is determined to publish a political manifesto.

The Duc de Fernan-Nuñez insists upon withdrawing from the Spanish Embassy at Paris despite the urgent representations made to him by the Spanish Cabinet, which has hitherto refused to accept his resignation. Meanwhile he has obtained two months' leave of absence and will quit France immediately.

The Spanish Cabinet has resolved to summon the Cortes to meet on December 1. A royal decree has been issued providing that henceforth general officers shall hold staff appointments for only three years.

The circular of General Lopez-Dominguez, Spanish Minister of War, to the Captains-General of the army, was officially published in Madrid on Friday. The War Minister dwells on the great necessity for extensive army reforms, and asks the army to rally round the King. He expresses the hope that the Captains-General will coöperate with him in perfecting the organization and discipline of the army, by which they will earn the gratitude of their country, and inspire foreign nations with respect for Spain. The Spanish Minister of Finance and the Minister of Foreign Affairs on Friday received the delegates of the Tariff Reform Society. The former said to the delegation that he hoped to be able to introduce all the financial reforms that the country required. The Foreign Minister said he would do his utmost to conclude treaties of commerce between Spain and all other nations.

Three shocks of earthquake in quick succession were felt at Gibraltar soon after Friday midnight, and another at 2 o'clock on Saturday morning.

A series of earthquakes on the peninsula between Tchesme in Asia Minor, opposite the island of Chios, and Vurla, on the southern coast of the Gulf of Smyrna, has destroyed many villages in that region. It was believed that about 1,000 lives were lost on the mainland, but later reports reduce the number to about 200. There is great suffering among the survivors. The Porte has issued a notice stating that 20,000 persons are homeless and pleading for immediate assistance. Chios and other islands of the Grecian Archipelago were visited by the earthquake. The Grecian Government has sent two men-of-war with supplies for the sufferers to the scene of the disaster.

The corner-stone of the church which is to be erected upon the spot where Emperor Alexander II. was killed, was laid on Thursday in St. Petersburg by the Czar and Czarina, with imposing ceremonies, in the presence of the court officials, the nobility, and a vast concourse of people.

A recent number of the Socialist paper, *Will of the People*, which has been distributed in St. Petersburg, contains a letter from the Nihilist prisoner Netchazheff to the Czar. Netchazheff was condemned ten years ago, and was supposed to be dead. The writer complains of the inhumanity of the prison officials, and of the terrible treatment to which he and his fellow-prisoners are subjected. The original letter was written in blood. It has created a sensation in St. Petersburg.

The Vatican is arranging a convention with Prussia providing for the improvement of the relations between that country and the Holy See, and for the restoration to their dioceses of those bishops who have been expelled from the country.

A crisis occurred in the Portuguese Cabinet on Sunday, owing to troubles connected with the approaching municipal elections. The Ministers of the Interior and Marine resigned. On Monday a new Cabinet was announced. It was further modified on Tuesday.

A farewell ball was given by the citizens of Quebec, on Friday night, to the Marquis of Lorne and the Princess Louise.

Lord Lansdowne, the new Governor-General of Canada, arrived at Quebec on Monday night. There were disturbing rumors afloat during Sunday and Monday of Fenian plots to murder him, but no foundation in fact has been revealed. He did not land from the steamer until Tuesday morning, when he received the oath of office with great ceremony, and delivered a speech in reply to an address of welcome.

Two suspicious characters were arrested in Halifax, N. S., on Wednesday evening. In their baggage were found a number of dynamite cartridges and other explosives. It is supposed that they are Irish-Americans who are in a plot to destroy the public buildings in Halifax.

It was announced in Lima, Peru, on Sunday, that a treaty of peace had been signed on Saturday night at Ancon between the Chilian Government and General Iglesias.

At 8 A. M. on Tuesday General Lynch and the Chilian troops left Lima for Barranco, near Chorillos, where he established his "general cuartel." At 10 A. M. General Iglesias entered Lima as "Presidente Regenerador."

Order has been completely restored at Port-au-Prince, Hayti. Fifteen hundred lives were lost and damage to the extent of $4,000,000 was done during the recent massacre.

CHEAP NEWSPAPERS.

THE *Pall Mall Gazette*, speaking the other day of the change in the price of the *Herald* and *Times* of this city, characterized it as one of the signs of the tendency of the prices of all newspapers to a minimum, newspapers being now the one commodity which never rises. It is quite true that enormous pecuniary successes in cheap journalism have been achieved, particularly in England, where the penny *Telegraph* and *Daily News* are among the most valuable properties in the world. The *Figaro* and one or two others have obtained a similar success in France, though at a higher price. But, nevertheless, there is some reason for believing that the experiment of very cheap newspapers has not yet been fully tried. It never will be fully tried until there are more of them—or, in other words, until the competition among them becomes keener. The *Daily News* and *Telegraph* owe their great circulation largely to the fact that they were the first metropolitan newspapers to be sold for a penny. They thus at once got hold of the very large public which had been contenting itself with borrowing the *Times* at a penny an hour, or taking it later in the day at half-price. To this class a newspaper, with all the news, which they could become possessed of every day early in the morning for a penny, seemed, and really was, a great luxury. The first members of the penny press profited, moreover, by the first results of increasing popular education and the extension of the suffrage. In truth, they found a new field, which they at once occupied. The question still remains to be decided how large a field it is—that is, how many penny papers it can accommodate.

Much of the talk about the future of the cheap press is based on the notion that the demand for newspapers is practically unlimited. It is really nothing of the sort. In England and other countries in which popular education is only just beginning to tell on the number of readers, the demand for them for a few years to come will doubtless increase, but even there the limit cannot be very far off. For newspapers, if they differ from most other commodities in the fact that, as far as we have yet seen, their price always tends to a minimum, differ also in the fact that hardly anybody wants more of them as he grows richer. This is not true of any other article of daily use. As a man's wealth increases he generally buys more tea, coffee, sugar, cotton, and linen, and horses and carriages, carpets, wine, clothing, and so forth. But nobody spends more on newspapers when his circumstances improve. The rich man does not take five dailies where the poor man takes only one. Almost everybody reads one or two newspapers a day; very few read more than two, or can be got to read them by any inducement whatever. A man is often induced to subscribe for them by the "special inducements," such as chromos and other "premiums." But it is rare for a man to read a paper which comes to him in this way, or to remain a subscriber to it longer than the "premium" made necessary. It may, indeed, be laid down as a rule that the circulation of the daily press increases with the population and not the wealth of the country, which cannot be said of any other object of daily consumption.

Nor is there any other article so widely used the price of which is so near the minimum. One of the great difficulties of the two-cent press is, or rather will be when competition becomes sharper and begins to press more closely on the limits of expansion, that the price is literally a "bottom price." All other dealers have room to come down, if they are willing to make sacrifices to ruin a rival, but to the two-cent press only one-cent reduction is possible. For less than one cent it would not be possible to sell a paper in any country in the world, because nobody will take newspapers, like apples, two for a cent, or three for two cents. There are only two resources left, therefore, when competition becomes very keen—one is to increase the size of the paper, by way of giving the buyer more for his money. But the publisher who attempts this every day by way of outdoing his competitors really repudiates the two-cent idea. The two-cent idea is that the newspaper reader wants something very light and short for his daily reading; that he is repelled by many pages, or many articles, or long articles. He desires something neat, compact, and condensed. In so far as the paper is enlarged, however, this idea is departed from. The ordinary newspaper buyer does not want as much matter as there is in a monthly or quarterly magazine furnished to him every day. An attempt to furnish him with it on week days would probably disgust, repel, or weary him. In other words, it will never do to publish a Sunday paper on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday.

The other resource is to change the character of the contents; and it is in this direction, as far as we can see, that the competition between the cheap papers is likely to run after the bottom price has been reached. Each will try to furnish for the cent more of the kind of matter which he thinks one-cent readers like; and, as far as we can judge from observation, what he thinks they like is less attention to the quality of the news and more to the quantity of it; plenty of scandalous and criminal intelligence; lighter and more flippant discussion of the news, and much ferocious personality. The two-cent papers have not, by any means, all begun to furnish this, but anybody who observes a cheap press closely will find that the tendency in this direction is strong and steady, and makes perceptible progress. In other words, he will find in it many signs of contempt for the two-cent public, a low view of its tastes and standards, both moral, intellectual, and political, and a cynical readiness to meet them. One of the most marked features in this tendency is a disposition to drop all expensive matter from the paper, such as accurate news, and substitute bogus despatches and small jokes. Small jokes probably cost less than any kind of reading; they are consequently much in demand in the cheap press. In Paris, the press of which is worth studying as an example of the form which cheap journalism is not unlikely to take, should the competition continue to grow, daily papers are frequently started which only appear for two or three days, the capital of the proprietors being exhausted within that period. The contents consist almost wholly of small scurrilous jokes and scandalous anecdotes, and the office is probably in a café.

The truth is, that the apostles of the cheap press enormously exaggerate the newspaper-reading capacity of mankind, and their expectations about its future are probably wildly extravagant. In fact, we are likely, during the next twenty-five years, to see the production of newspapers greatly overdone, like production in some other articles which have no foreign outlet. Newspapers cannot be forced on the community any more than blankets without a heavy reduction in price; and the press now, as we have said, has hardly any room for reduction without becoming waste paper. Few need more than one newspaper, and one cannot, do his best, spend more than a certain time in reading it. It is not at all improbable, too, that the supply of newspaper humor and scurrility may be found during the same period greater than the market will bear. There are signs already that it has begun to pall on the public, and that a reaction against it is among the possibilities of the near future. Men tire of everything of which they get plenty, sooner or later. Even drunkards are said to be made to loathe whiskey by having all their food saturated with it. The two-cent and one-cent people are in fact not at all unlikely to turn on their purveyors and rend them for taking too low a view of their taste and capacity.

THE HORSE SHOW.

IT is at first sight somewhat surprising that the National Horse Show which opened on Monday should be the first of its kind in the United States, considering the long standing and great success of similar exhibitions in England, and the strong love of horseflesh which is one of the American characteristics. One reason of this is, that the country is so large, and distances, therefore, so great, and the means of horse transportation hitherto so imperfect, that a really representative collection of American horses has been almost impossible. Another is, that the attention of breeders—at the North, at least—has been hitherto almost exclusively devoted to trotters, and trotters are in most cases not much to look at, and trotting courses and trotting matches are very common all over the country; so that a show of trotters, most of which would of course have only an ordinary record, would not be a supremely attractive spectacle for horse lovers.

Within a few years, however, the condition of the horse world has greatly changed. Communication has been greatly improved and cheapened. Much greater variety has been introduced into the breeding. We are now beginning to breed good carriage, saddle, and cart horses, as well as trotters, in various parts of the country. The wonder is we did not begin sooner. A good part of the disrepute into which horse-breeding has fallen as a remunerative business has been due to its being so much confined to thoroughbreds for racing purposes and trotters. Nobody who is not prepared to lose money, and plenty of it, can en-

gage in the raising of either of these; and, as a matter of fact, it has been rather the amusement of rich sporting men than the regular occupation of men who want a fair profit on their capital. The reason is, that a thoroughbred or trotter which cannot take his place among the 50 or 100 fastest horses in the country, is good for very little. A slow thoroughbred is, in fact, a very nearly worthless animal, unless in the very cases in which he has an abnormal amount of bone and sinew. In these he makes an excellent saddle horse, but only for a light weight and good rider; or an excellent harness horse for light vehicles, but only for a good driver—for his temper is exceedingly uncertain and his nerves generally in a condition of excitability. But powerful thoroughbreds are few in number. Those one sees under the saddle here are very apt to be the refuse of racing stables—weedy brutes, of which their riders are afraid, and which owe most of their value to their pedigree, that ought to be simply a feather in a good horse's bridle, but which many people accept as a substitute for wind, and bottom, and power, and gentleness, and beauty. The same thing is true, with a few changes, of the trotting horse. If he does not show signs at three years old of being able to get down below 2·30, he nowadays brings only the price of the most ordinary roadster. He has rarely weight enough to be of much use either as a saddle or draught horse, and, indeed, a horse trained for trotting speed in harness can rarely be converted into a good saddle horse. His mouth and girth are apt to be spoilt for riding purposes.

The general result of this state of things has been to give horse-breeding on a large scale the character either of amusement or gambling. Few have attempted it heretofore without a long purse, and even those who attempt it with a long purse are apt to get very sick of it before many years. Most of our breeding for ordinary purposes at the North has, in fact, been done by farmers, out of old mares that have gone lame or are past their work, and with but little attention to points, and little thought of any excellence except trotting speed. Few good saddle horses, up to anything but the lightest weight, have until lately been bred at the North, and perhaps still fewer good carriage horses. It is only within a very few years that short-backed, cob-built horses, with power in the shoulders and quarters, equal to heavy weight in the saddle or on wheels, have begun to show themselves in the market. And yet for such horses there is now a practically unlimited demand, both here and in England. The breeding of them offers really all the advantages of a steady and lucrative business to anybody who understands horse-breeding, because there need be none, or but little, of the uncertainty about it which marks the breeding of thoroughbreds or trotters, in which a man may readily produce 500 two-year-olds without getting one that will win a race or make a mile in 2·20.

A saddle or carriage horse, on the other hand, does not need to display extraordinary speed to bring a good price in the market. If he is good-looking, powerful, good-tempered, sound, and can trot twelve miles an hour, he is a valuable horse, and is sure to be snapped up either in any of our cities or in Liverpool or London. A good breeder need have no difficulty in producing such horses every year by the score. The taste for the saddle, which is happily spreading at the North, makes the demand for good saddle horses now practically unlimited, and has totally changed the popular notion about the nature of a saddle horse. The farmer's and livery-stable-keeper's idea of a saddle horse in this part of the country has been, until lately, a horse that would not go in harness at all, or was very slow, or unsound—a horse, in other words, which was of but little use for any real work. The growing demand for saddle horses, however, by people willing to pay good prices for them, has brought them in great numbers from the South, mainly from Virginia and Kentucky, and has done a good deal to open Northern eyes to the fact that the good saddle horse is the highest type of horse, and that the first question to ask about a horse you want for harness is whether he would carry a man well on his back. If he can do this, he is good for anything, because to do it he needs not only ordinary soundness, but power everywhere, and, in addition to power, good temper, docility, courage, and thorough command of his limbs. A horse may go very well in harness long after his knees or his back has weakened, or his eyes have begun to fail him; but to make him safe in the saddle, he must be sound as a bell, and strong—able, in short, to go anywhere and do anything. A saddle horse is, in fact, the ideal horse, and has been so in all the great horse countries since the Shepherd Kings began to breed him in Upper Egypt.

Somebody who did not know well what he was talking about, has lately sneered in the press at the managers of the coming show, for making "hunters" a class to themselves, as something un-American, and therefore ridiculous. The young men who have introduced hunters into this part of the country, by getting up fox and anise-seed-bag chases, have perhaps their laughable side, but their absurdities or affectations must not blind us to the fact that in introducing the hunter they have introduced what is really, for all purposes except speed or heavy draught, the best horse in the world, and the horse which every American breeder ought to cultivate. The hunter is simply a horse that jumps well, and that gallops hard and long with a heavy weight on his back. This means a horse of great pluck, power, bottom, and agility, or, in other words, the most valuable kind of horse a man can have. That his great qualities are used for a purpose which many people think absurd, is nothing against him. He is still the best horse one can put into a carriage or wagon—supposing him to be, as all good hunters are, half or three-quarter bred—and the best horse man or woman can mount. A hunter's goodness includes all kinds of goodness. In fact, there is no situation in which all a horse's powers are so brought out as in flying across country. A horse that can do this well can do anything. Those who wish to improve the breed of horses in America, therefore, do well to encourage the hunters, and can do so with perfectly good conscience, even if some people use them in ways which some think silly. There is every reason to believe that the show will be one of the most interesting spectacles we have ever had in this city, and that it will reveal for the first time the very great progress which has been lately made by American dealers and breeders in supplying horses for real work, both for saddle, harness, and heavy draught.

THE ENGLISH RADICALS AND MINORITY REPRESENTATION.

The representation of minorities occupied much of the attention of political philosophers twenty-five years ago, and some experiments in the application of it on a small scale have been made in this country and in England, to say nothing now of more elaborate experiments elsewhere. The idea of minority representation is, of course, to get a fairer and more correct expression of public opinion than can be obtained when simple majorities elect. The motive for minority representation is dissatisfaction with majority rule. But majority rule is the practical principle of democracy, as political equality is its dogmatic basis. Minority representation is, therefore, a limitation on democracy, just as representative institutions are a limitation on monarchy, or the restriction of taxing powers to the Commons a limitation on aristocracy. Experience shows that no depositary of political power chafes against restraints more impatiently than a Democratic majority.

So far as we have learned, the experiments in minority representation have not succeeded in arousing anybody's enthusiasm. The interest in them has declined. The hopes of better political organization—especially of the modification of the evils, without loss of the benefits, of party government—have been disappointed. No body of men have come to regard minority representation as a guarantee of important rights or a protection of great interests. Therefore, if the institution is attacked, few will rally to its defence. It has certainly never won popularity with the mass. It runs counter to their prejudices and to the set of their political habits and opinions. We have heard a popular meeting instruct a committee to secure a change of law "so that we can vote for these officers as we do for others." The politicians have never liked the device. They always work for victory, and minority representation seems to them only to curtail the profits of a victory when it has been won.

The English Liberals, at their recent conference, passed a resolution condemning minority representation as hostile to "popular representative institutions." It is, no doubt, the voice of politicians or political leaders which is heard here. The point which interests us, however, is not that they have now thrown over a device which was very popular with the advanced thinkers twenty years ago, but that the reason which they give shows what advanced thinking is to-day. Is minority representation hostile to popular representative institutions, or have we here another instance of the old political device of false identification? Minority representation is hostile to majority rule, but is majority rule

to be identified completely and directly with popular representative institutions? It certainly is not. It is easy to win popular effect, and to establish a prejudice, by such an unexpressed and false identification, but it is a very mischievous error and a capital illustration of the danger of loose thinking in politics.

If it is possible to adopt institutions which can properly be called popular and representative, then we have such in this country, but majority rule has never been raised here to the rank of a political dogma, or regarded as anything more than a convenient but very imperfect device for reaching certain ends. If we try to use majority rule as a "principle," the women immediately confront us with the first question: "Majority of whom?" Connecticut still has a borough representation. In the representative systems of our States and the Union, we are familiar with the fact that majority rule is violated over and over again by the district system. In electing a President we use an institution—the Electoral College—which has given us a minority President several times. The legislation of Congress is controlled, through the rules of order, by a two-thirds vote, and not by a simple majority. In case of a veto a similar vote is necessary to enact a law, and a successful veto is the most striking violation possible of majority rule. An amendment to the Constitution can only be adopted by a two-thirds vote of both houses, together with the assent of three-quarters of the States. In all these cases the obvious intention of the Constitution-makers was to give a minority, of a certain proportionate magnitude, power to arrest action, and the motive of violating majority rule was to secure rights in certain very important and delicate cases more perfectly than could be done by majority rule—perhaps even to protect rights against the majority itself. Undoubtedly popular opinion has elevated majority rule to the sanctity of a "great principle of free government," but we have had frequent and abundant occasion to rejoice that our institutions have never been moulded or controlled by a determination to fill out a political phrase or the dogmatic description of a pet device to the full measure of a literal realization. We have had a great deal of political dogmatizing and declamation, but in fact and practice we have lived under a practical working system which aims to guarantee rights whether it satisfies the political speculators or not. We regard majority rule not as an end, but as a means. The only end we acknowledge is good government. If we can attain this better by majority rule than otherwise, we employ that means. If we can attain the end better by some modification of majority rule, we do not hesitate to adopt the modification. Even "popular representative institutions," which, as we have seen, cannot, without grave error, be confounded with majority rule, owe all their claim to our respect to the fact that they guarantee good government better than any other political arrangements which have yet been devised. Therefore it by no means suffices for the condemnation of any political device to declare that it is hostile to popular representative institutions, even when such institutions are correctly defined. It would yet remain to inquire whether the new device might not be a valuable improvement, tending to a more complete realization of good government.

It is very possible that minority representation, when tested on its merits by the experiment, has not proved to be a valuable improvement. If so, it will pass away. No interest will attach to it. It will cost no regret. It is, however, of the first importance that our political thinking be careful and correct, especially when it turns about popular phrases and current notions. The distinction which we have been noticing is no less than that between the development of political systems by considerations of expediency or in accordance with absolute dogmas. The English radicals seem to be tending toward the latter method, which has been going out of fashion in this country during the present generation. It would be a great misfortune for us if it should be revived by one of those reflex influences from the other side of the water with which we are familiar.

THE METROPOLITAN OPERA-HOUSE.

"Faust" was a good work to choose for the opening night of the new Opera-house. It contains a greater variety of vocal and orchestral effects than any one of the popular Italian operas (except "Aïda" and "Mefistofele"), and it therefore enabled the audience to form an estimate of the acoustic qualities of the house, while at the same time it contains a sufficient number of arias to please those whose only desire is to hear the vocalists display their accomplishments. There are many points of interest to be considered in connection with Monday evening's performance—the return of several favorite singers, the appearance of the new house, the attitude of the audience, the new conductor, with his chorus and orchestra, and the musical qualities of the auditorium. But all these points are logically overshadowed by the question how it is that a number of wealthy people can combine and spend $2,000,000 in erecting one of the largest and most sumptuous opera-houses in the world, fitting it up with costly and elaborate scenery, securing some of the most high-priced and highly-prized artists, with a most "brilliant" audience to witness their efforts, and then allow the first night to end in disappointment on account of slovenly stage-management. There was an excuse for beginning half an hour after the appointed time, because the throng of carriages was so great that it was impossible for the 3,000 people unacquainted with the arrangements of the auditorium to reach their seats any sooner. But there was no excuse for having an intermission of nearly half an hour between the acts, thus protracting the performance till nearly 1 o'clock. By that time a large proportion of the spectators had left the house, while those who had remained to the end were hardly in the physical condition to enjoy properly the fine music of the last two acts. If the scene-shifters were unable to do their work in less time, they should have had a greater number of rehearsals or less elaborate scenery to deal with. The consequence of this mismanagement was that everybody felt bored, and this was a bad omen for such an occasion.

The first of the singers who made his appearance was Signor Campanini. He had the good taste not to acknowledge the ill-timed applause with which he was greeted, at the expense of a fine orchestral passage; and if he had had the tact to ignore likewise the gigantic bouquets with which he and Mme. Nilsson were overloaded, he would deserve an additional compliment. An opera-house is not a flower market, nor a tenor a dray-horse. Campanini's voice has not entirely recovered from the effects of over-use, which were so conspicuous before he left us a year ago. Occasionally his high notes gave evidence of effort, but in some of the cantabile passages his voice was as clear and sweet as of old. His favorite mezza-voce effects, which are so much admired by some, are lost in the vast space of the auditorium. Mme. Nilsson's *Marguerite* was a charming picture of the artless German maiden, and her acting gained interest through many well-studied realistic details, while her voice proved to be the same as last year—rich, pure, mellow, flexible, and expressive. The "jewel" song has been sung heretofore with greater spontaneity and ease by Mme. Patti, and by Mme. Nilsson too. Mme. Scalchi's voice pervaded the house better than any other, and she secured warm applause and an encore. Mlle. Lablache took the part of *Marta* at short notice, Mme. Lablache having been prevented from appearing by the terms of her contract with Mr. Mapleson. Her efforts were satisfactory, as was also Signor Del Puente's acting and singing. Signor Novara's voice seemed to be completely lost in the vast auditorium, and his acting, which was otherwise praiseworthy, was somewhat too exaggerated. Precision and good quality of tone characterized the ensemble numbers, which seems to indicate that the chorus consists of good material. The scenery presented some admirable details—as, for instance, the cathedral in the background of the second act, the vision of *Marguerite*, and the various retorts, skeletons, and other paraphernalia of *Faust's* study-room.

If the undeniably fine cast which was employed on Monday did not produce so favorable an impression as had been anticipated, this must be in part ascribed to the fact that the vocalists were as yet unaccustomed to their surroundings, and also apparently to the acoustic defects of the house. We say apparently, because it is impossible to pronounce an absolute judgment after hearing a single opera from one part of the house. So much, however, seems to be clear: that only the strongest voices have any opportunity of asserting themselves, and that even they will have to make a constant effort, which in the long run will prove detrimental to them. Florid Italian operas, with their simple guitar accompaniments, are not suited for such a place; but if this should speed their departure from the repertory, we should be the last to complain. There is, however, a class of works, like the comic operas of Mozart and Auber, which must be preserved; and for these another home must be found—which suggests the possibility of the co-existence of two opera-houses, provided a proper division of labor is made, instead of both managers harping on the same tune. We only fear that the auditorium of the Metropolitan Opera-house is too large even for grand opera. The projectors have been carried too far by the American craving for having the largest of its kind in the world. There is a limit to the size of a hall in which music can be properly enjoyed. Superb effects were indeed produced at Mr. Thomas's May Festival in the immense Seventh Regiment Armory, but this was done by augmenting the orchestra to just four times the size of that presided over by Signor Vianesi. Sound, of course, can be heard at a greater distance than the top gallery of the new house, but, as Berlioz says, the "musical fluid," or the unknown cause of musical emotion, is without force, warmth, or vitality at a certain distance from its point of departure,

The hearer must "vibrate" with the instruments and voices to be deeply moved, and we must confess, for our part, that on Monday evening we did not "vibrate." We were bored.

In justice to the architect, it must be stated that the conditions under which "Faust" was heard on this occasion were not in every respect those intended by him. He had followed Wagner's excellent plan (already suggested by Goethe and Grétry) of lowering the orchestra so as to place the scraping and blowing musicians out of sight of the audience, and give the vocalists, in contending with the orchestra, a better chance of sending their notes with unabated force to the ears of the spectators, and enable them to understand the words of the text. But Signor Vianesi objected to this arrangement, and the orchestra was raised almost to a level with the parquet. It is to be hoped that this arrangement is only temporary, and that when "Lohengrin" or one of Meyerbeer's operas is given, the orchestra will be put again in the place assigned to it by the architect, so as to give the critics and the public an opportunity to test the justifiableness of Signor Vianesi's arbitrary proceeding. In one other respect the architect deserves credit, for following, at least partially, the precedent of the Wagner Theatre at Bayreuth. There the auditorium is completely separated from the stage by an "abyss" which produces a stereoscopic effect and greatly adds to the illusion. This abyss Mr. Cady has not introduced, but he has, at any rate, refrained from building his proscenium boxes right up to the stage, and this is a great advantage to those in the audience who care more for the artistic aspect of opera than for the social. In the Paris Opéra some of the boxes are actually built *on* the stage; but Paris has long ceased to be a model for imitation in musical matters.

Next to perfect acoustics the most important desideratum in an opera-house is physical comfort and safety. The most sublime performance cannot be appreciated by one who feels as if he were in a Turkish bath, and who does not know what moment he will be roasted alive. The facilities of the Metropolitan Opera-house for exit and for extinguishing a fire are unsurpassed by those of any similar house in the world. The seats are the widest and most comfortable ever introduced in a theatre, and there are arrangements for cooling the atmosphere by means of a large fan. The aspect of the house is cheerful if somewhat monotonous. The ceiling produces a pleasant impression, and the dome, with its wide circle of brilliant gas jets, is an immense improvement on the ugly chandelier which disfigures so many auditories and impedes the view of those who occupy the best seats in the upper galleries. The absence of ornament and the prevailing yellow tint are more noticeable when the house is empty than when it is occupied by the fashion and beauty of the metropolis. The reproach of monotony in tint and ornament cannot be made on good grounds. The less there is in the auditorium to distract the attention of the audience the better for the opera and the singers. For this reason Wagner dispensed with all ornament in his theatre, and even arranged his seats in semicircular fashion, so as to take away all temptation for making a display of millinery. From an artistic and musical point of view the large number of boxes in the Metropolitan Opera-house is a decided mistake. But as the house was built avowedly for social purposes rather than artistic, it is useless to complain about this, or about the fact that the opportunity was not taken to make of the building itself, externally, an architectural monument of which the city might be proud.

THE CHANNEL ISLANDS.

NEW FOREST, HAMPSHIRE, Oct. 8.

WE have just landed after a fortnight's voyaging among the Channel Islands. The impressions they leave upon the mind of an Irishman who has visited them for the first time, may not be uninteresting to American readers. The existence of these outlying possessions of the British Crown rests but little upon our minds; perhaps as little as does the existence of Ireland, except for the annoyance it occasions, upon the minds of average Englishmen. How much less, then, are the Islands likely to occupy you? After a ten days' voyage, with the absorbing interests of Europe before him, the American is not likely to tempt the chopping seas of the Channel in a small steamer for anything which these islands have to show. If he has read Victor Hugo's 'Les Travailleurs,' if he now reads Swinburne's "Les Casquettes," or if he remarks in the London National Gallery Copley's fine painting of the death of Major Pierson at Jersey, he will know all that he is likely to care to know about the Channel Islands. Yet their position and conformation are curious, their history is interesting, and their political and social condition presents problems worthy of attention.

The Channel Islands—extending, in a curve north and south, thirty-five miles—are situated in the French bay between the promontories of Normandy and Brittany. In sight of each other and of the French coast on a fine day, they are at their nearest points seven miles from France and sixty miles from England. They are, with their garrisons and fortresses, in truth, another Gibraltar, dividing the coastline of France as effectually as if Brest or Cherbourg had remained to England. Why their possession was never challenged by France during the Great War must be left to tacticians to explain. The chief port, St. Hélier, in Jersey, keeps up its principal communication with Southampton, 130 miles, and St. Malo, 40 miles, distant. The population of the Islands is 90,000; the total area 48,000 acres, one-third of which is waste. You would scarcely miss Ireland from one of your large States; Ireland would scarcely miss the Channel Islands from one of her large counties. They are for the most part table-lands, 200 to 300 feet high. There is some really splendid cliff and coast scenery; but it makes one smile to read in the guide-books that it is "not excelled in the wildest and grandest parts of the west coast of Ireland." There are four principal islands and a few smaller ones, for the most part surrounded by a perfect chevaux-de-frise of rocks and reefs, among which, even in the calmest weather, currents and tides boil and rush. He would be a foolhardy amateur that would venture by himself in a boat outside any of the pier-heads. The manner in which the masters of the trading sloops and steamers trust themselves among the remorseless rocks, generally sheeted with seething foam, shows the most perfect pilotage and the most absolute confidence in tackle and machinery.

That the Channel Islands should form part of the British Empire is one of the curiosities of history. They were in fact never conquered—they are all that remain to England of the land that conquered her. A portion of the feoffs of William Duke of Normandy, they continued faithful to John when he lost France, early in the 13th century; their autonomy, and laws, and language, and customs were respected, and they are now, as they have ever since been, one of the most enthusiastically loyal portions of the Empire. The Islanders have always been jealous of French influence, and in none of the Islands can a French subject own house or lands. They not only have a distinct government of their own, but distinct governments: Jersey, the largest and most southern island, forms one "bailiwick"; Guernsey, Alderney, Sark, and the islets, another. There is little connection between them. They have different laws, different patois, different moneys, weights, and measures. We saw Tauchnitz books for sale in Guernsey, and were told they were not allowed in Jersey. The Islands are not represented in the British Parliament. The Home Government garrisons (at its own expense) the forts, appoints and pays two governors, controls the post-office, and exercises the right of recommending to the acceptance of the "States" of the Islands laws, passed in the Imperial Parliament, which the Home Office thinks it is desirable the "States" should, for imperial purposes, accept or sanction. While we were in Jersey the "Explosives Act" was recommended to the "States" of Jersey, and they had ordered some copies to be printed with a view to taking it into consideration. The lighthouses are under the control of the Trinity Board, but are managed by local bodies. "The Queen in Council" exercises power, to me not as yet clearly defined. In every other respect (in *every* respect, perhaps, in which many of us Irish "extremists" would define Home Rule) they have Home Rule—in more than "every" respect; for they have control over their own customs and excise tariff, a right which I do not think could be pressed for in the settlement which must sooner or later come with Ireland. They have their own militia and police, their own land-laws, the control of their own education, the regulation of their own poor—the few there are of them—and of their own churches. They build their own piers and harbors, and splendid ones they are. The language of the people is a patois, perhaps the old Norman-French, diversified somewhat in the different "bailiwicks" and islands. The official language is French: all the notices and written documents of the courts are in French; also, I believe, the pleadings. We heard an English-speaking prisoner being tried in the police court; but when the depositions were read out, it was evident that they were being translated from the French.

There are two large towns, St. Hélier and St. Peter's Port, of 30,000 and 15,000 population respectively. They are well built, well paved, and clean, with fine markets, such as no city in Ireland can boast. On all sides are seen evidences of thriving comfort and contented civilization. The land is cut up into small-fielded holdings of twelve to thirty-six acres. A farm of 100 acres is rare. The residences are well built of stone, generally two-storied, with nine windows and a door in front. Pretty gardens abound, and flowers, in pots and trellised, are universal. There is no baby-house like neatness in the out offices or cultivation. All is for use and purpose, not for display, as is natural in a country where the owners have themselves to face hard work. A gentleman, settled in Jersey for some years, and who had resided in different parts of the world, told me he never knew more hard-working people.

I have no desire to draw a roseate picture. There are poor in these islands as there are in most places. Weakness and improvidence bear their fruits there as elsewhere. We saw a few children as dirty and untidy as almost any we should see at home in Ireland. We lived for some days in a one-storied thatched cabin on Sark, the ceilings of which we could touch. Our landlady was the wife of a tradesman earning only £20 a year, the renter of a few acres of land. She had five young children to look after and send off neat and clean to school every morning. She had to bake and churn, to wash, cook, and mend, besides in every way doing for

occasional lodgers like ourselves. She was a sweet-looking and sweet-mannered woman. We were given, as a matter of course, napkins and silver spoons, evidently heirlooms, and the drawers from which she took the linen for bed and table did not appear scantily furnished. Numbers of the young men and women of the Islands have to emigrate to sustain the position in which they were brought up. Such poverty as exists is no doubt largely due to intemperance. We were told excessive drinking was very prevalent—as indeed it well might be with brandy and gin at 4s. to 5s. 6d. per gallon. But we saw very few signs of it. We saw two sailors drunk on Sunday in St. Hélier, and another man slightly "under the influence."

Within the last twenty years Guernsey and Jersey have come to reap an annually increasing profit from shoals of summer visitors. For a few months the overcrowded cabins of the small screw steamboats which carry the mails from Southampton, must present in rough weather scenes of human misery and anguish difficult to equal. The hotels and lodging-houses are then crowded by tourists who traverse Guernsey and Jersey in large breaks, stopping every few miles, under plea of rest for the horses, to "refresh" or "lunch." They support fine shops and bazaars, where English-made jewelry and souvenirs are to be purchased at high prices. They practise neat little tricks in smuggling tobacco and flasks of spirits—also cigars, for which latter they generally pay the dealers much more than they could buy the same for at home. Moreover, the usual mildness of the climate, the cheapness of house rent, living, schooling, and the facilities afforded for children learning French under the British flag, attract numbers of permanent residents. French Huguenots sought refuge and freedom of worship in these islands during the bad days of Louis XIV. Many French Catholic families are now temporarily taking up their residence there so as to educate their children as they would wish under the care of the expelled orders. This was told me by an Irish priest, who, while looking forward hopefully to the future of his flock, complained of their want of enterprise in the present to avail themselves fully of the temporal advantages afforded by the land-laws and institutions.

Steam communication has enriched and is enriching the Islands by bringing the London market so near for the sale of their vegetables and fish, and of their grapes, the growth of which, under glass, is becoming an extensive industry. And America also, as well as England, is helping to enrich them, by a growing appreciation of their breed of cattle. I believe, however, that the Islands owe much of their prosperity to peasant proprietary—to the absence of that system of landlordism which, as practised at home, has well-nigh ruined Ireland. Professor Zincke, in a number of the *Fortnightly Review* in 1876, and Mr. Shaw Lefevre, in the same magazine in 1879, have exhausted this aspect of the condition of the Islands. My wish to visit them arose from reading those articles. The writers of both dwell almost more than I should upon this cause of the Islands' prosperity. The first cause of their prosperity is the character and habits of the people, enabling them to reconcile Home Rule with Imperial Rule, and to retain peasant proprietary without relapsing into sordid poverty, or adopting that system of landlordism and large estates which, amid all the comfort and civilization in this beautiful South of England, appears to me so great an evil. Next to the character and habits come without doubt *the* Home Rule, *the* Peasant Proprietary.

The Islands are almost exclusively Protestant, narrowly and sturdily Protestant, with all the grotesqueness and apparent weaknesses, but real strength, of Protestantism in its divisions and its dissents—divisions multiplied and accentuated by French and English-speaking congregations of most of the sects.

To those who are desirous more particularly to study the means by which, in Jersey especially, the Islanders have attained to such perfection in their breed of cattle and to such proficiency in the cultivation of early potatoes and grapes, I cannot do better than recommend a pamphlet —Jobanet's 'L'Île de Jersey: un mot d'histoire, le sol, le bétail, les pommes de terre, le raisin,' to be had of the publisher, Le Feuvre, St. Hélier.

I have only touched upon the many interesting considerations which a visit to the Channel Islands suggests. The thought and liberty there appear more Continental than Anglo-Saxon. Life passes somewhat in a side-eddy: there is a certain smallness and narrowness, and an absence of the wider interests and sympathies of the great world. To what extent would this be affected by the Islands bartering a portion of their autonomy and freedom from taxation for representation and consequent interest in the management of the affairs of the Empire of which they are a part? D. B.

THE AMSTERDAM EXPOSITION.

PARIS, September 30, 1883.

THE International Exposition at Amsterdam had been copiously heralded, and the newspapers have had a great deal to say about it ever since the opening. One got the notion somehow that it was to be the successor of the Philadelphia and Paris expositions. Amsterdam itself made great preparations. New hotels and cafés were opened, and provision of every sort made for the strangers who did not come—at least, until the Exhibition had been three months open. More than a fourth of the hotel accommodations for visitors were unoccupied in July, and it was not until late last month that "double prices" could be asked with any confidence. (It ought to be observed, in passing, that Dutch prices are normally the highest in western Europe: they probably conform to the monetary unit, the gulden, which is worth between two francs and two marks.) As a *naïf* café-waiter remarked to me: "The journals are to blame: they go and report that the Exposition *ne vaut pas grand'chose, et, naturellement, personne ne vient.*" In fact, it was a disappointment, though I had not observed the perfidy of the journals. The Paris papers were content, for the appreciable reason that the French display was extremely creditable: in so tangible a thing as a world's fair, the much-talked-of isolation of the Republic does not appear as yet. But of other countries, only Belgium and Holland with the Netherland colonies made a showing of any importance. The commercial greatness of the British Empire was chiefly evident in the contributions of its Australian connections, and these were vastly inferior to those sent to Philadelphia. The United States exhibit was noteworthy only from a humorous point of view. Of course there was an American bar, but that has become so inevitable a feature of European civilization as to have completely lost its exotic character, and it was served by British barmaids whose knowledge of cocktails must have been most elementary. Besides this there were some curious-looking minerals from Montana, surmounted by a label in bad French and an American flag of nine stripes, I think; some parlor organs from Ithaca, N. Y.; some bottled beer; a half-dozen patented school-desks, designed to seat two, and so, antiquated, I was told; and (perhaps the only truly characteristic contribution) a glass case whose contents celebrated the skill of a New York dentist, and consisted of several sets of artificial teeth, and also of a scarfpin made of a miniature reduction of the same, with a small vulcanite tongue saucily protruding between the ivory rows. It is in the face of such evidence as this that the American in Europe has occasionally to explain that his country is misunderstood abroad, and that, whatever may be observed in pioneer districts, on the Atlantic seaboard at least all classes of society are permeated with a sensitive refinement.

The architecture of an international exposition is generally one of its chief points of interest, but the architectural interest at Amsterdam was of the slightest. The main building was grotesque—a sort of fantaisie on Indian motives—immense heads of elephants and other Oriental animals in plaster contributing its only character to the principal façade, which was else of wood, covered with a kind of linen paper painted white. Nothing more flimsy in either constructional or artistic aspect could well have been designed. Its original is, perhaps, the Paris Eden Theatre, but that is at least of stone, and has a scheme of structure into which its Indian fantasticality is fitted. The new Rijks Museum, now being completed, and destined to contain the city's permanent collections, occupied one end of the grounds, and received from time to time a portion of the exhibits. It is a large and perfectly respectable edifice in pale red brick—perhaps as happy a modification of the ordinary Dutch architecture in a monumental direction as that architecture is capable of without loss of its generally domestic character. An occasional structure among the various ones strewn about the grounds was worth notice, as, for example, the pavilion of the city of Amsterdam, decorated exteriorly by a picture of merit. The fine-arts department was housed in a long wooden shed, the unventilated rooms of which the sun, beating on their low skylights, made ovens of. Near the entrance to the main building was a Javanese hut of bamboo, and hard by a palisaded enclosure, within which a group of Malays kept up a perpetual concert of their peculiar music, the meaning of which no Occidental—except perhaps a Batavian colonist —could, I think, justly pretend to appreciate. For months the machinery hall was apparently a mere limbo, the nature of the ground having proved a sufficient obstacle to the placing and keeping in motion of heavy machines. A French café-concert after the Champs-Élysées general pattern, in another quarter, did not seem very popular. Restaurants and tobacco kiosks constituted the rest of what seemed, both at first sight and after examination, a large fair rather than the much-talked-of "Tentoonstelling." But for the pictures, I should have found, on the whole, more interest at the American Institute.

It cannot be said that the picture-display itself reached to the proportions justly to be expected of a "Tentoonstelling." There was scarcely anything from England, nothing from the United States or Scandinavia, two or three of the merest daubs from Spain (two of whose painters got first medals at Munich); and the recent Italian renaissance, of which every one who saw the Exposition at Rome this spring appreciated the importance, was represented only by some pictures by Segantini. These last were, to be sure, of an excellence wholly unusual. Segantini, I am sure, will be one of the conspicuous painters of the next few years. His pictures have great delicacy, great refinement of sentiment, but he would be almost certain to lose by attempting more ambitious works. This is a feeling one cannot fail to associate with

one's admiration, at all events; and perhaps it is this which mainly distinguishes Segantini from Millet, with whom he has much in common. His subjects are like Millet's—sheep, peasants at work, twilight, tranquillity, with an undertone of effort, of labor, of burdens borne peacefully but inevitably. He has not Millet's incomparable pictorial versatility within these chosen limits, however; what he has to express becomes a trifle monotonous: one argues a delightful artistic sensitiveness rather than power. On the other hand, he has qualities which some of Millet's most important works would be none the less enjoyable, to my notion, for possessing, provided their individuality were kept in all its force: I mean a caressing touch which exhibits sensuousness in the mere handling, an avoidance of melancholy by purely artistic delight in the work, however sympathetic the subject, and—growing possibly out of this—an intense feeling for color in and for itself. In this last respect Segantini, though from Milan, is the inheritor of Venetian rather than of Lombard traditions.

The French display was large and creditable, as a display of French pictures always is, but it was not distinguished, and many of the canvases were very old friends, some of them dating from Salons of several years ago. M. Bastien-Lepage's two London subjects, the "Bootblack" and the "Flower-Girl," for example, had been exhibited previously both in London and Paris. M. Van Beers, the cleverest of all the photographic painters, and, by reason of a peculiar *sel* of his own, become a veritable celebrity, reserved his novelties for the Salon of this year. Many of the great names, Gérôme, Meissonier, Henner, were conspicuous by their absence, and one or two others by a representation wholly unworthy. The German painters were represented in fair force as to numbers, though the Düsseldorf element largely predominated, and I remember but one canvas of interest—a snow scene by Münthe. The transition to the Belgian department was agreeable, though many Belgian painters of eminence now paint in Paris, and are properly to be classed with the French school; and a good deal of the art that is strictly indigenous seems not to have made as many advances upon the period of Flemish tapestry (of which it preserves the traditions, with a good deal of apparent inelasticity) as the rise of the Leys school seemed at the time to promise.

It was naturally in the Dutch rooms that the principal attractions of the entire Tentoonstelling were to be found. The contemporary Dutch school is very well known in New York; it is even popular with us—popular in certain amateur and professional circles, to the exclusion of esteem for other foreign schools. Partly this appreciation proceeds from the exaggeration inseparable from exclusiveness of any sort, and partly it is thoroughly deserved. Now that of the Fontainebleau coterie Dupré alone is left, it would be impossible to find a set of painters anywhere whose feeling for what is poetically impressive in landscape is as strong as that of the very considerable number whose studio windows look out on the quiet shaded streets of the Hague, and who spend the summer months at salt and sandy Scheveningen. Elsewhere landscape painters are much more isolated, and do not count as a "school." But the contemporary Dutch school has manifest limitations which it is idle to overlook. To speak of a contemporary Dutch school in any department of painting but landscape would be to speak of what can hardly be said to exist at all. At their own Tentoonstelling there was scarcely a single really important work not a landscape. Of works of the imagination, strictly so called, picturesque or historical compositions illustrating human life, there were none at all of any dignity. Even the inheritance of seventeenth-century Dutch genre seems for the most part lost; perhaps it was frittered away by the Netschers and Mierises. Of course there were the two Israelses: Isaac, who passes for the Dutch Horace Vernet, which is perhaps a sufficient characterization; and Josef, who sent three large canvases. Josef Israels is a beautiful painter; his technique is true and frank, and yet extremely refined at the same time, and he delights in it with a true painter's delight. The melancholy subject he is always painting is, I fancy, a secondary thing with him, as it is probably with most of his admirers. But after a time one gets quite enough of any side of Josef Israels, perhaps because, from any point of view, and especially from that of pure art, his range is too limited, and his manner as monotonous as his material. Besides the Israelses, and except the landscapes, a good portrait by David Bles, a fine Frisian peasant-girl by Mme. Schwarze, who had evidently studied to excellent purpose the handling of Rembrandt's "Anna Six," and who paints with masculine power, and some white hollyhocks and grapes by Margaret Rosenboom, were nearly everything of note. But the interpretations of out-of-doors nature formed an array that it would be difficult to equal among the works of living painters any or everywhere. Mesdag was in superb force. He was good at the Salon, but here he outdid himself with three canvases of sea and sky and boats—one of them a sunset such as one sees sometimes at Newport, exquisite in its effect of slowly coming twilight. A sky shading somewhere near peacock-blue, by Taco; a bright and clear Rico-like effect, full of color at the same time, by Gabriel; a large shore piece by Mauve; two large James Marises, one a moonlight and the other the broadest day, the sentiment of each admirably rendered; some cows in a marshy pasture, by his brother William; a snow scene in the Hague, with an effect of moist rarefying air marvellously observed; a beach picture, with boats and people at intervals, of which the aerial perspective gave one as distinct a sensation as a color or an odor, by Weiszenbruch, are but a few of the many works of incontestably distinguished merit, to transcribe my notes of which would merely weary the reader. W. C. B.

Correspondence.

THE ENGLISH OF GERMAN COMMENTATORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the delightful specimens of the English of German commentators on Carlyle, Dickens, and Tom Hughes quoted in your article on "Theoretical English," it may be well to add a word on the English of a recent commentary on Chaucer. John Koch is known as one of the most accomplished of the new critics of Old English—accomplished both in French and English; a veteran editor and English philologist; a sharp censurer of syntactical and verbal slips; an opponent quite inexorable to the blunders of the alien tribe that dare invade his special field. But listen for a moment to some of the following remarks in English taken almost at random from a *Beilage* of his entitled 'A Critical edition of some of Chaucer's "Minor Poems"' (Berlin, 1883): "I think we ought to *render Chaucer*, as near as possible, his proper orthography"; "the sense does not *allow to omit* a word"; "lines deficient in one syllable in the beginning *are only a few left* in Professor Zupitza's edition"; "I have found scarcely any [irregular lines] in the Prologue, *nor* in the Poems I am going to publish"; "the space allotted to me is rather *scarce*," etc., etc.

After this the German commentators, however accomplished, had better confine themselves to their own language in their commentaries; or is English to undergo the fantastic evolution which Latin has undergone at the hands of the doctoral-dissertationists? J. A. H.

Lexington, Va., Oct. 12, 1883.

SOME CAUSES OF THE OHIO DEFEAT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of the causes of Republican defeat in Ohio you forget to note one point, viz: that the Republican party was weighted with the candidacy of Charles Foster for the United States Senate. It was an open secret that the legislative slate was specially devised in the interest of Governor Foster. Governor Foster is the boss of Ohio. He has at one time or another straddled every question upon which the voters divided, and for this reason was particularly obnoxious to that element who desire their representative in the National Assembly to have fixed opinions on great public issues. In this district there were five candidates for the House of Representatives. Four Democrats were elected and one Republican, the one Republican who publicly pledged himself before election to vote against Charles Foster for United States Senator. This opposition has been mainly voiced by the *Penny Press*, a spicy one-cent daily, devoted to free trade, workingmen's unions, etc., whose price puts it within the reach of everybody, and which has great influence with the laboring classes.

Again, while the nominees of the Democratic party were thoroughly in accord with its professions, there were certain inconsistencies in the nominations of the Republican party which could not but cause distrust as to the sincerity of its professions. It professed to stand by the Scott law, and yet the men who in this district were honored (?) by a renomination were the very ones who had worked and voted consistently *against* all regulation or taxation of the liquor traffic; while the very man who was most influential in the passage of the Pond law, and subsequently of the Scott law, Hon. O. J. Hodge, Speaker of the House, *was not even mentioned* for renomination. Such action on the part of the managers could but create distrust in quarters where the Republican party could least afford it. It is a healthy sign, however, that after a hot canvass, and a fuller vote than has ever been known before in this district, the best names on each ticket were elected.

Very respectfully yours,
L. B. Tuckerman.

Cleveland, O., October 22, 1883.

OUR CONSULAR SERVICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to your remarks in the *Nation* (No. 948) relative to the action of the State Department in removing an experienced consul at Naples, Italy, for no assigned cause, and the appointment in his place of an entirely inexperienced man, whose father is a personal friend of the President, I cannot but express my surprise at your seeming supposition that this is not in entire accordance with the usual course of the Department in making consular appointments. A reference to facts will, I think, establish this clearly. In Italy, for instance, there are ten full consulates, including the Consulate-General in Rome. Of these the present Administration (President Arthur's) has filled five anew, and in every case with entirely new men having no acquaintance whatever with the

consular service. In one case it appointed a man of notoriously *bad habits*, who, it is understood, had to leave another branch of our Government service on that account, and whose most highly respectable family kept him abroad for years in the vain hope of his reform. His appointment was so unsatisfactory to American residents at the place that even the Vice-Consul—a man whose name is well known to the readers of the *Nation*—at once sent in his resignation, giving his reasons therefor, and would never enter the consular office. In another case, a gentleman was appointed consul to one of the principal Italian ports (the most lucrative consulate in Italy, perhaps, on account of two good consular agencies) because, as he states the case himself, he is a personal friend of the President, was out of employment and in rather bad health, and the President offered him the position. He knew nothing whatever of the consular service or any foreign language, and is too old to learn. But he is a most amiable old gentleman, and personally, I presume, the appointment is satisfactory. It is true, I have heard it stated, from a source likely to be well informed, that this appointment was made in the interest of one of our highly-protected monopolies, with one of the managers of which the Consul is closely connected; but this would seem almost impossible, that a consul should be appointed rather to obstruct than to promote trade. In another case—also to one of the most important ports—the appointee's wife was in bad health and needed a milder climate. The Consul is without experience in the service, and knows no foreign language, but otherwise I have heard him highly spoken of. To a newly-created consulate, which has to be organized, an entirely inexperienced man has been appointed. I have no doubt an examination would show the custom of the Department to be in general about the same in other countries. In one case I happen to know of, a gentleman was appointed to one of our most important consulates because, as he himself states, he was a little out of health and wished his family to see a little of Europe and learn a little of foreign languages. He was away from his post much of his time, said he came only to remain a year, and has now, I think, returned home, to remain.

The only question with the Department of State in making foreign appointments, diplomatic as well as consular, seems to be as to the amount of political or personal influence the applicant can bring to bear, with perhaps some inquiry as to his record as a "Stalwart," and on the Hubbell "Corruption Fund" in case he has been in the service. No questions as to character, qualifications, or special fitness are taken into consideration. I have known of some cases where very old, feeble men, with one foot already in the grave, so to speak, worn-out country doctors, village editors, ward politicians, etc., have been sent abroad to fill important consular positions, with no knowledge whatever of the language of the country they go to, and utterly without consular experience. No wonder if such men fall in with improper surroundings, and often bring our consular service and Government into well-merited disrepute, for they are absolutely dependent. Could our Government and people be made fully aware of the discredit often brought upon us and our institutions by our system of foreign appointments, surely Congress might be induced to do something to remedy the evils. INDEPENDENT.

GRATUITOUS DISTRIBUTION OF THE ENGLISH VERSION OF THE MAHÁ-BHÁRATA IN AMERICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An association of native Hindu scholars, called the Datarya Bharat Karyalya, has for several years been publishing, for gratuitous distribution to Sanskritists, learned societies, etc., translations of leading Sanskrit works. At present an English translation of the Mahá-Bhárata is publishing, primarily for gratuitous distribution—a certain number of copies being, however, reserved for sale to parties desiring the work not included in the distribution as above. The manager and publisher of the association, Babu Protaba Chandra Roy, has requested me to send him a list of the literary and other societies in America interested in Sanskrit literature, to which copies of his publications may be sent. I shall be pleased, therefore, if any reader of the *Nation* having a knowledge of any such society will send me its name and address for transmission to India. Any person desirous of procuring a copy for himself can obtain information as to terms, etc., by addressing the Babu at 367 Upper Chitpore Road, Calcutta, India.

WM. EMMETTE COLEMAN.

PRESIDIO OF SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

REPRESSION IN IRELAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In one of the editorial paragraphs of your current number I find the following passage:

"The passion occasionally displayed by quiet preachers and literary men for the ferocious use of military force against people whose ways they disapprove of, is one of the mysteries of human nature. Men who seldom quit their libraries, and have not nerve enough to see an arm amputated, are sometimes found advocating the most bloodthirsty courses against their particular set of heathen. Carlyle and Froude are the two most conspicuous instances of this literary thirst for blood. Froude has always approved of having plenty of Irishmen put to the sword or tortured, while Carlyle was disposed to apply the same remedy to poor men of all races, beginning with the 'niggers' *Mr. Goldwin Smith also desires liberal gibbeting and shooting in Ireland.*"

I think I may safely challenge you to produce from my writings on the Irish question, or on any other question, anything which can lend the slightest semblance of justice to this charge.

"Shooting" can take place only under martial law; and when, from the increasing number and atrocity of the outrages in Ireland, martial law began to be suggested as the only remedy, instead of advocating I deprecated it as "the substitution of one sort of savagery for another." My words, I remember, were cited with approbation by the *Pall Mall Gazette*, your own ally on the Irish question.

By "gibbeting," I presume, is meant hanging. When it became clear that common juries in Ireland, being under the influence of the League, could afford no protection to the lives of loyal citizens, I, among other journalists, advocated the institution of a more trustworthy tribunal. This measure, the proposers of which were of course denounced by the Irish terrorists and their friends, was, after the Phœnix Park murders, at length adopted by the Government. It has worked perfectly well; justice and nothing but justice has been done; the assassinations have almost ceased, and the country has been delivered from the fear of an outbreak which could not have been repressed without bloodshed. I believe nobody doubts that had the step been taken earlier it would have averted a hideous series of murders and the almost equally hideous series of hangings which has followed.

I have been in favor of upholding the law, doing justice on assassins, and taking those measures of repressive police which are necessary to prevent insurrection and bloodshed. Any remarks which these opinions may justify I am willing to bear. I am not so willing to bear the unfounded imputation of inhuman sentiments, to which I have never given utterance and which are at variance with the whole spirit of my writings and my life.

Your obedient servant,

GOLDWIN SMITH.

[We undoubtedly have done Mr. Goldwin Smith injustice if we have given the impression that he has advocated bloodshed in his writings. We based our remark on reports of his talk about Irish matters when he was last in England, which of course may have been inaccurate. But he is, on the other hand, mistaken in supposing that the tribunal which the Government finally set up in Ireland for the punishment of crime was the one he advocated. What he urged, with much vehemence, in several letters to the *Times*, during the year 1882, was the suspension of trial by jury, and the substitution of a commission of judges, having previously strongly urged the system of arbitrary arrests which was administered by Mr. Forster. What the Government did was to substitute special for common juries, and transfer the trials to Dublin, a simple expedient which, if resorted to sooner, would have saved the Liberal Ministry from the scandal of Mr. Forster's somewhat ridiculous experiment.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

TOWNSEND MAC COUN, 744 Broadway, has purchased the remaining sheets—about 100 sets of nine volumes each—of the edition of Jefferson's Works published by order of Congress, the plates of which have been destroyed. They will soon be put upon the market in a plain but attractive binding.

'Arius the Libyan; an Idyl of the Primitive Church'; 'Fair Words about Fair Women,' gathered from the poets by O. B. Bunce; Cobbett's English grammar, edited by Alfred Ayres; and 'Anecdotes of the Civil War,' by Maj.-Gen. A. D. Townsend, will be published immediately by D. Appleton & Co.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press 'Golden Thoughts from the Scriptural Guide of Miguel Molinos, the Quietist,' accompanied by a preface by J. Henry Shorthouse, and a brief biography of Molinos by Professor Lindsay, of Free Church College, Glasgow; also, a new edition of Cable's 'Grandissimes,' which we do not altogether like to hear has been revised by the author, so that much of the dialect of the dialogue has been eliminated.

Nine of the twelve projected volumes of the delightful "Parchment Shakspere" (D. Appleton & Co.) have now appeared—the eighth containing "Troilus and Cressida," "Coriolanus," and "Titus Andronicus"; the ninth, "Romeo and Juliet," "Timon of Athens," and "Julius Cæsar."

Volumes v. to viii. of the Riverside edition of Emerson's complete works (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) embrace 'English Traits,' 'Conduct of Life,' 'Society and Solitude,' and 'Letters and Social Aims,' respectively. In the first-named, one is struck by the chance hit of Wordsworth, in his first interview with Emerson (1833): "He has even said, what seemed a paradox, that they needed a civil war in America, to teach the necessity of knitting the social ties stronger." We remark again, in reading the poetical epigraphs of the various essays in the 'Conduct of Life,' the extraordinary difficulties in printing the verse of Emerson correctly, whether as regards punctuation or literal accuracy. Thus, in that on Behavior, p. 161, the proof-reader or corrector has let

pass: "Too weak to win, *to* fond to shun," etc. The editor, Mr. J. Elliot Cabot, explains the melancholy circumstances under which the volume of 'Letters and Social Aims' was made up by himself, and the small part which Mr. Emerson, whose powers had already begun to fail, had in the arrangement of it. We have a curious illustration of the way in which Mr. Emerson's mind worked—its want of consecutiveness and orderly disposition—in the fact that these essays, gathered from disconnected scraps and unpaged MSS., are probably about as well joined and as truly Emersonian as if their author had struck them off in one heat. In the nature of the case no dates could be affixed to them, but we must think it a serious omission that those in the fifth and seventh volumes have no indication of the time at which they were composed, delivered, or first published.

Two volumes of the "Classic Series" (Roberts Bros.) bring us Southey's 'Life of Nelson,' and 'Classic Tales by Maria Edgeworth.' Both these volumes are in large print, and the form and woodcuts of Southey's enduring biography give it a very pleasant air of having been published in our childhood. Miss Grace Oliver, whose life of Miss Edgeworth we reviewed not many months ago, prefixes a brief sketch of her heroine to a selection which includes "Simple Susan," "The Mimic," "Waste Not, Want Not," "Mademoiselle Panache," "Angelina," and "The Orphans." Parents will welcome these reprints.

By a kind of doubling which seems much in vogue this year, Southey's 'Nelson' has also been brought out by J. B. Lippincott & Co., in a somewhat larger shape, with full-page designs in place of vignettes, a steel portrait for a frontispiece, and with a prefatory account of the biographer himself, in six pages. It is, perhaps, worth mentioning that the Greek couplet with which the Life closes is differently and wrongly accented in both the Boston and the Philadelphia editions.

'The American Girl's Home Book of Work and Play,' by Mrs. Helen Campbell (G. P. Putnam's Sons), ought to find a place on every Christmas memorandum wherein young girls are remembered. The tribute paid in the preface to Mrs. Child and the 'Girl's Own Book' will be heartily repeated by every mother and grandmother whose childhood was delighted by that little book. The one now compiled on the same plan contains many things otherwise hard to find in the special manuals which have been in vogue of late. Throughout there is the same good sense and refinement which have always distinguished Mrs. Campbell's work. Of this latter quality—the delicacy, the good breeding which belongs to character more than to mere manners—there has been a lamentable want in books for girls, the place of all others where it is most needed.

'Work for Women,' by George J. Manson (Putnams), does not pretend to offer anything entirely new, yet it will be far more useful than most books of its class. It gives distinct directions where to find the best schools, or the best manuals, from which to learn the different occupations enumerated. Moreover, it most distinctly sets forth, from first to last, that hard work and long work are indispensable to success. "The necessity of practice cannot be overrated. . . . Last of all, she must have great perseverance, and work continuously." Equally clear and equally wise are the statements of what a woman cannot expect to do. "She can never hope to perform as much work as a first-class male compositor; that is a physical impossibility." And there is true kindness in the exposure of some of the fallacies about the pay of women. Irreparable mischief has too often resulted from the shallow counsels of advisors either inexperienced, or too careless to discriminate between an exceptional good fortune and the average success.

The publishers (Charles Scribner's Sons) present 'Mrs. Gilpin's Frugalities,' by Susan Anna Brown, in the same dainty fashion as the 'Forty Puddings.' It will serve two quite opposite ends—to give variety to the table in a large family, and to provide an economical use for the inevitable remnants in a small one. The most useful thing in the book, however, is the warning against "stingy extravagance and wasteful scrimping," and the wise suggestions as to true frugality. "There is that scattereth and yet increaseth." There are more women who know how to do without cheerfully than there are who understand the best use of a little.

A new chapter must be added to the book of woman's rights and wrongs. We have been told so often that man makes the laws for woman to suit his own desires and interests that we have become ashamed, and have changed our practice, and in some of the States woman is in a better condition before the law than her former tyrant. But now comes one calling herself "A Stout Lady" and complains in a London paper that her sex is still oppressed: the turn-stiles at the Fisheries Exhibition are too small for women, though they are well enough for man. The average man is broadest at the shoulders, and goes through a narrow turn-stile without difficulty; the average woman is broadest at the hips, just where the turn-stile catches her. If Woman had had the making of them, they would have been higher or broader, but Man has made them to suit himself. "A Stout Lady" evidently cares not who has the making of a nation's laws; give her the making of their turn-stiles.

'Industries of North Carolina' (E. J. Hale & Son) is the title of a small volume, containing 425 pages, compiled at Raleigh by P. M. Hale, in which the varied resources of the State are set forth generally. The more important portions of this compilation, however, refer to the coal-fields and iron ores, and are drawn from the reports of the State Geologists, Doctor Emmons (1852) and his successor, Doctor Kerr (1875), of whom the last named is now Geologist in charge of the Southern Division of the United States Geological Survey. A report to the War Department by Col. T. T. S. Laidley (1856) on the Deep River timber and minerals, and one to the Secretary of the Navy by Admiral Wilkes (1858) on the Deep River region, are also included. Of more recent date is a paper by Doctor Kerr (1880) on the resources of the country along the line of the Cape Fear and Yadkin Valley Railroad through the middle region of the State. There are also brief descriptive notes on the natural resources and the industrial and social conditions of nearly all the counties in the State, contributed by various local observers and drawn in part from the Tenth Census. The volume contains a small folding map, but no index. It describes a country of large and varied, but, so far, very slightly developed, resources.

The new (fifth) edition of Moses King's 'Handbook of Boston' shows a considerable enlargement and revision to date, as in the chapters on the town history, the hotels, the railroads. In the sections on public works of art we observe mention of one additional soldiers' monument and two statues, together with one monument that might have been, and two that are assured in the near future. We miss even the inadequate map which graced the former edition. But there should be several, in characteristic sections.

From the office of the Secretary of State of New York we have received the third volume (new series) of 'Documents Relating to the Colonial History of the State of New York,' bearing the special title of 'Documents Relating to the History of the Early Colonial Settlements, principally on Long Island.' The translation, compilation, and editing from the original records have been performed by Mr. B. Fernow, and a fragmentary map of the western part of the island, made in 1666, has been copied for this work in facsimile. The first period extends from the first recorded Dutch patent to the occupation of the province by the English (1630-1664); the second, to the establishment of counties (1664-1684). A full index, chiefly of names, makes these documents readily available for research. Stuyvesant, Governor John Winthrop, and Andros figure largely in this volume. While the question of boundaries and jurisdiction with the adjacent English colonies was a burning one, Stuyvesant writes to the Directors, August 4, 1664, that experience of their English neighbors had taught the Dutch that "deeds of sale and conveyances are little respected by them, especially when they are of earlier date; . . . but when their deeds are older than ours, then they must be accepted as valid without objection." On December 1 the Boundary Commissioners were formally notified that Governor Winthrop and the other Connecticut deputies had assented to all of Long Island remaining in the Duke of York's patent. The volume is a worthy addition to the invaluable series which it continues.

Mr. Justin Winsor begins, in the October Harvard University Bulletin, a critical annotated calendar of the late J. G. Kohl's collection of copies of early maps of America, now preserved in the State Department at Washington.

Mr. Edward Roth's Complete Index to *Littell's Living Age* deals still in its third part with Biography, carrying the work from James to Lescarbault. The leaves being printed only on one side, it is practicable to incorporate this index with any other.

A handbook, no longer for henchmen and heelers but for the honest public at large, called the 'United States Salary List and the Civil-Service Law, Rules, and Regulations,' comes to us from Henry N. Copp, Washington. Specimen examination papers are given in addition to the information referred to in the title. As Mr. Copp says, "To professional politicians and their friends, almost exclusively, this knowledge has heretofore been confined." He estimates the civil service as embracing more than 100,000 persons.

The Portland Society of Art have issued a prettily printed catalogue of their fall exhibition of portrait engravings. The body of the type is in black; the name of the artists, of which there are three or four on the small quarto page, are in red ink, and printed from a curiously-ornamented type. Brief notes give biographical and critical data about the artists, and still briefer notes describe the state of the plate.

During the last two years the author of 'Alice in Wonderland' has been writing what he calls "A Tangled Skein." Each "knot" is a droll bit of story, into which is cleverly interwoven a mathematical problem. The puzzles are so ingenious, and the nonsense so delicious, that it is a pity they should not be known outside the small circle of readers of the *Monthly Packet*, the magazine in which they from time to time appear.

We regret to notice the discontinuance of the *Chrysanthemum*, published at Yokohama, with the June number, the contents of which certainly bear out the excuse offered by the proprietors that they have found it "impossible to obtain a sufficiency of suitable contributions." Otherwise, public support has been "kind and liberal."

The number in question concludes Mr. F. Brinkley's "History of Japanese Ceramics," and has a long paper, with tabular statistics referring to Japan, on "Missionary Work and its Effects upon the Workers."

The Mitchell Library, Glasgow, calls attention to the issue of its second million of volumes, which was completed on the 1st of September in 808 working days. The first million, issued when there were of course fewer books and fewer readers, occupied 982 working days. We hope libraries will not take to running races in circulation, or to making issues against time—so many million volumes in so many hundred days. The public would become as tired of it as they became of walking matches. It is very remarkable that this million volumes consists in so small a degree of fiction, only 7.73 per cent., while history and biography are 21.77, arts and sciences 20.12, and miscellaneous literature 28.31. The latter, to be sure, must include considerable fiction in a periodical form. The proportion, however, still remains unusual.

It is little more than a quarter of a century since Murger discovered or at any rate revealed *la vie de Bohême* in France, and now MM. Revillout and Krall have presented to the Academy a description of Bohemian life in Egypt, relying chiefly upon the account of a certain musician who, according to an Egyptian satire, from which they translate a long extract, neglected his art for good cheer and drink.

M. Maspero has given the French Academy an account of the resources at his command for archæological investigation in Egypt and the maintenance of the Bulak Museum. Formerly there was no fixed budget; the Khedive supplied money as he happened to be in funds—a little this year, a great deal the next, none at all the third—which compelled the work to be very irregular. Since 1878 M. Maspero has had an annual but meagre allowance of 35,000 francs. As the low-priced assistants whom this small income compels him to employ are unable for want of archæological knowledge to discriminate between valuable and valueless discoveries, a matter in regard to which prompt information is often important, he has tried the experiment of taking five young natives into the Museum as antiquarian apprentices, intending to teach them some smattering of hieroglyphics. The excavations actually in progress are under the charge of eight native *reis*, who by long employment have acquired considerable interest in their work, and even a certain skill in reading hieroglyphics.

In *Das Magazin* for September 29 Eduard Engel apologizes for having paid so much attention to Mrs. Pott and her Baconian 'Promus,' since a visit to the British Museum has made it plain to him that the manuscript 'Promus' is in diverse handwritings, no one of which can be confidently identified with Bacon's. Moreover, Mrs. Pott has been careless beyond belief in her transcriptions, and Herr Engel gives harsh names ("Bacon-Schwindel," "absichtliche Fälschung," etc.) to this unhappy lady's enthusiasm.

—The Architectural Association of Boston has issued a portfolio of thirty Albertype reproductions from sketches by its members which is of unusual interest, not because the drawings are altogether good, but because some of them evince a degree of artistic feeling which is comparatively rare among architects at the present time. The drawings are largely from fragments of architectural sculpture, and it is these which chiefly interest us. There are two qualities of good sculpture which seem too often to escape the observation of architects. The one is vitality of line and surface—an expression of that fine sense of nature which good designers have always possessed—and the other is a free-hand character of execution whose product is widely different from that which is mechanically wrought. It is the unusual appreciation of these qualities, as expressive of the spirit of the designer, which, more than anything else, commends some of these reproductions to us, and which seems to us especially encouraging because it is the lack of this appreciation which goes far to render our modern architectural sculpture so uninteresting and ineffective as it is. This lack is due in great measure to inadequate conceptions of what constitutes architecture, and the functions of the architect. Few teachers or writers approach the subject of architecture sufficiently from its artistic side. It is too commonly viewed in its mechanical and scientific aspects, though these constitute but a small part of architecture considered as a fine art. The drawings set before students in our architectural schools, and the illustrations to some of the best books on architecture, are, accordingly, so highly mechanical that no just idea is conveyed by them of the qualities which are most admirable in ornamental design. If the work displayed in this portfolio is, as it appears, the result of an awakening sense of what design truly is, its value will be considerable, and its influence may be great. But while we recognize in this work a hopeful tendency, we are unable to commend, without a good deal of qualification, the general character of a great part of this delineation considered as such. There is very little of it which can be called excellent. An architect's drawing should not be loosely picturesque, as much of this is. It should be definitely and firmly expressive of the facts of form and structure treated, in any given case, in so far as the eye appreciates them. There is far too little clear and intelligible drawing in these examples. There is too much indeterminateness, and even feebleness, bespeaking imperfect training and imperfect conception of subject. But in this regard the drawings differ one from another. Some of them are as hard, mechanical, and feelingless as average modern architects' drawings usually are, while others betray an effort to imitate a sketchy method, like that of Prout, without a perfect understanding of the qualities and the defects of such sketching. In the examples of this class, details are defined in one place, and are undefined in another, in a capricious and meaningless way, so that the result is not valuable either as artistic sketching or as scientific record of structural facts. For an architect the precision of Dürer is a more valuable quality in delineation than the vagueness of Prout. But the best method is one in which precision, visual truth, and artistic feeling are combined.

—Formidable is the amount of examination work performed of late under the superintendence of the English Civil-Service Commissioners, as found recorded in their twenty-seventh annual report, recently presented to Parliament. In 1880 the aggregate of cases dealt with by the Commission amounted to 20,452; in 1881, to 24,243; and in 1882, to 26,409. The increase of cases during the last year is ascribable, in some measure, to a considerable development of the system of open competition as applied to the appointments of female clerk and female telegraph-learner in the Post-office, but still more to a general advance in the average ratio of competitors to vacancies; this ratio having been 10 to 1 in 1882, whereas it was only 6.5 to 1 in 1881. For the Home Services the falling off of competitors in 1882, as compared with 1881, was 514; for the Indian Services, 31; and, for the Military Services, 450. On the other hand, however, there were more competitors, by 216, for appointments in the Naval Services. Among the candidates for the Military Services, those aspiring to find employment as lieutenants of militia were fewer by as many as 169; or only 234, as against 403 for 1881. The cases connected with the four sets of services named above being deducted from the grand total, 26,409, there remain, under the head of miscellaneous, 21,456 for 1882, showing an increment of 2,945 over the cases for 1881. Out of the 21,456 candidates just referred to, those that passed their examinations supplied, on an average, 6.8 effective competitors for every existing vacancy; a conclusive evidence of the popularity of service under the Government, and of the pains bestowed in the hope of securing it. The value of the fee stamps presented by examinees in 1881 was £12,554; in 1882, in consequence of an authorized reduction of certain fees, £11,018. Nevertheless, the Commissioners anticipate that the annual proceeds from fees will, in future, not fall short of £13,000; and the steady growth of business in their department no doubt warrants their anticipation.

—In No. 951 of the *Nation* we explained on what grounds M. Clermont-Ganneau, sent to London by the French Ministry of Public Instruction to ascertain the value of Shapira's Deuteronomy, "did not hesitate to declare in the *Times*, after the brief and partial inspection allowed him, that the Deuteronomy in King Mesha's style of writing, alleged to be almost 3,000 years old, was written on the cut-off margins of a modern synagogue roll." We also stated that Dr. Ginsburg, after performing "with conscientious slowness" the task imposed upon him by the British Museum of deciphering, transliterating, and translating the manuscript, reported in agreement with M. Clermont-Ganneau's exposition. We ought to have added that he did it without mentioning the name of the French scholar, though he reproduced his conclusive evidences of the forgery among other proofs, almost literally, which, in fact, was unavoidable. Of course, Dr. Ginsburg committed no plagiarism in the matter, for his report appeared when the Frenchman's communication was quite fresh in the memory of the readers of the London *Times*. Yet the English Orientalist's over-serious treatment of a matter which in Berlin had been contemptuously disposed of in two hours; the anticipation of a wonderful confirmation of the traditional age of Deuteronomy, which his slow proceeding nourished in theological circles; and the final sentence pronounced so late and in strict conformity to outside indications, placed him in a rather awkward position. From this various English newspapers, entrapped partly by a leaning toward the supernatural in Biblical matters and partly by partiality for native scholarship, endeavored to disentangle him by accusing the Frenchman of acting from preconceived notions and anti-Biblical prejudices, of haste in forming his decision and greater haste in making it known, of making use in his discovery of the fraud of previous hints by Dr. Ginsburg, etc. These attacks M. Clermont-Ganneau scathingly repels in the *Revue Politique et Littéraire*, of September 29, in an article entitled "Un prétendu manuscrit original de la Bible," in which he tells the history of his connection with the affair with great minuteness and in a very pleasant vein, exposing in strong light the forger's manipulation and network of lies; the absurdity of believing for a moment in a treasure so miraculously preserved and found; the ridiculous jealousy with which the "find" was protected in the Museum from foreign examination; and the superstitious bias toward hypocritical rascality which now assailed him. The whole forms a chapter of literary history equally amusing and instructive.

—If the great "maker" could be born in seven different cities, it is not unfit that the discoverer of the New World should have at least five birthplaces. The Abbé Martin Casanova di Pioggiola, however, wishes to limit him to the Corsican Calvi; M. Henri Harrisse, on the other hand, is sure that Genoa is the only rightful claimant. In the *Revue Critique* M. Harrisse gives strong reasons for the common belief, and demolishes the arguments (weak enough as they appear in Harrisse's account) of the Abbé Casanova. But the French President issued a decree last August approving of the erection of a statue of Columbus in the city of Calvi, and no doubt all Corsicans and a certain number of Frenchmen will persist in claiming him as a countryman of Bonaparte. In the same number of the *Revue* we find a notice of two tracts relating to this country, by M. Eug. Beauvois. One is 'Une vendette dans le nouveau monde au XIe siècle d'après les textes scandinaves,' being an account of the vendetta of the poet Thormod against a chieftain of Greenland and his descendants. The other is 'La grande terre de l'Ouest dans les documents celtiques du moyen âge.' M. Beauvois believes that the Irish had early visited New Brunswick, because the Icelandic sagas speak of a Gaelic colony south of Helluland (Labrador) and north of Vinland, and confirms his belief by Irish legends which show at least that the Irish had wished to find the western shores of the Atlantic. If they explored, he says, why may they not have been as successful as the Scandinavians undoubtedly were? There is at least this bright point about these rather vague speculations: no one will try to find out what was the natal city of these Irish and Scandinavian discoverers.

—No editor succeeds better than Julius Rodenberg in securing for his magazine famous names without sacrificing the quality of his articles. The October number of the *Rundschau* is one of the best ever issued. It contains novelettes by Paul Heyse and Wilhelmine von Hillern, and essays by Ernst Haeckel, Du Bois-Reymond, Von der Goltz, Geffcken, W. Scherer, and Rodenberg himself. Heyse's novelette describes, in his usual elegant style, the life of a hermit of the 14th century, who is avoided as an outcast because he once assumed the functions of a general nurse during the prevalence of the plague, and who now makes a living by means of his violin. A dreamy but gifted young man is so overcome by his playing that he abandons his beautiful but heartless bride, and follows the hermit into the woods, but is recaptured, and, in his efforts to escape, loses his life in the Rhine. Rodenberg's article is partly sentimental reverie, partly realistic description of a unique part of Berlin known as In den Zelten. The changes in the appearance and habits of the Berliners within a few generations are brought clearly before the eyes of the reader. Geffcken writes on Baron Nothomb, Scherer on Jacob Grimm, and Von der Goltz on "Science and Military Affairs." The two most important articles, however, are those by Haeckel on Adam's Peak in Ceylon, and by Du Bois-Reymond on the Humboldt statues in front of the University of Berlin. These two distinguished representatives of zoölogical and physiological research are both Darwinists, although the elder maintains a certain dignified reserve based on jealous regret that he was born too early to become, like Haeckel, a militant co-worker in the department of evolution. The confession of their common creed is, however, introduced only incidentally in their present articles. A more striking resemblance is presented in the proof they afford that scientific erudition is not incompatible with a lucid, flowing, and imaginative literary style, in the possession of which these two writers are distinguished above all other German professors, and equalled only by Tyndall and Huxley in England.

—Du Bois-Reymond is particularly qualified to write on the two Humboldts, since he has made as close a study of the social phases of their time as of the scientific. He was personally acquainted with Alexander Humboldt, who, he tells us, used to read to him from the proof-sheets some of the most eloquent passages in his 'Cosmos,' and who, among other things, made him a present of the copy of Agassiz's 'Essay on Classification,' which the author had sent him. "Humboldt's remarks on this occasion," he adds, "left no doubt with me that, far from sharing Agassiz's views, he was a believer in mechanical causation and evolution"; and he accordingly claims him as a "pre-Darwinian Darwinist," Agassiz's essay having appeared only three years before the 'Origin of Species,' which Humboldt did not live to see. A good notion of Humboldt's giant intellect is given by the statement that at Jena, although "twenty years younger than Goethe and ten years younger than Schiller, he was nevertheless greeted by both as an equal." At first, indeed, Schiller was inclined to underrate his "naked, incisive intellect," and would have been astonished had any one predicted that the German nation would one day erect a statue to him near his own. Humboldt formed the bridge between the modern mathematico-biological and the preceding philologico-historical, æsthetico-speculative Germany. Wilhelm von Humboldt's importance, aside from his literary achievements, lies in this, that by founding the University of Berlin he made that city the intellectual centre of Germany. Haeckel's article is an interesting pendant to his book on Ceylon. He gives a short sketch of the earliest attempts to ascend Adam's Peak, and follows it up with a detailed and fascinating account of his own trip. The difficulties of ascent are still great, although much has been done in the way of building bridges and attaching chains to dangerous localities. In many places, however, these chains are superfluous, as the tourist if he falls is sure to be caught in the impenetrable green pillows formed by the tree tops. For more than an hour the road leads through a green tunnel formed by the dense forest—a great advantage in such a latitude. A party of natives, consisting of men, women, and children of all ages, was met on the way and admired for their lithe yet vigorous physique. At the top, where Haeckel spent six hours, he observed the rites of the pilgrims, which consisted in prayers before the alleged footprint of Adam, offerings of flowers, burning of candles, ringing of little bells, and presents to the priests. A contrast is drawn between the peaceful attitude of the Mohammedans, Christians, Buddhists, and Brahmins, who here meet in common worship, and the petty quarrels of our own religious sects. His own devotions consisted in admiring the scenery (which he found more picturesque than grand and not equal to that obtained from the snowy peak of Teneriffe), and in delivering to his companions a short address apropos of Darwin's birthday. "The letter," he concludes, "in which I communicated this to my highly-respected friend, written under the canopy of the Scripada, was the last he received from me."

—While antiquaries are busy raking up the rubbish of thousands of years in their endeavors to locate the position of Alesia or of the Raudian Fields; while we are informed that the Munda of Cæsar's triumph is probably not the Monda of to-day, or that Carchemish, where Nebuchadnezzar conquered, is not, as was formerly supposed, the same as the classical Circesium, the searching pen of the modern encyclopædist has begun to conjure up perplexities with regard to things much less remote. Among the names most gloriously associated with the career of Marshal Saxe is that of Raucoux. Historians tell us how in 1746 (in the War of the Austrian Succession) that illustrious general reduced the principal fortresses of the Austrian Netherlands; how the Austrian General Charles of Lorraine was sent to check his progress, and how at a place called Raucoux, or Rocoux, Saxe triumphed over the forces of the allies. The engagement was fought in the outskirts of Liége. In Pierer's 'Universal-Lexikon' the location of the noted battle-field is transferred to Raucourt, a small town in the vicinity of Sedan, within the territory of France. Beeck's 'Handlexikon der Geschichte und Biographie' (Berlin, 1881), which is on the whole a most accurate reference book of chronology, contains the same error. Turning to the recently published 'Lexikon der allgemeinen Weltgeschichte,' belonging to Meyer's Fach Lexika, we are in like manner informed that Raucourt, or Rocoux, is a town in the French department of Ardennes, memorable for the victory of Marshal Saxe. The latest edition of Pierer, published a few years ago, in the article "Raucourt," not only repeats the error contained in the fourth edition (published in 1861), but makes matters worse by introducing in parenthesis after the title "Raucourt" the form *Raucoux*. Things like this are apt to give the literary public a rather gloomy view of the doings of the cyclopædia-maker. But here charity must spring from the very source of our indignation. This *Raucoux* is the best illustration of the troubles and perplexities with which he is weighed down at every step. Cyclopædia-makers, like ants and bees, are compelled to draw on the stores laboriously accumulated by workers like themselves, and thus errors are repeated and perpetuated. Turning now to 'Lippincott's Gazetteer,' we fail to discover any such title as *Raucoux* or *Rocoux*, but we find *Rocour*, which is stated to be a village near Liége, and Marshal Saxe's victory is correctly given here, and not under the title "Raucourt." Ritter's 'Geographisch-Statistisches Lexikon' agrees with Lippincott as to the spelling of the place where the battle was fought, while in Baedeker's 'Belgium and Holland' the name is written Rocourt. Here, then, we have four different ways of spelling one and the same place, and, singularly enough, the form commonly used by historians, *Raucoux*, is not to be found in our geographical works. The contradictions do not end here. The victory gained by Marshal Saxe is generally represented to have been one over the "allies," which is correct; but in Pierer and Beeck the Austrians alone figure, while in the very valuable 'Encyclopædia of Chronology' of Woodward and Cates, under the title "Saxe," we are told that the enemy were English and Dutch.

RECOLLECTIONS OF A NAVAL OFFICER.

Recollections of a Naval Officer. 1841-1865. By Captain William Harwar Parker. Charles Scribner's Sons.

CAPTAIN PARKER'S career was from first to last an eventful one. Entering the service in 1841, he took his place among the last officers of the old navy—the navy, that is, of the period before the Academy at Annapolis was established, and before modern science had transformed the instruments of naval warfare, and, along with these, the time-honored customs of the service. The navy of that day was the navy of Marryat and of Cooper. The life of the ward-room, the steerage, and the forecastle was very much what

it had been a hundred years before: the same yarns were spun, the same practical jokes were played, the same characters existed. The seventy-fours, the sailing frigates, and the old man-o'-war's-men still flourished. The traditions of 1812 were still fresh and vigorous: officers settled their disputes with pistols at ten paces, and the ration of grog and the cat were the official emblems of bliss and woe to the blue jacket. Of life in the service as it existed at this time, the early chapters of Captain Parker's book give a faithful picture; and, although it represents the beginning of a transition period, the details show vividly how little the coming change was foreseen or imagined. His first cruise was in the *Columbus*, a well-appointed line-of-battle ship, with a crew of 800 men. One night, while the ship was lying in port, the watch on deck were startled by an unusual sound, which was afterward found to be caused by a neighboring steamer blowing off steam under water. On the passage from Madeira to Rio, when target practice was ordered, the crew found the shells a "great bother" to them. The divisional officers were uncertain whether the fuse should or should not be ignited before the shell was placed in the gun. The gun drill still consisted of the old orders: "Handle your match and lockstring; cock your lock; blow your match; stand by; fire"—and all were given so deliberately that practice at sea could be carried on just as effectually without a target.

During the next few years progress made rapid strides, and the service underwent a total change; but Parker's book, although written by a progressive officer, retains throughout the flavor of his first impressions. His second cruise was in the frigate *Potomac*, during the Mexican war. Here he saw all that went on in the squadron, and he took part in several of the more important expeditions. The operations on the east coast were not, however, those which reflected the most credit on the navy. The really successful work of the war was done by the Pacific squadron, which, under the brilliant leadership of Stockton, effected the conquest of California. In the Gulf, owing to the excessive caution or timidity of the commander-in-chief, Commodore Conner, the opportunities of the first year were lost, and the naval expeditions were generally failures, which the author makes no attempt to palliate. It was a melancholy, not to say exasperating, spectacle—that of a great naval force, fully equipped and almost unopposed, yet completely shackled by the fatal inability of an irresolute man to assume any risk or responsibility. It only came to an end when Conner withdrew and the command passed to his energetic successor, Commodore Matthew Perry.

After his return from Mexico, Parker served on the west coast of Africa, where a squadron was maintained for the suppression of the slave trade. On this cruise his vessel, the sloop *Yorktown*, was wrecked off the Cape Verde Islands. Later he sailed in the *Cyane* to the West Indies, and he was attached to the *Merrimac* on her first cruise in the Pacific. The outbreak of the rebellion found him on duty as an instructor at the Naval Academy, and he resigned his commission upon learning of the secession of Virginia, his native State.

During the first year of the civil war Parker commanded the gunboat *Beaufort*, in the sounds of North Carolina. His account of the disasters at Roanoke Island and Elizabeth city, and of the retreat to Norfolk, in all of which he took part, is graphic and spirited; and here, as everywhere, the story is enlivened by a flow of amusing incident and episode. The author never loses his sense of the comic, even in the most desperate situations; and he laughs, to borrow his phrase, "with the tear in his eye." The *Beaufort* arrived at Norfolk in time to join in the battle of Hampton Roads. Parker's narrative is the only one that we have seen which gives a full account of the services of the *Merrimac's* consorts during the first day's engagement. After the surrender of the *Congress*, the *Beaufort* went alongside, and in this position received the fire of the troops at Newport News, which compelled her to withdraw. Although the firing from the shore was not a violation of the laws of war, since the white flag at the mast-head of the *Congress* could not protect the enemy in his attempt to take possession, it resulted, in the author's opinion, in the loss of some of the wounded crew, who would otherwise have been transferred to the gunboat. During the action of the second day Captain Parker was a spectator. His conclusion, based chiefly upon Van Brunt's report, is that the victory rested with the *Merrimac:* "the *Monitor* withdrew first, and ran into shoal water—she gave up the contest." The conclusion, however, seems to be qualified in a later statement. "Whatever the cause," he observes, "candor compels me to say that the *Merrimac* failed to reap the fruits of her victory. She went out to destroy the *Minnesota*, and do what further damage to the enemy she could. The *Monitor* was there to save the *Minnesota*. The *Merrimac* did not accomplish her purpose. The *Monitor* did. She did it by resisting the *Merrimac* as long as she did, even if she did have to withdraw." It is now well known that the temporary withdrawal of the *Monitor* was due to the sudden disabling of her captain, and that, after a short delay, she returned to the *Minnesota*. As the *Monitor* was left in possession of the field, it is hardly correct to say that the *Merrimac* failed to "reap the fruits of victory": it does not appear that she ever had victory within her grasp.

It would be a pleasant task, if space permitted, to follow Captain Parker minutely through his experiences in the war—the attack of the rams upon the squadron off Charleston, where he served as first lieutenant of the flagship; the attempt to blow up the monitors in the Edisto, which was frustrated by the desertion of one of the torpedo-men; the organization of the school for midshipmen on board the *Patrick Henry*, in the James River; and the final retreat to Abbeville, after the evacuation of Richmond. The history of the Confederate Naval Academy has never before been written, and it well repays perusal. It will be long before Annapolis can furnish anything so singular and romantic. The midshipmen, while they attended their recitations and examinations, could hear day after day the booming of the enemy's great guns and the rattle of musketry. Their daily routine was pursued almost under fire. As the enemy's lines were drawn closer, it became necessary to seek a more peaceful neighborhood. All that was wanted, Captain Parker says, was "a pleasant cot, in a tranquil spot, with a distant view of the changing sea"; but it was hard to find. Finally, when Richmond was evacuated, the sixty midshipmen, "representatives of the best families of the South," were selected to guard the Confederate treasure—about half a million of dollars—in the retreat southward. After an arduous march of thirty days, in which they wandered hither and thither, to avoid the enemy's scouting parties, the treasure, on the 2d of May, was delivered to the fugitive President at Abbeville; and the midshipmen, weary and foot-sore, without hats or shoes, were "detached from the Naval School," and granted leave to visit their homes, with orders to report by letter to the Secretary of the Navy as soon as practicable. The author quotes the order to show his unwillingness to admit that the struggle was over; but he could not have written it without a full perception of its irony. The force was disbanded, with an allowance from the treasure of three weeks' pay for each man; the total amount being equal, as Captain Parker remarks in passing, to that received by several of the President's aides. A company from Charlotte, which had volunteered to assist the midshipmen in their journey, was offered a keg of cents—an offer which the men indignantly rejected.

Captain Parker's story is delightfully told. He is absolutely without art; he lays bare his opinions and feelings with the utmost frankness. It is clear that he is a thorough officer, a keen observer, and an impartial narrator; with a quick sense of fun, a kindly temper, and an irrepressible flow of animal spirits. The sensation that one gets in reading his book is like that of going out in a yacht on a fine morning, with a spanking breeze: everything is fresh and sunny and sparkling—and, above all, you are out for a lark. The narrative, from the first appearance of the boy of fourteen on the deck of the *North Carolina* to the parting at Abbeville after the collapse of the Confederacy, is steadily pursued, and the facts are told in a manly and straightforward way; but the author is always as ready to turn aside, even at the most critical moment, for a joke or a story as the midshipman of forty years ago was to skylark in the steerage. It is impossible to quarrel with him for these charming digressions, trivial though they may sometimes be. He fairly bubbles over with fun and good-humor; his stories are always good, and his comments upon men and things lose none of their pith and richness from being almost boyish in their ingenuousness.

It is particularly in that part of the book which deals with the civil war that one is struck by the impartial candor of its criticism. This is, if we mistake not, the only memoir that has been written by a Confederate naval officer, except that of Semmes on the cruise of the *Alabama*. Semmes wrote his book soon after the war, before the bad blood had passed off, and the vituperation on every page makes it wearisome reading. Its tone is little better than ruffianly. Captain Parker's 'Recollections' are the very reverse of this: he has not a trace of ill-feeling, and he speaks his honest convictions, without regard to friend or foe. He sees no reason in Semmes's complaint that the *Kearsarge* was an ironclad, and, with blunt directness, he characterizes Beauregard's proclamation of the cessation of the Charleston blockade as "all bosh." When, on the other hand, he jocosely invokes the shade of Sir Piercie Shafton over the utterances of Mr. Secretary Welles, there is no malice in his words, and one cannot listen to them without a perception of their justice. As a whole, the book has a sterling value, in the interest not only of truth, but of good feeling.

TOURISTS IN MEXICO.

Mexico and Her Lost Provinces, A Journey to Mexico, Southern California, and Arizona, by Way of Cuba. By William Henry Bishop. Harper & Brothers. 1883.

Mexico and the Mexicans; or, Notes of Travel in the Winter and Spring of 1883. By Howard Conkling. Taintor Brothers, Merrill & Co. 1883.

SEVERAL of Mr. Bishop's chapters have already appeared in *Harper's Monthly* and in the *Nation*. He retouches and adds enough to make a very readable volume of 500 pages. Considerably more than half of the book is devoted to Mexico, and to that part our review will be confined. Mr. Bishop describes himself as "a desultory traveller mainly in search of the

picturesque" (p. 94). While this declaration may serve to give his book a distinct place in the increasing catalogue of works on Mexico, it also leads him to write without a unifying plan. There is an undoubted charm in the way he makes statistics jostle descriptions of scenery, puts political reflections on the same page with character-studies, and groups history with anecdote, but it leaves one a little at a loss how to estimate the success or value of the book. It seems almost ungracious to find fault with the statements of a man who professes to be only painting us pictures. Yet we can admit the pleasure which his pictures give us, and at the same time help him to get them into a truer setting.

The Spanish of the volume needs attention. We have noticed "pronunciamento" (pp. 3, 124), "Vamenos" (p. 199), "Ayuntamienta" (p. 222), "Omeltusco" (p. 227), "Papagallo" (p. 284). Mexican vagaries in the confusion of sacred names are, we know, surprising, but we doubt much if even they could have transformed the famous Nuestra Señora del Pilar into the "Nuestro Señor del Pilar" which Mr. Bishop reports having seen (p. 247). There is a general and conspicuous disregard or misuse of the written accents. The sentence on p. 196 lacks three, and thereby makes nonsense. There are certain small inconsistencies in the book which witness to a careless revision. Mr. Bishop arrived in the country in the middle of April. He accounts for the clouds of dust he encountered in his ride up to the capital, across the plains, by saying, "We had come at the end of the rainy season" (p. 33). The truth is, it was the end of the dry season—which lasts, roughly, from October to May. Indeed, Mr. Bishop himself finds this out, and so tells us, further on (p. 213), but one would think his later knowledge might have corrected his early mistake, when once he set himself to publish his magazine papers in book form. At one place (p. 60) he gives the population of Mexico city as 250,000, at another (p. 83) as but 200,000. Such a variation would not be strange, in view of the utter uncertainty of the Mexican census, if the two contradictory statements had not been allowed to stand without an indication that estimates differ. Similarly, Monterey is, on one page (53), said to be on the line of the Mexican Central Railroad, while on p. 87 it is truly given to the Mexican National.

One serious error occurs on p. 140. The election returns in the Presidential contest of 1871 are said to show a total poll of only 12,361 votes, for a population of over 8,000,000. These figures are taken from a school 'History of Mexico,' written by Manuel Payno, and can be found on p. 246 of that work. They have been cited by others, for the purpose of making the same inference as that drawn from them by Mr. Bishop—viz., that there is no popular participation in the Mexican elections. The figures were cited and the inference drawn by Mr. John Bigelow, ex-Minister to Mexico, in the pages of *Harper's Monthly*, if we remember, less than two years ago. He was replied to, on this head as on others, by the Mexican Minister to our country, Don Matias Romero, who clearly showed that only an ignorance of the electoral system of Mexico could have found this statement of Payno's surprising. These 12,361 votes were the votes of electors, each one elected as the representative of a district containing 500 inhabitants. If our own average of one voter to every five inhabitants were true of Mexico, then these 12,000 "votes" would represent over 1,000,000 voters. That such a proportion of the population ever has voted in Mexico, no one believes. Probably a majority of the people do not know when the elections take place. The mass of those who do know are well assured that the whole business is such a farce that it makes no difference whether they vote or not. Mr. Bishop's inference that the elections are simply a cumbrous way of declaring the will of the administration is, no doubt, very near the truth, but it cannot be fairly drawn from the figures he adduces and does not understand. Payno, with recollections of Prescott, seems to have been our author's sole guide to Mexican history.

But these are small blemishes in a really excellent book. What with his admirable and characteristic sketches, his irrepressible American persistency in going to all places and seeing all things, in the face of alleged impossibilities, his close observation, Mr. Bishop has gone beyond any writer we know of in getting at "the actual heart of things." There are, for instance, two ways of seeing Mexico city: one is to stand on the hill of Chapultepec or Molino del Rey, at sunrise, when the soft halo of the rising mists, shot through with the slant rays of the sun, throws a glamour over the whole valley, and makes the city, with its dimly-seen domes and towers, seem a very gem on the bosom of that glorious plain; the other is to walk its streets, to see the filth, the disease, the misery—all the more pitiable for being half unconscious; to meet those throngs of half-naked Indians who cause pity to struggle with disgust in the beholder; to encounter on every hand the signs of corrupt and degenerate blood, impaired vitality, moral insensibility. Travellers have been too much given to using the former method alone. It was a fashion set in the charming letters of Mme. Calderon de la Barca, who lived in a continuous state of enthusiasm, natural in the wife of the first Spanish minister plenipotentiary sent to the Republic, received as he was with frantic delight as bearing the long-delayed recognition of independence from the mother country. But Mr. Bishop walks the streets, and does not content himself with standing on the hill.

We get a hint at the exactions, almost Turkish, of the Vera Cruz custom-house. One reason for these may not be generally known. The salaries of all officers, from the "jefe" himself down to porters, are fixed at a certain sum, plus a certain percentage of all fines imposed and confiscations made. It is not strange that there should be a general conspiracy to take the uttermost farthing from the helpless importer. The Government has learned its Spanish political economy well. It keeps up a tariff so high as to discourage imports, authorizes rates of transportation that strangle internal commerce, puts postage at a figure that forbids letter-writing.

Mr. Bishop's ride to Acapulco makes, perhaps, the most interesting part of his book, as his route lay so out of the ordinary. A gentleman who made the same journey, only in the reverse direction, some years before Mr. Bishop, gives a striking proof of the simplicity and poverty of the people of the interior. He sought out the American consul in Acapulco for advice as to the trip. That official advised him to take no silver for his personal expenses, except *cuartillas*—a coin worth about three cents. He invested $5 in money of that denomination, paid for his meals and lodging and the care of his horse, during a journey of thirteen days, and, on reaching Mexico city, found that he had still $3 worth of the three-cent pieces. For every service rendered, no matter what, the invariable charge was a *cuartilla*. The people knew no higher denomination.

To turn from Mr. Bishop's book to Mr. Conkling's is to turn from a series of pictures to a set of surveyor's charts. We get plodding compilations of Humboldt and Prescott, extracts from Government reports, statistics of mining and railroad interests—all, of course, of some value to those who have no access to the sources, but hardly of sufficient importance to justify the making a book out of them. Mr. Conkling seems to forget that Mexico is no longer the land "of mystery and romance" that it was when his grandfather was American Minister in that country. He describes for the fiftieth time scenes, buildings, customs, routes of travel, with the pleased air of one who is adding to our stock of knowledge. Add to this a style which is commonplace incarnate when it is not emptily declamatory, an observation which is not capable of striking deeper than the most superficial traits of character, an amusing, literal acceptance of the Spanish extravagances of his hosts, and one gets a very high potential of dulness. The book is to be credited with an unusual accuracy in point of fact and orthography, though this but intensifies the disappointment one feels on closing it; it seems as if one should have been able to bring down more than one or two petty little mistakes, after a hunt through such an arid and toilsome tract.

KOESTLIN'S LUTHER.

The Life of Martin Luther. By Julius Koestlin. Translated from the German. Edited by John G. Morris, D.D., LL.D. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society.

In two recent numbers of the *Contemporary Review* Mr. J. A. Froude has called the attention of English readers to a 'Life of Luther' by Prof. Julius Koestlin, of Halle. He introduces his notice with these words: "At last we have a 'Life of Luther' which deserves the name; for such a biography Europe has waited till the eve of the four-hundredth anniversary of his birth." One would certainly gather from this language that the work thus noticed was a new contribution to literature, but Mr. Froude must, of course, have known that the volume he describes was the second edition of a book which appeared for the first time two years before, and that this book itself was only a meagre epitome in a popular form of the real Koestlin's 'Luther,' which has been in the hands of scholars for the last eight years.

The German epitome was, however, deserving of the highest praise. It was prepared with equal care and taste, containing the most telling portions of the original text, and made more interesting not only to the general reader, but to the scholar as well, by a multitude of illustrations, all of which were careful reproductions of contemporary originals. It gave, besides, a liberal selection of facsimiles of documents with translations. In a word, it was a model of a popular book in the best sense of that abused term.

It is from this abridgment that Doctor Morris has prepared the translation before us. He says: "It was thought eminently proper that the book thus noticed by the distinguished historian Froude should be put into the hands of English admirers of the mighty Luther, and it is accordingly presented to them." And this is the way he has done it: In the first place, he has dropped all the German illustrations and reproductions, and has added insult to the injury by saying that he did so because they were not adapted to American taste. In place of them he has substituted what he calls "some modern and artistically finished illustrations, which we are certain will secure the approbation of our patrons." These substituted illustrations are, with scarcely an exception, "borrowed" from those of Gustav Koenig, and have lost in the transfer the only merit they ever had, that of careful workmanship; the designs, feeble and absurd enough at the best, are here reproduced

in a style of art worthy of a child's primer of the last generation. To crown all, he has given us a portrait of Luther which, he tells us with a certain pride, is from an engraving in his own collection of Luther likenesses, made more than two centuries after the reformer's death!

We have dwelt upon these matters because they indicate the spirit which has governed the whole work. The translation, we are informed, was intrusted to several hands, in order to hasten its completion. No indication of the limits of each workman has been given, but, from a somewhat careful comparison of different portions with the original, we may say without harshness that the translation is characterized by an even badness, such as might have been expected in a book evidently thrown together in the greatest possible haste to catch the market while people are interested in the subject. We have enough bad translations of good books, but what makes this particularly exasperating is the condescension with which the editor explains all the feeble points as concessions to the depraved taste of American readers. It would be idle to point out special errors of carelessness and inaccuracy: they bristle upon every page, as any one who knows German may easily convince himself.

It is a relief to turn from the insufficient setting to the really brilliant picture it encloses. Never was a better illustration of the fact that no faults of presentation can wholly obscure the value of a truly great work. The original biography was the first of a series called "The Lives and Writings of the Fathers and Founders of the Lutheran Church." The plan of the series was to give not merely a biographical sketch of each man, but also a selection of his most important writings, so that the reader might hear him speak in his own tongue. In Koestlin the man was found who better than any other was fitted by his previous studies to undertake the biography of the great central figure about whom all the others were to be grouped. His book—we speak now of the original publication—is a masterpiece in its kind. An ardent admirer of Luther and a devout believer in the church system he inaugurated, Koestlin has preserved throughout the character of the impartial historian. He admits frankly that there are points in the character of the great personality he is dealing with which even his blind followers would find difficult to explain; but he undertakes to show how these defects were but the natural outcome of the situation in which Luther found himself.

It is easy for one looking back to convict any great leader of men of weaknesses and errors. We look at his problems in the light of later events, and we forget that he himself was feeling his way step by step in the dark, never quite sure whither the next move might lead him. And this was eminently true of Luther. Calvin at twenty-seven drew up a complete formula of doctrine and organization, from which as long as he lived he never departed, and which never passed through any essential changes. In his life there was no development. The problems which he found ready to his hand had been already thought out by Luther and the German theologians.

Luther, on the other hand, was called upon constantly to face in new forms the consequences of his own action, and it would be strange indeed if, in a time of ferment such as that, he should always have proved equal to the emergency. The wonder of the man is, that in so many cases he did rise to a clear understanding of the exact issue involved, and forced his opponents, friends or enemies as they might be, to recognize the force of his arguments or of his personality. He rose, almost from the first, to be the intellectual dictator of the serious reforming party. All questions of doctrine and of administration were referred to him; at times he was almost overwhelmed beneath the burden of these responsibilities. It is the best proof of the even balance of his mind that, in spite of his violent disposition, he succeeded so well in steering through the dangerous and shifting currents of the day.

If we think of him only as the man who posted his theses on the church door at Wittenberg, who burned the Pope's bull, who faced the Empire and the Church at Worms, we shall gain but a very inadequate idea of his activity. These were the moments when the world saw him flaming with the ardor of his conviction, and defying all the powers of earth in the name of a higher power, whose servant he believed himself to be. But when by means of this defiance the flame had been kindled, then came the still more arduous labor of so guiding it that it should purify and not destroy. The work of reorganization must follow after the work of destruction. There were others who could not rise to these new demands—men whose like are thrown up by every great social movement, and who could point to Luther as their leader, and demand that he should still lead them on into absolute liberty; but he saw from his retreat on the Wartburg whither these excesses must tend. He came down among them, and, by the simple force of the few great truths upon which he relied, succeeded in checking the mad current of radicalism. Again, in all the delicate questions regarding the relations of the Church to the civil power, his position was one of consistent conservatism. He had no desire to separate the Church from the state, nor to check in any way the control of the civil over the ecclesiastical body. The solution of the question, by allowing to every prince the right of reforming within his own territory, was not satisfactory to him. What he aimed at to the end was the final conquest of the truth over the sovereign of Germany, so that the reform he had at heart might have free scope in all the Empire. He counselled submission to the last, and it was a merciful fate which spared him the sight of his beloved Saxony overrun by imperial troops, the whole land engaged in a bitter struggle which his death had perhaps precipitated.

It was the hope of this ultimate victory of the truth over the hearts of men which caused him to resist so vigorously every proposal for an alliance with reforming parties who differed from him by ever so slight a shade in matters which seemed to him essential. At one moment it seemed as if an evangelical alliance between Lutherans, Zwinglians, and Calvinists might have swept all opposition before it. Luther steadily refused his consent, and the proposition failed. So in the years 1540–41, when moderate men on both sides fancied they saw the way for a reconciliation with Rome, it was largely Luther's opposition which caused the failure of the negotiations. Rome offered great concessions, but he could not be persuaded that they were made in any sincere spirit.

So with the internal organization of his church. It seemed to him a monstrous proposition that the congregation, as such, had any real rights. That seemed to him to smack of democracy and anarchy. He insisted that in place of the authority of the Pope, which had proved itself unworthy, there must be some other authority, and this he found in the state as head of the Church. The great principle of the right of the congregation we owe to the men whom Luther counted among his bitterest foes.

All this, and much more, has been for the first time clearly and consistently presented to the world by Julius Koestlin. His work, even in the mangled form in which it now lies before English readers, cannot fail to rouse a new and intelligent interest in the reformer in the minds of many persons to whom he has been heretofore but an honored name. It will serve an especial purpose in explaining to many why the celebration of the 10th of next month is now engaging the thoughts of men in all quarters of the Protestant world.

Colonies and Dependencies. Part 1, India, by J. S. Cotton, late Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford. Part 2, The Colonies, by E. J. Paine, Fellow of University College, Oxford. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883. Pp. 164.

THIS little book, one of the series under the general name of "The English Citizen," edited by Professor Craik, is an admirable example of what may be done to bring large subjects within popular reach. Neither part is much longer than one of the more important articles of a cyclopædia, but each is so well digested and so tersely presented that it gives nearly all the ordinary reader would care for. Each is also the work of a thoroughly competent hand.

In the first part, India, with its vast extent, its hundreds of millions of people of different races, its complicated political system, its past relations to the English East India Company, and its present subordination to the British Government, is presented with so comprehensive a view as to make one wonder how so much can be crowded into so few pages without becoming a mere series of tables. Yet the narrative is interesting, and the history, though necessarily a sketch, is so well sketched that those who know most of Indian history will be likely to be most pleased with the manner in which the condensation has been done.

The second part, which deals with the British colonies and their relations to the mother country, is worthy of its predecessor. The classification is based upon the natural division of the colonies into those which, having a large preponderance of citizens of British stock, have the enjoyment of the quasi-independence known as "responsible government," and those which, being still chiefly inhabited by native tribes, are necessarily ruled as subject countries. The salient characteristics of each form of colonial government are rapidly hit off, giving to every careful reader a sharply defined notion of the policy of the British Government, and its effect upon the material and social advancement of the people of the colonies. The curious features of colonial history are also touched upon, such as the frank avowal of the reasons for withdrawing representative government from some colonies with their own consent, in cases like those of Jamaica and Natal, where the diminution of European residents in the presence of large bodies of African population had made the ordinary methods of representative government apparently impracticable.

A very interesting chapter is found in the relation of the colonial system to the British navy, and the contrast between the necessity laid upon the English Government to maintain an immense naval armament and the freedom from such a burden which the United States enjoys in its compact, though vast, territory, having such resources in itself that it could not be ruined "if all its ports were under perpetual blockade." The advantage this country has over the British colonies is fully stated, and the superior attractions offered to immigrants are by no means slurred.

The brief but lucid treatment of topics in both parts of the volume is such as to make the book even more fit for the shelves of a family library

here than in England; for it gives as much as an intelligent American will ordinarily take time to read on such a subject, while an Englishman might wish for a more detailed examination of themes so large in themselves.

Notes of Talks on Teaching, given by Francis W. Parker at the Martha's Vineyard Summer Institute, July 17 to August 19, 1882. Reported by Lelia E. Partridge. E. L. Kellogg & Co. 1883. Pp. 182.

So much has been said and written of late about education that very many people besides teachers have become deeply interested in the many new departures now initiated. One of the chief of these has been known as the Quincy method, of which the genesis was somewhat as follows: The author of this book, after having had a varied experience as a teacher and in the army, where he became brevet-colonel, went to Germany in 1872 for a two years' course of study in pedagogy and allied branches, and returned only to find himself still more at variance with the methods and ideas of teaching in vogue in this country, and especially in New England. At length, however, he obtained the ear and confidence of Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., through whose influence he was made superintendent of the public schools of Quincy, Mass. Here he introduced many reforms of more or less value, and after five years came to Boston as supervisor, whence he was called to the principalship of the Cook Co. (Ill.) Normal School.

This book is the first authoritative statement of the author's methods, and, indeed, the first attempt at a systematic "pedagogy," in the German sense of that word, which has ever been published in this country. There is a manifest trace of affectation, or a timidity about being taken seriously, in the title, 'Notes of Talks,' etc., for it is the matured and carefully-revised utterance of the writer upon the most weighty questions in common-school education. His fundamental position is that teachers must take their method from the child, whom they must constantly study and associate and sympathize with. His plea is for individualism in place of the rigid time-table and normal-school formalism in vogue in most of our large cities. What is the most *natural* way of learning numbers, reading, geography, etc.; how to teach life, and not school merely, is the constant quest. Those who do not know the ire that may fill the teacher's mind when the established routine of school-work is unsettled or threatened, can hardly conceive the bitterness of feeling that these ideas have engendered. Colonel Parker has been accused of every inconsistency and incoherence—of importing German novelties without adapting them to our climate; of ignorance, conceit, shallowness, and impracticability—to all of which he has replied in various ways from various moods. For ourselves, we like him best when he professes to be a simple man, without exactly the qualifications to grasp the vaster and higher problems of education, often mistaken, but ready to acknowledge error, and animated by a deep love of young children and of being instrumental in their mental and moral growth. This is his strength, and it is this, and not his public utterances, that has won him his many adherents, and kept him mainly right. He has done more than any one in this country hitherto to make it impossible for the teachers of the future to succeed without studying carefully and well, and by every means at hand, the minds and hearts of children, and to make it manifest to every unbiassed person that it is through this psychological work mainly, though not alone, that teaching can ever become, in any sense, a profession or a science.

This is not the place to enter in detail into the special topics of the book. The chapter on history is the worst and most inadequate, and those on reading, number, and moral training are perhaps the best. There is too little thoroughness and depth even here, and the value of the book would have been increased by references to literature for further reading in all directions. These, it is especially hoped, may be given in later editions of the book. Upon the whole, and despite the limitations suggested, and others which might be specified did space permit, the book is sound and its suggestions mainly in the right direction, and worthy the careful consideration of every public-school teacher in the country.

French and German Socialism in Modern Times. By Richard T. Ely, Ph.D. Harper & Bros. Pp. 262.

THE chief merit of this book lies in the fact that its author commands a clear style and understands the art of condensation. Writing, too, with an appreciative conception of the ideas of the great socialists, he has succeeded in presenting a series of short sketches well fitted to arouse popular interest. There are, however, many books already upon the market which resemble this one in form. Descriptions of the writings of Baboeuf, Cabet, Saint-Simon, Fourier, Proudhon, and the rest, are not at all uncommon. There is a certain poetry about these systems, and a certain romance connected with the lives which they led who propounded them, that provides good material for interesting narrative. Still, it is a pleasure to notice that Doctor Ely has not arrested his study with attention to those socialistic schemes that find their basis in philanthropic dreams, but carries his readers as well into the realm of social philosophy; and he has succeeded admirably, when one considers the short space occupied, in introducing to us the thoughts of Rodbertus and Marx, and in presenting the spirit of social democracy. It is this fact which rescues his book from the monotony of an oft-told tale.

If one were asked the number of American readers who know anything of Rodbertus Jagetzow, he could not safely place his estimate very high. Yet this man was the founder of "scientific socialism" and the intellectual father of Karl Marx. There are not a few European scholars who call themselves his disciples, and who hold his name in as high regard as the English economists hold that of Adam Smith. There is now lying on our table a book bearing the Leipzig imprint of the present year, on the title-page of which one reads "Bismarck, Wagner, Rodbertus, drei deutsche Meister." The name of Marx is better known, but of his thoughts the American public is most certainly ignorant. His reputation extends no further than this, that he was the founder of the Internationalists, yet in reality he ranks among the most searching of historical students and economic critics. In this book by Doctor Ely there are but ten pages devoted to the doctrines of Rodbertus, and seven to those of Marx; still, the reader can obtain some idea of the philosophic positions assumed by these men. All that here finds place is correct, and the selection is such that what is said is not distorted by the narrowness of perspective. One cannot, we think, close these chapters without wishing the author had presumed a little upon the interest with which his readers would follow him, and entered more into detail respecting these systems.

The discussions upon the early French socialists might well have given place for this purpose. They, in fact, belong to ancient history, and, though their systems occur in what is technically termed modern history, they do not at all represent the spirit of modern social agitations. One thing only of what they taught remains as a permanent part of economic thought, and that is their criticism upon the optimistic element in the doctrine of free competition as found in English economy. The basis of modern agitation, as of modern optimism, is entirely different. It is found in the law of social development which a study of history discovers, in the perfecting of a system of popular government which, it is believed, is now but half realized, in the modification of property relations through growth of law, in the transformation of industrial relations through organization among the oppressed classes—indeed, in a system of thought that is bold and well defined. It makes no difference where our sympathies lie; it is this thought that will give character to the history of our immediate future, and it is well that we understand it. It is a matter of regret, therefore, that Doctor Ely did not give greater attention to this part of his subject, and it is to be hoped that, having, as it were, filed a caveat by the publication of this little book, he will complete his task by a more extended portrayal of the theories of Rodbertus, Marx, and the modern socialists.

Animal Life: Being the Natural History of Animals. By E. Percival Wright, M.A., M.D., etc. With illustrations. London and New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. 1 vol. large 8vo, pp. viii.-618.

POPULAR natural histories nowadays succeed one another with a rapidity which would astonish one who did not know how widespread, how almost universal, is the public interest in the subjects of which they treat, and how the demand for such books is fostered by the supply. The present treatise belongs to a large and increasing class, of very distinctive character. They are not text-books of science for professed students of zoölogy, nor yet story-books of animals for immature or uncultivated minds. They are not exhaustive treatises upon any special topic, even upon any particular branch, of zoölogy; nor are they written for specialists or even for scientists. They may be called modern "Cuviers"—not that they must be, or often are, from the hands of a great master of widely recognized or universal authority, but that they are the latter-day evolution of a 'Règne Animal' in spirit, scope, and purpose, however long the interval. They differ chiefly in being less technical and less authoritative—more popular and more attractive; in dealing less with the dead bodies and more with the life histories of animals.

At the head of this class doubtless stands Brehm's 'Thierleben,' published in numerous parts, making several volumes, and at this moment passing through a new edition. This is the basis of at least one of Cassell's publications, likewise in parts and making more than a volume. The same house is well known in connection with a number of books which fall in the same category. Then we have, in this country, S. G. Goodrich's 'Natural History,' to be classed with the foregoing in spite of the difference between Peter Parley and any sort of a "Cuvier." The best books of this class are not now usually the work of one author, a pretty high grade being assured by the engagement of a number of specialists to popularize the subject, each in his own department, as in the case of probably the best one of Cassell's books, that edited by Duncan and written by many hands. The same plan marks the 'Standard Natural History,' now publishing by Cassino in Boston, under the editorship of Coues and Kingsley. All such

works are, of course, profusely illustrated; they are also necessarily readable, or they would cease to exist.

If, now, we take a late edition of Cuvier—say the well-known one of 1849—we find a single portly volume of some 700 pages, fully illustrated, giving a compendious account, somewhat in the form of running commentary, of the animal kingdom, systematically arranged and classified according to the ideas of its author; the classes, orders, and families concisely defined, with genera and species enough remarked upon to illustrate the divisions established and the system proposed; with, however, a maximum of technicality to a minimum of readability, and continual insistence upon comparative anatomy. It is not all Cuvier, however; for the text of his editors—in this case Blyth, Mudie, Johnston, Westwood, and Carpenter—greets us on almost every page. Their business was to bring Cuvier down to date; the 'Règne Animal' was made a composite book by their labors; and such a volume as we have here sketched was, in 1849, incomparably the best view of the whole animal kingdom extant, for the purposes of any general reader and of many scientific students, though scarcely for any specialist. To-day, however, it is practically obsolete. We turn to it to see what used to be thought and said upon the subject, but we hardly study the subject from it any more than we do from Goldsmith's 'Animated Nature,' that extraordinary exhibition of genius and ignorance. The class of books above noted has entirely replaced alike the Cuviers and the Goldsmiths.

Doctor Wright's management of an Animal Kingdom may rank well among the good books of this class. It is not a Brehm, but then neither is it a Goodrich. It has the advantage of being a single volume of about the same bulk as the edition of Cuvier above noted; it is profusely illustrated with fair to excellent woodcuts, averaging, we should judge, at least one to every page. It is well planned and well written, and we think the author, under stress of the great condensation necessary to give any survey of the whole field in one volume, has shown much tact in elaborating those portions of the volume which most readers care most for, at the expense of the others. He need not have apologized for unequal treatment of some portions of the animal kingdom; for, as he says truly, "interesting stories about monads are not by any means as numerous as those about monkeys, nor have sponges as yet obtruded themselves upon our notice by assuming the impertinent physiognomies or intrusive habits of sparrows."

So it falls out that about one-third of the whole volume is devoted to mammals; less than as much to birds; to reptiles and fishes together only about as much as to birds; and to all the rest of the animal kingdom about as much as to birds. The book is of about the bulk of the 1849 Cuvier, and we fancy contains about as much matter; while the apportioning of space to the several classes is approximately similar, though only about half of the 'Règne Animal' is occupied with vertebrates. The treatment is systematic and consecutive, and there is enough technicality to ballast the pronounced popularity; the classification is fairly up to the times; the descriptions of animal life, when not original, are drawn from trustworthy sources, and are credible as well as readable. On the whole, we do not see why we may not say that Doctor Wright has produced in one volume a very acceptable modern "Cuvier" for the general reader, and especially for the rising generation.

Canaries and Cage-Birds. By Geo. H. Holden. New York: Published by the Author. 1 vol. large 8vo, pp. 364.

THIS is primarily an advertisement of the author's business, that of an importer and dealer in cage-birds; but it is not only an advertisement—it is the outgrowth, apparently, of a much less pretentious treatise of similar character, Holden's 'Book of Birds,' which we believe went through several editions, and must therefore have had sufficient reason for being. The present form of the publication is designed to be a help to those who keep birds for pleasure or breed them for profit. The usual assortment of cage-birds is passed in review, the greater part of the space devoted to each being occupied with practical directions for feeding, rearing, and otherwise caring for them. No pretence of literary style is made, but the book should be readable for those who fancy birds, and as it conveys the views of one whose experience is certainly mature, and who knows very well what he has written about, it should accomplish its aim to be a real help to birdkeepers. Some of the facts given and stories told, especially about bird-buying and importing, let the reader into some curious trade secrets. Canaries hold the leading place, and the bullfinch is particularly well treated, a number of "bullfinch melodies" being given in musical notation. The articles on parrots, finches, wrens, the mocking-bird, and various others of our native wild birds, are extended, and directions for mating and rearing various exotic species not often bred in this country are given. There are many illustrations, including several colored plates, which, though recognizable without exception, cannot be praised as works of art; some black full-page cuts, extremely coarse and hard; but also a number of figures in the text of much better average quality, some being fine portraits, and others spirited sketches. The book is a composite rather than a composed one, but lacks neither pictures, poetry, music, readability, nor usefulness as claims upon our attention.

Modern Spanish Readings. Embracing Texts, Notes, and Etymological Vocabulary. By William I. Knapp, Professor in Yale College. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 1883.

THIS is a series of prose readings—one page of "Versos" excepted—each complete in itself, and all composed in the language of contemporary Spain, as used "in good society, . . . in the journal, the review, and the latest work of fiction." The pieces given are thirteen in number, interesting historical matter occupying most of the space; and among the authors represented are Maria José de Larva ("Figaro," died 1837), Javier de Burgos (d. 1847), Lista (d. 1848), Juan Donoso Cortes (d. 1853), Lafuente (d. 1866), Cecilia Böhl de Faber ("Fernan Cavallero," d. 1877), José Selgas (born 1824), and Emilio Castelar (b 1832). The "Notes" are copious, being explanatory not only of idiomatic phrases, grammatical forms, or peculiarities of construction, but also of historical, geographical, and biographical points and allusions. Some are exceptionally full—we may say, more so than needed—as, for instance, when, in explanation of a purely incidental mention of "la batalla de Talavera," we are told when and by whom the battle was fought, after whom the town was surnamed "de la Reina," in what condition it is now, that it is famous as the birthplace of Juan de Mariana, when this writer lived, and where and by whom the first edition of his 'History of Spain' was published. The "Vocabulary" occupies almost half of the 450 pages of the book, and is fully accented and very lucidly done. Its etymological indications form a very meritorious feature, though "space was wanting to develop the popular Latin forms out of which Spanish words grew," the author "being able in most cases merely to drop the key-word, or a suggestion." In his conclusions as to derivations he occasionally differs from the great authorities on the subject, such as Dietz or Dozy, and for some deviations he states his reasons. Thus, for instance, he rejects the common derivation of *Don* from *dŏmĭnus*—"which makes legally only *dom'no*, and by assimilation of the *m*, *donno*, whence regularly *dueño* (cf. *somnus*, *sonno*, *sueño*), and *domĭna*, *dueña*"—and he derives it from the Phœnician (and Hebrew) *ādōn*, lord. But if the Phœnicians introduced *Don* and *Doña* and Port. *Dom* and *Dona* into the Spanish Peninsula, from whom have the Italians received their *donna* (obviously = *domino*)? Professor Knapp, in comparing "the other Romance nations," forgets this Italian word.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, E. Indian Idylls, from the Sanskrit of the Mahâbhârata. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Brehm's Thierleben. Chromo ed. Parts 99-104. B. Westermann & Co.
Bullock, A. H. Addresses Delivered on Several Occasions, with a Memoir by G. F. Hoar. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Bulloch, J. D. The Secret Service of the Confederate States in Europe; or, How the Confederate Cruisers were Equipped. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $6.
Byron, Lord. Complete Poetical and Dramatic Works. Newstead ed. Philadelphia: E. Claxton & Co. $5.
Cary, Alice. Snowberries: a Book for Young Folks. Illustrated. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Cary, Alice. Clovernook Children. Illustrated. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Cobbe, Frances Power. Religious Duty. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1.
Daudet, E. French Celebrities. Funk & Wagnalls. 15 c.
Dramatic Works of Richard Brinsley Sheridan. With an Introduction by Richard Grant White. In three volumes. Dodd, Mead & Co. $15.
Fernow, B. Documents Relating to the History of the Early Colonial Settlements, Principally on Long Island. Albany: Secretary of State.
Hatton-Harvey. Newfoundland: its History, its Present Condition, and its Prospects in the Future. Illustrated. Boston: Doyle & Whittie. $2 50.
Hudson, W. H. Sea-Sickness: its Cause, Nature, and Prevention. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co. $1 25.
Mollett, J. W. Watteau. Scribner & Welford.
Pelletreau, Rev. C. Reminiscences of the Seventh Regiment N. G., S. N. Y., in State Camp, June, 1883. A Book in Verse. Thomas Whittaker.
Prince, L. B. Historical Sketches of New Mexico, from the Earliest Records to the American Occupation. Leggat Brothers.
Smart, H. Two Kisses. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.
Trollope, A. Autobiography. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
What Became of Eugene Ridgewood? A Novel. G. W. Carleton.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 1, 1883.

The Week.

THE leading Independent Republicans of Pennsylvania have issued an address to their party or wing—whichever one likes to call it—in that State, urging their followers, now that they have succeeded in imposing the reform of the civil service on the political managers, and that a complete change in the political situation has thus been effected, to consider what "line of action promises the most efficient support to civil-service reform." It then goes on to recommend them to support the Republican party, on the ground that "any permanent improvement in our political methods and public life" is to be expected from that party only. The same thing may be said to the Independents in this State. Nobody who has read the Democratic papers and listened to the Democratic orators during the past year, can fail to see that the change in public sentiment about either civil-service or any other reform has not made the least impression on their party, and that there is nothing which makes it so eager for a return to power as the hope of seizing the offices again and using them as "spoils." Hardly one word of real encouragement do reformers receive from them, and if they get hold of the Government again, it appears pretty clear that the reform work of the last fifteen years will have to be done over again, by a new generation.

The combat in Massachusetts deepens as the election day draws near, and is made more exciting by occasional single combats under the eyes of both armies. The latest and one of the most deadly is between Mr. F. B. Sanborn and Wendell Phillips. Mr. Phillips is a supporter of Butler, and of course a rabid one. He was instrumental, it appears, in getting Miss Chevaillier appointed a Butler delegate, with Flower, the quack doctor, to the Louisville Charity Conference. It also appears that she is a Southern woman, and has been writing to Southern friends, as such, that she is engaged in the great work of exposing Massachusetts "hypocrisy," "Phariseeism," "cruelty and barbarism." Sanborn challenged Phillips to know if he was responsible for her, and got a characteristic letter in reply. In one to Miss Chevaillier he speaks of the opponents of Butler as "fractious rebels" against their Chief Magistrate. Sanborn calls this the talk of the "barber surgeon" of an Oriental despot, and the Governor "the Massachusetts Yahoo," and intimates that Phillips, once "the champion of a noble cause," is now

> "Eyeless in Gaza at the mill with slaves,
> Himself in bonds under Philistian yoke."

In fact, matters look very serious in the State on every side, and all the leading men are handling their opponents without gloves. Butler continues through the crisis to lie like clockwork from town to town, and the Republican papers chase him somewhat ineffectively, because his new lies come so rapidly that the public interest in the old ones is gone before they are exposed.

There has been a good deal of absurd talk among the negroes about the late Supreme Court decision, which indicates in some cases great ignorance of the nature and functions of courts of law. On the whole, however, it seems likely to turn the attention of the colored population in the matter of protection for their civil rights in the true direction, namely, to the government of the States in which they live. When the Congressional Civil-Rights Bill was passed, few supposed that within ten years the negro voters of the South would have it in their power to make themselves felt at State elections. As a matter of fact, however, there is hardly a State today in which their support, properly managed, is not worth courting by one or other of two parties. In Virginia, in particular, they are literally masters of the situation, if they choose, and will do good service, if, as they now threaten, they compel their leader, Mahone, to do something for them besides cheating the State creditors and debauching the public service by office-jobbing at Washington. Mahone's Legislature has in its possession all the civil rights there are in the State, and it ought to be compelled to divide them equally between the two races.

On last Saturday the Banks County (Ga.) Kuklux were found guilty by a jury in the District Court of the United States for the Northern District of Georgia. It will be remembered that last July several negroes in Georgia were visited by masked men in the middle of the night and most cruelly beaten. Both the State courts and the United States courts proceeded at once against the eight men who were alleged to be engaged in this atrocious crime. The latter claimed jurisdiction, upon the ground that the outrages were committed upon the parties because of their vote in the last Congressional election. The evidence was clear that the negroes were barbarously whipped by eight men who were identified with the prisoners. But it was not clear that the negroes' manner of voting had had anything to do with the whipping, which seems, indeed, to have been motiveless. The prisoners were little better than cowboys in their civilization, and all of them were quite young, the majority of them not being twenty-one years old. It is more easy to believe that the act was one of wanton brutality than of political rancor, when it is remembered that the Congressional election had long since been held, and that the candidate for whom these Kuklux voted was victorious. The verdict, at any rate, will give general satisfaction. The people of Banks County in particular have already expressed their denunciation of the crime in a mass meeting held shortly after it was committed.

Mr. W. D. Kelley furnishes some very doleful opinions on the condition of the iron industry in Great Britain, and the low wages and distress of her operatives, in a *Herald* interview. When the evil-minded reporter asked him what opinion he had formed in the course of his journey as to the situation of iron-workers at home and abroad comparatively, he said: "You may well believe that I have come home a more intense protectionist than when I went away." This, we submit, was hardly a fair answer to public curiosity. That the iron trade of Great Britain is in an unsatisfactory condition is well known, but the decline in production has not been nearly so rapid or disastrous as in the United States. According to the last report of the American Iron and Steel Association, there were only 340 furnaces in operation in a total of 705. Three hundred and sixty-five furnaces were out of blast on the first day of October, and their operatives were not earning even the small pittance which moves Mr. Kelley's pity for the British iron-worker. The truth is that the capacity for making iron in the United States is more than twice as great as the demand for iron in this country, or in any part of the world where we have a chance to sell. The capacity of England for making iron is somewhat, but not greatly, larger than our own, but she has the enormous advantage over us that her market is coextensive with the boundaries of the earth. We can see no prospect of a revival of the iron trade in the United States, and especially in the Eastern States, which does not look to a foreign outlet. It will be much more to the purpose for Mr. Kelley to show how the 365 dead furnaces are to be relighted, than to bewail the low wages of the iron-workers at Merthyr-Tydvil.

The *Christian Leader*, while greatly admiring Mr. Matthew Arnold, has had his "image marred" in its mind by "the mercenary proclamation of his purpose in seeking our shores." This means that Mr. Arnold has said frankly that he has come here to lecture, and expects to be paid well for it. If this mars his image in the *Leader's* mind, what a condition the images of Thackeray and Dickens, of Wendell Phillips, of Dr Chapin, of George William Curtis, of Emerson, of Carlyle, of Freeman, and scores of other eminent men, must be in. They all lectured for money, and made no secret of it, and used the money unblushingly in such ways as providing for their families, increasing their own income, paying their debts, and so forth. The *Leader* must not fall into the too common error of expecting anybody one admires to work for nothing. Even ministers are not above taking a good salary, and their doing so is not held to mar their preaching, and it should not mar their images. What does it think of the long and successful mercenary lecturing of its own Dr. Chapin? The fact is that one object of Mr. Arnold's visit is to open up such minds as the *Leader's*, and stop any improper image-marring there may be going on inside.

Lord Coleridge on Friday, at Yale College, took part in the old controversy about the value of the classics as a means of college education. His remarks were apparently suggested by the recent attack on classical training by Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., and he defended it on the ground that it had been of great use to him, and must be of great use to any one who has to speak or write, and therefore needs to know the art of persuasion, which consists so largely in style, arrangement, and logic. This, however, was rather an answer to Professor Huxley, and others of the scientific school, than to Mr. Adams. It is true that the latter made some very depreciatory remarks on the Greek orators and historians, but his main objection to them as college text-books was not that they could not do him any good, if he understood them, but that his University never taught him to read them. So that on the whole his discourse was rather a criticism of collegiate methods than of the classical curriculum. Lord Coleridge's testimony, being that of a man who knows Greek and Latin, is of much more value, therefore, than Mr. Adams's, which was that of a man who confessed he had never really learnt them at all. It confirms, too, remarkably what we said about the matter two months ago, viz., that classical training, like every other kind of training, was sure to be useful to a man who got it, but that, of course, to a man who never got it, it could not possibly be of any use whatever. Indeed, Mr. Adams's address might, *mutatis mutandis*, be used as a very good argument against scientific training; for that science does nothing for the mind of a man who learns no science, is as plain as a pikestaff.

It must not be said in answer to this that Lord Coleridge comes from a university in which the classics are taught more effectively than they are taught at Harvard and Yale, and that he is an example of what better university methods might do in making the classics a means of useful mental culture. The truth is that the classics, like most other things, are taught in much the same way in all of the leading universities—that is, they are well taught to those who are willing to learn, and poorly taught to those who are not. In nine cases out of ten, young men leave college in a state of ignorance simply because they did not give their mind to their work. For this unwillingness to study there is no college remedy under the sun. The notion that the men who graduate without knowing Greek would, if German or French were substituted for Greek, graduate with a thorough knowledge of this useful modern tongue—which was part of Mr. Adams's thesis—is one of those comforting fictions which it is somewhat cruel to attack, but it is nevertheless a fiction. They would graduate with about as much German and French, or science either, as Greek or Latin. Everybody has a little fiction of this kind about his youth which sustains and consoles him, when he journeys through life under the inconvenience caused by his own deficiencies. Sometimes it is his father, sometimes his mother, sometimes school, and sometimes college that did not do the right thing by him at the right time.

The arrival of Father Hyacinthe will recall to many of our readers the flutter of excitement into which his last visit, fourteen years ago, threw the religious world, and will set them reflecting, too, on the smallness of the results of his defection from the Roman Church, of which he was so bright an ornament. When he quarrelled with her he was one of her most powerful and persuasive preachers, and was expected to exert great influence in resisting the Infallibilist craze of Pius the Ninth and his Council. But nothing, or less than nothing, has come of it all. It is not worth while to discuss the causes of this now. Some of them have been special and some general, and it must be said that Father Hyacinthe has fared no worse in this respect than greater theologians, such as Döllinger. His failure teaches several things, of which the most prominent is that in our time it is not possible to start a new religious movement or found a new sect that will succeed, no matter how absurd or overbearing orthodoxy may become; and the reason is that there is not enough popular interest in dogma. If the Vatican Council had made it an article of faith that the earth moves round the moon, it would have done the Church but little harm, simply because unbelievers are lazy and do not care. Anybody who seceded because he did not believe it could not have got enough dissenters to go with him to pay the expenses of "a hall" to protest in. In fact, anybody who has got a good place in the Church in our time cannot, as far as influence goes, do better than stay there.

Judge McCrary, in the United States Circuit Court, at Des Moines, Iowa, has decided that the Iowa law of 1874 could not operate so as to limit railroad charges between two points, one of which is in another State, holding that if the State could fix charges on lines outside its own limits, it would be an infringement of the right of the United States to regulate inter-State commerce. It would, moreover, he said, enable one State to discriminate against the commerce of other States. This decision, if sustained, will of course make all coming granger laws, if any should be passed, very ineffective, because it leaves the power of railroads over through-freights practically untouched. The greater part of railroad freight business, in the West particularly, comes under the head of inter-State commerce. The decision has no special importance for the Iowa people, however, because they have repealed the law under which the suit was brought.

The retirement of national-bank circulation, although it has not yet reached serious proportions, has created a feeling of uneasiness in business circles which will inevitably spread through the country unless the causes which lead to the contraction are removed by efficient legislation. The retirement of circulation is due to the calling in of the 3 per cent. bonds and to the high price of the 4's. The easiest, cheapest, and simplest remedy, as we have heretofore pointed out, would be to repeal the 1 per cent. tax on circulation, which is no longer needed for revenue purposes. The tax yields only $3,500,000, while the collection of it renders the whole bank circulation unstable. The burden falls almost wholly on the country banks, since the banks of the large cities have very little circulation. The tax on deposits, which was removed at the last session of Congress, was, on the other hand, a relief to the city banks, in which those of the small towns participated only to a trifling extent.

There is another measure, however, which would relieve the pressure on bank circulation, and which is open to no objection either political or financial. The Government allows a bank to issue only $900 circulation on a bond of $1,000, whether the market value of the bond is par or 22 per cent. above par, and requires 5 per cent. to be deposited at Washington in money as additional margin. This is really a margin (in the case of the 4 per cent. bonds) of 37 per cent. exacted by the Government at a time when private lenders require only 5 or 6 per cent. margin on the same kind of security. There is no reason why the Government should not allow the issue of notes to the extent of 90 per cent. of the market value of the bonds held as security, reserving the right to call for additional security if the market price declines. The idea which Congress had in view in passing the National Bank Act was merely to keep the margin of security equal to 10 per cent., but the margin has enlarged itself by the appreciation of the public credit in a manner not anticipated when the law was first enacted. If security is the sole consideration, there is a manifest incongruity in exacting only 10 per cent. margin in the case of one class of bonds, 18 per cent. in another, 22 per cent. in another, and 32 per cent. in another—all of these percentages being augmented by the 5 per cent. cash deposit at Washington. By repealing the tax on circulation and fixing the margin of security at 10 per cent. of the market value of the bonds, the stability of the national-bank notes might be secured for at least twenty years. In order to meet the gradual lessening of the premium on the 4 per cent. bonds as they approach maturity, it would be proper to require the banks to deposit 1 per cent. per annum of bonds, or retire an equivalent amount of circulation. The existing tax on circulation might be safely commuted in this way.

The very low price of wheat in Chicago (about 93 cents per bushel) has led to a general revision of estimates both as to the quantity of the crop on this side of the Atlantic and the extent of the demand abroad. The course of the market during the past month would seem to prove either that the yield had been underestimated or the foreign demand overestimated, or both. It is a very rare thing for wheat to fall below $1 in the Chicago market, and when it does we must assume, whatever the statisticians tell us, that the supply is in excess of the demand. The very opposite condition had been anticipated for a period of nine months—that is, from the time when a large area of winter wheat was reported to have been killed by frost. The most commonly received estimate of the year's yield at the

present time is 400,000,000 bushels. This is 59,000,000 bushels less than the yield in the census year.

Mr. Dudley, the Commissioner of Pensions, is pursuing with commendable vigor the gang of swindling claim agents who have been operating for many years in Washington. Their infamous performances have been exposed many times, but for some reason or other they have been allowed to go unpunished. The law provides ample penalties for their offences, and there is now a prospect that some of the worst of them will be brought into court and punished. District-Attorney Corkhill, an official who is never precipitate in his movements against criminals, has at last become so much aroused by the complaints of pensioners who have been robbed that he has determined to bring the matter before the Grand Jury. He says the character of the enormous frauds perpetrated by certain claim agents will, if the allegations made are sustained by the evidence, surprise the public. "The devices employed are," he says, "as numerous as the skill of dishonest men can contrive." There is nothing surprising to the public in that statement, for its truth has been demonstrated by repeated exposures during the past few years.

The stockholders of the Keely Motor are again restless, and talk of suing the inventor. But no good can possibly come of suing him. His means are all in the machine, and not only can nobody work the machine but himself, but apparently nobody but himself can understand it. Indeed, this last fact seems to constitute an insurmountable bar to bringing him under the operation of the powers of a court of equity. A judge might order him to explain his invention to his stockholders; but this would do them no good as long as there was no mind capable of receiving the explanation. The thing to do now is to train some bright boy in such a way as to make his understanding a fit receptacle for the Keely secret. In the meantime the stock will do, like a good many other stocks, for speculation. A stock is not wholly useless because there is no property behind it.

Another professor has seceded from the Cincinnati College of Music, and the functions of faculty and director are now snugly consolidated in the person of the President, who is not in any sense a musician. The institution has thus reached the position which its founders have been trying for many years to bring it to. They made the mistake at the outset of putting the College into the hands of a lot of musical enthusiasts, who would not be brought to see that the commercial success of the institution was of greater importance than the establishment of a high artistic standard. The result was that when they supposed they had opened a shop for the retailing of musical instruction, they discovered that they had a director and faculty who were fanatically devoted to art without regard to pecuniary profits. A quarrel began at once, and at regular intervals one of the "musical cranks" has been got rid of, his departure in each instance being announced as due primarily to his infirmities of temper, which made it impossible for the President to get along with him. The last member of this troublesome faculty departed on Saturday, and with him the last purely artistic influence which was left of the institution as originally opened. The famous musical critics of the place, also, are apparently moving to New York and bringing their apparatus with them. We have no doubt that, now that it has been freed of its discordant elements, the College will flourish and become—what it has all along been aiming to be—a "big thing for Cincinnati."

The *Herald* correspondent at Constantinople telegraphs, in what purport to be Mr. A. S. Hewitt's exact words, an account of an interview of that gentleman with the Sultan which, if correct, is very amusing reading. Mr. Hewitt certifies that the Sultan is a man of great intelligence, but that his intellect is of a "metaphysical order," given rather to analysis than to generalization. If this be true, he must also be a wag of no mean powers, for he observed to Mr. Hewitt that the stability of American institutions was due to the "absence of politicians," from "a superabundance" of whom France suffers so much. This is not bad for a man of a metaphysical turn. But it was not so good as his attempt to persuade Mr. Hewitt that "perfect religious freedom prevailed throughout the empire," and that the followers of all creeds were equally protected by law. His remark that he understood that Mr. Hewitt was likely soon to become a member of the Government, was probably an attempt to start a Hewitt "boom." There was something pathetic in his assertion that the United States "harbors no designs and pitfalls" against his empire, considering that General Wallace has been trying to impose a free-trade tariff on him, or, in other words, to ruin the poor man by pouring in on him the products of our pauper labor.

The attempts of the Land-Leaguers in Ireland to carry their agitation into Ulster are plainly to be baffled by force. The Orangemen have announced the intention of attacking their meetings, and the Government will probably forbid the meetings on the ground that they are unable to protect them. The situation is complicated by a ferocious letter of Lord Rossmore, who is an Orange Grand Master, or something of that sort, in which he announces in plain terms that the Orangemen will shoot the Land-Leaguers if they try to carry on their treasonable agitation, as he considers it, in the North. The letter is undoubtedly an incendiary one, and exposes the writer to prosecution under the Crimes Act; and he ought to be prosecuted, but probably will not be. But if he be not prosecuted it will weaken the position of the Government in dealing with crime or disorder on the other side. Nothing could, in the present state of Ireland, be more unfortunate than any sign of favor or toleration for the Orangemen, who can hardly be called a political body at all, or indeed a body having any modern political opinions. They are an organization for perpetuating the ferocious religious hates of the seventeenth century, and seek nothing in the way of political change but the persecution of some of their countrymen on the ground of religious belief.

The French Ministry have received a terrible blow in the publication of the latest despatch of the Chinese Ambassador, who for some inscrutable reason is called the "Marquis" Tseng. Their Yellow Book, which they have presented to the Chambers, contains as much of their correspondence with him as they judged it best to show, and it makes the Chinese appear to be getting the worst of it. But Tseng's despatch is said to show that he has never made them the slightest concession, and is, indeed, not prepared to concede anything they care for beyond a few ports on the coast; and, what is more serious than all, that China seems ready and willing to fight. It is now said she can throw 50,000 well-armed and tolerably drilled troops down into Tonquin, who can give employment to, say, at least as many Frenchmen. More unwelcome news for the Ferry Ministry could hardly come. A curious illustration of the very mixed-up condition of the French mind on the whole matter may be found in the articles of the eminent financier Leroy-Beaulieu in his paper the *Économiste Français*, in which, often in the same column, he draws a most dismal picture of the condition of the French finances, and clamors for the vigorous pushing at the same time of all the crazy colonial enterprises, including that of Tonquin.

The Emperor Francis Joseph, in receiving the Delegations for Common Affairs of Cisleithania and Hungary, now convened in Vienna, was quite emphatic in enunciating peaceful intentions toward all Powers, and his conviction that the people of every country felt strongly the need of tranquillity. Count Kálnoky, the Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, has twice proclaimed similar views on occasions offered by the Delegations, each time expatiating on his Empire's relations with Russia. The organ of the Russian Foreign Office, the *Journal de Saint Pétersbourg*, readily chimes in with reciprocal sentiments, declaring that the diplomacy of M. de Giers is entirely devoted to the maintenance of peace, and that there is no question now pending that is likely to disturb the quiet prevailing in Europe. This declaration is uncommonly kind, considering that Russia has just suffered both checks and affronts in her dealings with the States of the Balkan Peninsula, Ruman and Slavic, which owe her their independence, or semi-independence. But is it as sincere as generous? Count Kálnoky, unfortunately, on one occasion hinted at armaments in Russia, in spite of which the peace of Europe appeared to him unmenaced; and his Emperor demands of the united Delegations additional appropriations both for the carrying out of reforms in the army and the formation of reserves. At the same time reports of Russian army concentrations on the western borders of the Empire are repeated in German newspapers with growing positiveness.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, October 24, to TUESDAY, October 30, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR on Saturday issued a proclamation designating Thursday, November 29, as a day of national thanksgiving.

The Utah Commissioners had an interview with the President on Friday. They are divided in opinion whether they shall recommend a government for the Territory by a legislative commission, or by a commission like that in the District of Columbia. There is no difference of opinion as to the fact that polygamy cannot be destroyed under the Edmunds law, yet they are disposed to give that law more credit than it has generally received. They submitted their report to Secretary Teller on Tuesday. In it they intimate that if the Mormon Legislature shall not act in good faith, and enact suitable legislation to carry out the Edmunds law, the Commissioners will recommend to Congress the passage of the severest laws possible under the Constitution.

The Secretary of War has received Lieutenant Garlington's answers to the questions asked him by General Hazen after the receipt of his (Garlington's) report of the expedition to Smith Sound, for the relief of Lieutenant Greely's expedition. He explains that he did not leave any of his boats for Greely's use, because "to have left one of the *Proteus's* boats, or to leave one of my whale-boats and distribute my surplus men in the *Proteus's* boats, a resort to force would have been necessary, which I was not prepared to make for the questionable benefit of leaving a boat. Lieutenant Greely has eight boats available on the west coast and another on Carey Island." After answering other criticisms, he requests that a court of inquiry be appointed to investigate the whole case, if his explanations are not satisfactory.

General Hazen, the Chief Signal Officer, expresses the belief that Lieutenant Greely is safe, and that his party will survive the winter.

Secretary Teller and Mr. Dudley, Commissioner of Pensions, are making war upon pension agents suspected of unlawful acts. A number have been suspended from practice until they can disprove the charges against them.

The report of the Superintendent of the Money-Order Bureau of the Post-office Department, for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1883, contains the following figures: The total number of money-order offices on June 30 was 5,927. The number of domestic money orders issued during the year was 8,807,556, of the value of $117,329,406. The number of orders paid was 8,602,625, and the value of those paid and repaid was $117,344,281. The increase in the value of the domestic orders issued over those issued during the preceding fiscal year was $3,955,980, or 3 46–100 per cent. The report also shows that the postal note has been extensively used by the public since the inception of the system.

A statement prepared for the use of the Post-office Department shows that the total receipts from the postal service during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1883, were $45,508,692. The expenditures were $42,816,700; surplus, $2,691,992.

The Star-route scandal was revived on Thursday in the Supreme Court Chambers, in this city, before Judge Barrett, in an action brought by John A. Walsh against Thomas J. Brady. The matter came before the court upon a motion to vacate an order which had been granted for the examination of Brady before trial. The motion was granted because the affidavit did not show that the evidence of General Brady was material and necessary to enable Mr. Walsh to frame his complaint. A similar order against ex-Senator Kellogg was also vacated.

When the Circuit Court met in Washington on Tuesday, the case of Hallett Kilbourn against John G. Thompson, ex-Sergeant-at-Arms of the House of Representatives, for $350,000 damages for alleged false imprisonment, was taken up.

The indications are that the new railroad-time standard will be approved by the Government.

Rear-Admiral Crosby, of the United States Navy, commanding the Asiatic station, has asked to be placed on the retired list under the forty-years' service law. The request has been granted, and on Monday Commodore John Lee Davis was selected by the Secretary of the Navy to succeed him in command of the Asiatic squadron.

General Crook telegraphed from San Carlos, Arizona, to the War Department on Wednesday: "Two Chiricahuas men and one boy came in to-day, and report that they left the Chiricahuas camp, near Casa Grande, nineteen days ago, and that all the remainder of the Chiricahuas left behind in Mexico were to leave their camp for San Carlos the next day."

An indignation meeting of negroes was held in Chicago on Wednesday night, to protest against the recent decision of the Supreme Court against the Civil-Rights Bill.

The American Iron and Steel Association has received statistics showing considerable falling off in imports of iron and steel from Great Britain. The imports of these products last month footed up 55,144 tons against 66,633 tons for the previous month. The total imports for the nine months of this year were 540,079 tons, while for the corresponding period last year they were 950,905 tons.

In the West the war of freight rates is extending. On Thursday the agent of the Central Pacific Railway announced a cut to 43 cents per hundred pounds, from San Francisco to Salt Lake City. There is an agreement between the Union Pacific and the Central Pacific to carry freight from the Missouri River to San Francisco for 85 cents per hundred.

The Society of the Army of the Cumberland met at Cincinnati last week. General Sheridan was reëlected President, and the date of the next meeting was fixed for September 21 and 22, 1884, at Rochester, N. Y.

After a session of twenty-one days the General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church was brought to a close in Philadelphia on Friday.

Mr. Matthew Arnold made his first appearance as a lecturer in this country at Chickering Hall, in this city, on Tuesday evening. A very large audience greeted him. His subject was "Numbers." He failed to make a favorable impression because his delivery was not gauged to the hall, and many were unable to hear.

"Père Hyacinthe," the Rev. Charles Loyson, arrived in this city on Sunday. He has come to this country to lecture for the purpose of raising funds to carry on his work in France.

A reception was given Mr. Henry Irving, the English actor, at the Lotos Club in this city on Saturday evening. Speeches were made by Mr. Chauncey M. Depew, Gen. Horace K. Porter, Mr. Irving, and others. On the same evening Mr. Andrew Carnegie gave a reception at the Windsor Hotel in this city, to Mr. Matthew Arnold, which was attended by distinguished men in literary and public life.

Lord Coleridge was entertained by the Union League Club of this city on Thursday night. He paid a short visit to Yale College on Friday and addressed the students. He sailed for England on Saturday.

The sum of $250,225 has been subscribed by wealthy residents of Boston as a permanent fund for the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, to be called the "William Barton Rogers Fund." The income from the fund only is to be used for the support of the Institute.

The trustees of Asbury University, in Indiana, have completed an agreement with W. C. Depauw, that when the name of the institution is changed to Depauw University he will pay $2 to $1 of all subscriptions that may be paid by other parties, according to a schedule aggregating about $120,000. By this agreement, if it is carried out in full, the University will receive about $400,000, besides a provision in Mr. Depauw's will for a certain part of his estate at his death, a gift now estimated to be worth $1,000,000.

A report on the Mormon missions in the Sandwich Islands, published in Salt Lake City by the Church, shows a membership of 3,600. The King was present at the September Conference on the island. The Church owns a large sugar plantation there.

It is said that Claus Spreckles, proprietor of the California Sugar Refinery, who holds a monopoly of the Hawaiian sugar trade, has contracted for the purchase of the entire crop of sugar of the islands, on the condition that all shipments be made by his vessels. This is equivalent to a monopoly of the carrying trade both ways, as other vessels going there will not get return cargoes.

The Baltimore municipal election on Wednesday resulted in the election of Gen. F. C. Latrobe (Dem.), Mayor, over the Fusionist candidate, by a majority of 3,540. The usual Democratic majority is about 10,000, and the Fusionists are therefore much encouraged. There are some hopes of a Republican victory in the State election.

Governor Cleveland on Friday issued an order of removal upon Benjamin W. Downing, District Attorney of Queens County, for malfeasance in office in receiving two checks of $100 each to stimulate his zeal in the prosecution of a trial for manslaughter.

Dissensions have appeared among the Democrats of this city, and in many Aldermanic, Assembly, and Senatorial Districts two candidates are in the field. Tammany, Irving Hall, and the County Democracy are only united on the county ticket.

Mr. Worts, the bolting Republican candidate for the Senate in the Oswego District of this State, withdrew on Thursday in favor of Mr. Lansing.

The National Horse Show in this city was brought to a close on Friday evening after a very successful season of five days, during which the Madison Square Garden was crowded with visitors.

Eight white ruffians were on trial in Atlanta, Ga., last week for terrifying and abusing negroes during the campaign of last year. They belonged to an organization called the "Pop and Go Club." On Saturday they were convicted.

Dr. Leonard D. Gale, of Washington, for a long time well known in scientific circles, is dead. He was the assistant of Prof. S. F. B. Morse at the time when he was perfecting the magnetic telegraph, and gave him valuable aid in the invention.

Gustavus V. Fox, Assistant Secretary of the Navy during part of the war, died in Lowell, Mass., on Monday, at the age of sixty-two.

FOREIGN.

The general impression produced in Paris by the condition of the relations between France and China on the Tonquin question, as shown by the Yellow Book, recently issued, is that all negotiations between the two countries are exhausted, and that only war or mediation will settle the dispute. The Chinese Legation in Paris are dissatisfied with the many omissions of the book, and have published all the documents bearing upon the Tonquin question. They add little to the correspondence already published, except that arguments are offered in favor of China's position.

M. Challemel-Lacour, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, in the Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday afternoon explained the Tonquin policy of the Government. He denied that the expedition was an adventure, and justified the attack on Hué and the forts. He added that negotiations with China had only been interrupted, and he believed that events would speak for themselves. The debate on the subject was adjourned.

Mail advices from Saigon seem to confirm previous reports of atrocities in Anam. One report says that Admiral Courbet directed, in an official order, that there should be no quarter given to men, women, or children. Three hundred Anamites who had taken refuge in the mouth of the Bay of Thuan, were shot. One hundred and fifty more, who were drifting in a junk, without arms or oars, were also massacred. The Paris *Figaro* declares that Admiral Courbet, at the instance of Commissioner Harmand, allowed the perpetration of such acts in order to terrorize the Anamites. The *Temps* denies that Admiral Courbet gave such orders, but admits that 1,200 of the enemy were slain at Thuan.

The Paris *Figaro* on Tuesday published a report that the Governor of the Chinese province of Yunnan, with 14,000 troops, had received orders to enter Tonquin and occupy Cao-bang, about 130 miles north of Hanoi, the French headquarters. The French Government, in view of the warlike attitude of China, will ask the Chamber for a much larger credit for the expenses of the expedition in Tonquin than was originally intended. It does not expect a defeat in the Chamber on its Tonquin policy.

At a meeting of the English Cabinet in London on Thursday, the affairs of Mr. Shaw, the English missionary, late of Madagascar, were discussed. It was asserted that France would grant an indemnity to Mr. Shaw of £1,000, besides officially expressing suitable regrets at the occurrence. This closes the incident.

The Conference for the Protection of Submarine Cables has been concluded in Paris. The most important feature in the Conference was the English proposal that in the event of war any Power be at liberty to withdraw, with the right of readmission when peace has been concluded, and the Conference adopted this principle. This means that in case of war any Power may cut cables at its own risk and peril. The cables must take the same chances as other property at sea. The Conference unanimously signed the draft of a convention for the protection of cables, and it is hoped that the convention will soon be sanctioned by treaties.

At the annual meeting of the five academies in Paris on Friday, Count de Lesseps delivered a long lecture on the scientific and civilizing character of great enterprises intended to facilitate intercourse between nations. He insisted that the maritime highways should no longer be subjected to the vicissitudes of the active politics of governments, but should be open at all times.

A recent despatch from Panama as to the progress of the work on the canal shows that the total length of the canal is seventy-four kilometres. It is divided for work into twelve sections, employing daily thirty steam excavators, forty locomotives, and 800 up-wagons. There are 90,000,000 cubic metres to be excavated. The force employed upon the work is upward of 10,000 men, and the excavation up to the 15th of October amounted to more than 2,500,000 cubic metres. The working force will soon be augmented to 15,000 men.

The Geodetic Conference in session at Rome has adopted a report favoring the universal adoption of the Greenwich meridian, and also recommending, as the point of departure of the universal hour and cosmopolitan dates, the mean noon of Greenwich.

It is asserted in London that when Parliament meets, Mr. Gladstone will propose that Sir Henry James, Attorney-General, be made Speaker of the House of Commons, in the place of Sir Henry Bouverie William Brand, the present Speaker, who is to resign. Another account says that it is authoritatively denied that any time is fixed for the Speaker's withdrawal.

Several Irish National League meetings which were announced for Sunday were proclaimed.

The Poor Law Guardians of the Limerick (Ireland) Union have resolved to take advantage of the Laborer's Act, and build a thousand cottages for the accommodation of laboring men.

A terrible explosion occurred on Tuesday evening near the Praed Street underground station on the Metropolitan Railway of London. Six cars were shattered, and more than forty persons injured, many of them seriously. Almost simultaneously there was an explosion on the underground railway between Charing Cross and Westminster stations. Car windows were smashed and the Charing Cross station injured. It is said that four machines similar to rockets were found in the tunnel near the Praed Street station. The explosions are believed to have been the work of Fenian dynamite conspirators.

Mr. John Bright denies that he has any intention of visiting America, as has been reported.

Sir Moses Montefiore, the Hebrew philanthropist, received congratulations from all parts of the world on Wednesday, when he entered upon the one hundredth year of his life

Miss Mary Anderson on Saturday night appeared in London as *Pauline* in the "Lady of Lyons," and met with an enthusiastic reception.

The cotton house of Morris Ranger, prominent in Liverpool, suspended on Tuesday. The failure caused great excitement in the cotton trade. The liabilities are estimated at $2,000,000, due to parties in Liverpool, and $200,000, due in Havre. Many other brokers were involved. The failure of R. H. Forman & Co. soon followed.

At a conference of the Fair Trade League now sitting in London, the imposition of a moderate import duty upon foreign wheat, in order to encourage the trade of the British colonies, was advocated.

The Irish informers, Michael Kavanagh, Joseph Smith, and Joseph Hanlon, have arrived at Calcutta, whither they were shipped as grooms on a steamer which took horses from Melbourne to the former port.

The latest Nihilist proclamation which has been circulated at St. Petersburg demands that the Czar summon the representatives of the Russian people, and asks for full amnesty, freedom of the press, freedom of speech, and the right to hold public meetings, as the only means of preventing a revolution. Pitiless vengeance is threatened if the demands of the Nihilists are disregarded.

The *Journal de St.-Pétersbourg* declares that the foreign policy of Russia is entirely devoted to peace, that her relations with all foreign Powers are excellent, and that there is no question now pending that is likely to disturb the quiet which all Governments are striving to maintain.

At the recent opening of the Austrian Delegation the President made an address, in which he pointed out that the necessity of peace was universally felt, and that the Government would take this into account, though asking the Delegation to furnish means for the protection of the monarchy under all circumstances. The members of the Delegation were received by the Emperor Francis Joseph on Thursday. In an address he said that Austria's efforts had ever been directed to peace; and that while the reforms that were to be instituted in the imperial army and the formation of the reserves would require additional expense, he hoped that the tranquillization of Bosnia and Herzegovina would lead to a reduction of the army of occupation in those provinces.

Prince Alexander, of Bulgaria, held a Cabinet council on Friday evening upon the question of the recall of the Prince's Russian aides-de-camp, Generals Soboleff and Kaulbars, to St. Petersburg. It was decided to dismiss the Russian Colonel Roediger, who is acting as Minister of War. The Council also decided to dismiss all Russian officers now serving in the Bulgarian army, and to recall all Bulgarians who are in the Russian service. Prince Alexander, in accordance with the action of the Council, on Saturday requested Colonel Roediger to resign the war portfolio. This request Colonel Roediger refused to comply with, whereupon Prince Alexander ordered him to leave Sofia immediately.

The Berlin *North German Gazette*, Prince Bismarck's organ, denies the existence of an aggressive alliance, and declares that the Powers have only united to secure the peace of Europe.

The German Bundesrath, acting under the Socialist Law, has decided to prolong until September 30, 1884, the minor state of siege of Berlin, Hamburg, Altona, and other districts.

The Spanish Cabinet has agreed upon a diplomatic note which will end the controversy arising from the unfavorable reception of King Alfonso in the streets of Paris.

The recent royal decree in Spain has produced a favorable impression. The provision that in future general officers of the army shall hold staff appointments for only three years forms the principal topic of discussion in political circles. It is reported that Señor Castelar and his Republican supporters, at a meeting held on Wednesday evening, resolved to maintain a friendly attitude toward the new Government if it fulfilled its promises, especially to restore universal suffrage.

The appointment of Señor Camacho, lately Spanish Minister of Finance, to the Governorship of the Bank of Spain, signifies the union of the two political groups in the new Ministry, and is intended to prepare the way for the formation of a great Liberal party.

It is rumored that King Luis of Portugal, being weary of the Liberal agitation in his kingdom, thinks of abdicating his throne.

A despatch from Tchesme asserts that unless immediate relief is forthcoming, hundreds of persons whose houses were wrecked by the recent earthquake will die from fever and exposure.

Another severe shock of earthquake occurred in Smyrna on Sunday. At Vurla 169 persons were injured.

One hundred and fifty Egyptian soldiers were recently surprised and massacred by the hill tribes in the Singat defile, between Suakin and Cassala, in Nubia.

Cholera has reappeared in Alexandria, and there is a panic among the people. The best authorities say that the epidemic will not last long.

The Canadian Government has agreed to guarantee a minimum dividend of 3 per cent. on the stock of the Canadian Pacific Railroad for ten years. The company has given the Government an equivalent for the guarantee.

Lord Lorne and Princess Louise sailed from Quebec for England on Saturday. The people of the city bade them an affectionate farewell.

An official telegram published in Lima, Peru, on Monday, from Mollendo, announced that Arequipa had surrendered without a battle. Montero has fled, and Iglesias has been proclaimed President.

VIRGINIA BONDS.

THE case of Antoni *v.* Greenhow (Federal Reporter, 91), decided by the Supreme Court of the United States last March, toward which the vexed holders of Virginia coupon bonds looked with such hope and the leaders of the repudiating party with such fear, can hardly be said to have justified the feelings of either party. It would seem from a careful consideration of this case, taken in connection with State of Louisiana *v.* Jumel, decided the same day, that it fell dead upon repudiators and bondholders alike, not so much from the inconclusiveness of the decision as from the inability of the general public, if not of the bar, to understand its scope.

The case decides that the tax-collectors of Virginia cannot be compelled by mandamus to receive in payment of taxes the coupons cut from the bonds issued by Virginia under the law of 1871. Mr. Justice Matthews, whose opinion bears most strongly against the power of the bondholders to assert their rights, says, concurring with all the other Judges: "I agree that the State of Virginia, by the act of 1871, entered into a valid contract with the holders of its bonds to receive their coupons in payment of taxes, and that any subsequent statute which denies this right is a breach of its contract and a violation of the Constitution of the United States. But," he continues, Associate Justices Bradley and Gray alone concurring, "for a breach of its contract by a State no remedy is provided by the Constitution of the United States against the State itself, and a suit to compel the officers of a State to do the acts which constitute a performance of its contract by the State, is a suit against the State itself."

What is the meaning of this apparent contradiction in Mr. Justice Matthews's decision that the contract is valid and yet is worthless? It means that the holders of Virginia coupon bonds cannot force the State into specific performance of its contract—cannot compel the State of Virginia to pay them nor its officers to give them receipts; that the State and its officers, so long as they remain quiescent, can rest secure in this quiescence, guaranteed them by the sovereign nature of the State, and may listen undisturbed to the denunciations of the bondholders, absolutely free from all form of suit. But the decision means no more. When the State changes its attitude of quiescence to one of aggression, and in its turn demands money, in payment of which the bondholders offer coupons bearing on their face "receivable at and after maturity for all taxes, debts, dues, and demands due the State," and the State points to the Riddleberger law and still demands money, the bondholders, under the first paragraph of this decision, can reply that these coupons are as good payment for taxes to-day as in 1871, and any subsequent statute to the contrary is void; that although the bondholders cannot compel the State to execute a valid contract, neither can the State enforce against them an invalid law, else the power of the State is absolutely without limit. Should the tax-collector, after tender of coupons, proceed to seize property, in spite of such tender, and sell it for taxes, the bondholders may sue him in trespass; and when he pleads the statute which directs him to disregard such tender, then, under Antoni *v.* Greenhow, such statute is void, and the Riddleberger law is no more effective in his defence than the authority of the Koran, the orders of Queen Victoria, or the suggestions of a daily newspaper. For further remedy, if the bondholders can prove that the sale of their property for taxes would work them injury irreparable in damages—as is easily susceptible of proof in cases such as the threatened sale of the rolling stock of a railway company—the tax-collector, acting under a void law, may be enjoined, just as any other unauthorized meddler may be enjoined; and if the amount of property involved be above the value of $500, the Circuit Court of the United States, under an impregnable decision of Judge Bond, in Circuit Court of the United States for the Eastern District of Virginia, September 4, 1883, has jurisdiction to enjoin him.

A legal training is not requisite to understand the distinction between compelling a State to execute its contract, and preventing a State from taking away those rights which have already been gained under a contract. In order to compel a State to execute its promise, its agents must be compelled to act as if under the authority of the State. Thus, for example, if the case of the State *v.* Jumel (2 Supreme Court Rep., 128) had been decided in favor of the creditors of Louisiana, the remedy, to be complete, as the Chief Justice points out, would have required the Court to assume all the executive authority of the State, so far as it related to the enforcement of this law, and to supervise the conduct of all persons charged with the levy, collection, and disbursement of the tax in question for the benefit of the State creditors. But the protection of individual rights already vested under a valid contract of the State involves neither suit against the State, nor startling practical results such as the possible assumption by the Supreme Court of the United States of the governmental machinery of a State; for the State is without power to authorize any individual to take away those rights. A law is passed directing a tax-collector to seize and sell after valid tender of payment; ipso facto, that law is void; it fades from the statute books instantaneously with the writing; its words are the unauthoritative virulence of inane demagogy, and he who acts under it acts at his peril. If suit against an agent acting under a law which infringes the Constitution of the United States be suit against the State, then the judgment in Osborn *v.* Bank of the United States (9 Wheat., 738), which ordered the treasurer of the State of Ohio to restore money held by him in virtue of a tax imposed by the State in violation of the Constitution of the United States, was an erroneous judgment, and the present Supreme Court will be obliged to overrule Chief-Justice Marshall, construe resistance into aggression, twist common sense into nonsense, subvert all protection of the individual against the illegal power of the State, and for no equitable end, but for the benefit of repudiation.

How far the majority of the present court are from straining after such construction and results is manifest in the recent case of United States *v.* Lee (1 Supreme Court Rep., 240), in which it was decided that the heirs of Robert E. Lee could eject the officers of the United States from the Arlington estate, although held only for national purposes, and although the officers expressly denied all claim by private title. True, four out of the nine judges, including the Chief Justice, held that, as the officers of the United States were in possession of the property only in their official capacity, suit against them was suit against the United States; but even under this dissentient opinion, if the United States had sold the Arlington property, held under a void title, to third parties, and the suit had been to eject the third parties, claiming under private right by purchase, the United States, in such case at least, would not be party to the suit. And who would buy property from a State or the United States when neither could give title? Thus, Virginia might seize mountains of goods and nobody except the owner would dare to repurchase them. A perusal of this learned dissenting opinion, moreover, which was delivered by Mr. Justice Gray, will clearly show that even the judges most broadly construing the immunity of a State from suit, hold that actions sounding in damages against the agents of the State, or injunctions to prevent causes of actions sounding in damages, are not suits against the State itself; but that a suit to be against the State itself must be such that the judgment therein requires the court to wrest property from the official possession of the agents of the State, or requires the court to compel the officers of the State to do official acts.

MR. MATTHEW ARNOLD'S VISIT.

MR. MATTHEW ARNOLD'S arrival has brought up the old discussion as to what kind of reception a foreign literary man or politician should receive who has at some time or other spoken disrespectfully of the American people, or failed to sympathize with the North during the late civil war. That Mr. Arnold has uttered unpleasant criticisms on the American people is quite true, but these criticisms followed inevitably from his setting Americans down as middle-class Englishmen, on whose faults he is never tired of dwelling. That Americans have a good many marks of middle-class Englishmen, there is no denying. They are chiefly what Englishmen call "Dissenters," as a term of reproach—that is, persons whose intellectual activity runs mainly in religious channels, and who belong to denominations maintained by voluntary contributions; who are greatly absorbed in money-making, and are disposed to take a contemptuous view of pursuits which are not "practical," that is, which do not result in material gain. Seeing these marks, it was not unnatural that he should infer the existence of the accompanying mental and moral defects which he thinks he has discovered among his own countrymen; or that, in other words, he should think of Ameri-

can Methodists, Baptists, Congregationalists, and Presbyterians—the bulk of the population, namely—as persons with a stunted sense of beauty, and very bad manners, and a narrowing religious belief. Nothing is commoner in England to-day among literary men and social philosophers than this plan of describing Americans by calling them middle-class Englishmen. It saves much trouble, and there exist a great many easily cited facts to support it.

Mr. Arnold's experience, however, was defective when he came to talk about America, as that of so many other European observers has been, in that he had never seen a middle class which had no class above it, or Dissenters who had no established church to dissent from. No one who has ever made a study of the English middle class has failed to remark that a great deal of whatever is defective in its tastes, or manners, or intellectual outlook, has been due to the position of inferiority in which the structure of English society, not to speak of English legislation, has kept it for more than 200 years. Probably nothing has a worse effect on the mind and manners of either men or women than the constant sense of the presence of social superiors. The damage this has inflicted on the English middle-class life is well known to all observers, and it has been aggravated by the fact that it has followed the English middle-class man to church, and made his very worship on Sunday a mark of his inferiority. What Mr. Arnold has not yet seen, but what he needs to see before he can safely generalize touching the effect of "Hebraism" and trade on mind and manners, and will here see, is a middle class which feels itself as good as any class; Methodists and Congregationalists who think their church a place to be as proud of as any cathedral; "Dissenting ministers" some of whom are a little disposed to think Anglican ministers their inferiors in culture; and traders who smile at the social pretensions of the idle rich, and are a little puzzled by talk of social distinctions based on occupations. All these he will find new phenomena, and phenomena which we are sure will lead him to revise, mentally at least, a good deal that he has written about his own countrymen as well as about Americans. There is nothing more interesting and often more startling than witnessing the effect of a new environment on a familiar object.

American audiences will find Mr. Arnold interesting also, because he is really the first genuine critic of note who has visited these shores, and there is nothing which the American public find it more difficult to comprehend than a critic. The art of criticism, as such, does not stand very high with us. Our conception of a critic is apt to be that of a man who, as Doctor Johnson said, "sees that the Whig dogs get the worst of it"—that is, who gives the enemy, whoever he may be, his due, and who, every time that he opens his mouth, strives to advance some "cause." The man who lets his mind play round phenomena, who sees them from all points of view, and notes what he sees with scientific indifference to consequences, or who, in other words, mainly cultivates open-mindedness, is a personage to whom Americans still find it very difficult to do justice, or give any definite place in the moral world. Mr. Arnold is not this kind of a person exactly—the type is rarely found in perfection out of France—for he has ideas for which he strives earnestly, and a cause (the cause of "culture") which he seeks in season and out of season to advance; but he is the nearest approach to it we have yet seen. It is perhaps more nearly true of him than of any other foreigner who has come here that he touches nothing which he does not adorn, and that whatever the degree of importance one may attach to his results, there is in the intellectual world to-day hardly any greater treat than watching his handling of any subject which really attracts him.

THE SITUATION IN FRANCE.

The French are apparently on the verge of another Ministerial crisis, the Budget Commission, or Finance Committee, of the Assembly, having unanimously condemned the budget of M. Tirard as showing or promising another large deficit, that is, about $12,000,000, while the cost of the Tonquin war is now assuming large and indefinite proportions. In truth, the original estimates, based on the supposition that it was to be a military promenade, have been known for some time to be ridiculously inadequate. The Chinese Government, which is much better informed about foreign politics than it used to be, has been very astutely protracting the negotiations, knowing well the effect prolonged uncertainty would have in depressing or alarming the French public and in embarrassing the Ministry. All hope of a peaceful settlement is rapidly disappearing, and every one in France is beginning to see that in the absence of a settlement with China the Tonquin affair becomes at once a burden on the army and treasury which the French public will probably not submit to.

Of course, in case of war with China the contest would not be carried on in Tonquin only, where the Chinese assistance to the Anamites would be very effective. It would probably include a second expedition against Pekin, and perhaps a blockade of the Treaty ports. But all this would cost money and men, and perhaps involve serious complications with England, for it would, temporarily at least, close the market for the Indian opium, which now yields a sixth of the Indian revenues, or about $52,000,000, and the Indian budget is too near simple equilibrium to bear any such disturbance as even a brief suspension of the opium trade would cause. There has been a curious dispute between the French and some foreign journalists as to whether the French could blockade one port without blockading all—that is to say, confine themselves, for instance, to shutting up Canton, which is easiest to get at, and let the others alone; but the weight of authority seems to favor the view that they can single out any port they please. At all events, they are satisfied that they have complete liberty of choice in the matter. They will undoubtedly get the better of the Chinese, if worst comes to worst, in the long run, but probably not without producing an amount of confusion at home which may endanger the very existence of the Republic. There has been no Government since the downfall of the old monarchy which could stand an unsuccessful war. It would appear now as if, with the present constitution of the army and with the present great financial burdens, no Government in France could stand a long war, and especially a long foreign war. France is the only highly-civilized country to-day which attempts to send conscripted troops to fight distant battles in unhealthy climates, and it is pretty plain that it is an immense mistake — that the people will not submit to it.

At the bottom of all this confusion and calamity is the notion that the prestige which France has lost in Europe can be recovered by setting up colonies on distant shores. There is literally nothing in French experience to support this notion, except the settlement of Canada. Canada was settled, however, under an order of ideas which has lost all hold on the French mind, and before the peasantry had got its present grasp of the soil, and before the increase of comfort and the establishment of equality had made the French the most stay-at-home people in the world. The care they take to restrict the size of their families—which makes economists and military men so angry—is in reality a sign that they do not wish to go abroad and make colonies. In fact, the material for colonization is not to be found in France, and the result is that her colonies even in Algeria are purely official affairs, which are only kept alive by Government aid and regulation. They bear little more resemblance to German, American, and English settlements on new soil than operatic villages. Seeking with fire and sword new territory to plant them in, while the population is declining in such a way as to draw large bodies of immigrants from Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland, and even Germany, seems one of those immense blunders which give much support to the belief which the Germans are preaching with no little energy and plausibility, that France has irretrievably lost her place in the front rank, and is hereafter to share in the rapid political decadence which has overtaken all branches of the Celtic race.

THE REVIVAL OF GERMAN INDUSTRY.

It may be remembered that the account given of the German products, if we are not mistaken, by the German Commissioners in their report on the Philadelphia Exposition of 1876, was anything but cheerful, especially as regarded those of an artistic character. The conclusion which a great many people reached at the time was, that this was one of the results of the war with France, and that as long as Germany was suffering from the military fever which the war generated we need not look for any industrial revival. Bismarck's protectionist policy has to a certain extent had the effect of confirming and extending this belief.

Recently, however, an inquiry has been set on foot by the Saxon Government with the

view of ascertaining whether the artistic industries, properly so called—that is, those in which design plays a prominent part—are in need of further protection in order to encourage and revive them. For this purpose it consulted the Chambers of Commerce all over the country. That of Leipzig took a good deal of evidence on the subject, and made a very elaborate report. Some of the evidence was very interesting and instructive. One dealer said that his importations of objects of art were not one-twentieth of what they were ten years ago; that the German manufacturers now supplied nearly everything that was called for, and, more than this, that they worked almost exclusively on German designs. Moreover, they were constantly receiving large orders, especially for artistic metal work, from both France and England, and really needed no protection at all. The only formidable competition they encounter is in the finer bronzes, in which the French still maintain their old superiority, but these are very dear and the German market for them is limited. In fact, the manufacturers in this field say that they could not live on the home market: their best customers are abroad. They maintain, too, that they now compete successfully with the French in that great French specialty, mantel clocks. Of these they exported last year over 3,500 tons, some of them to France itself, and imported only thirty tons. The manufacturers of fine pottery, of glass and leather goods in like manner refuse all protection. They say they are not afraid either of France, England, or Austria, and assert that they have beaten the Bohemian glass-workers. The woollen, silk, carpet manufacturers, and those of upholstery stuffs talk in the same way, and one of them calls attention expressly to the fact that the revival in their business began long before the protectionist tariff of 1879. One manufacturer, only, asks for increased duties, on the ground that he has started a mechanical lace industry, and needs encouragement till his workmen are better trained; but the Chamber of Commerce does not think he has made out his case.

Side by side with all this progress in extending their markets, the Germans are giving a good deal of attention to the condition of the small trades which are carried on in shops and dwelling houses, or, in other words, to the work of the solitary artisan—the shoemaker, the tailor, the locksmith, and the like—working in villages or small towns. At a Conference recently held in Dresden it was proposed to establish some kind of organization for supplying this class with information regarding improvements in tools or machinery, or processes in their several trades, and inventions or scientific discoveries likely to benefit or interest them, and more particularly any new modes of supplying motive power on a small scale for machinery, and for the diffusion among them of good artistic designs. The Conference suggested for this purpose the establishment of committees of the various trades, charged with the duty of supplying information and the holding of expositions, permanent or periodical, of the newest tools, machines, and so on; or, in other words, of putting within reach of the small manufacturers that knowledge of what is going on in their own business in other parts of the world, which is now only possessed by the great ones.

All this is the more creditable—or perhaps we should say the more necessary—because of the very serious obstacle to industrial progress created by the German military system. This does not consist simply in the drafts made by the army on the physical force of the country, and on its spare funds, but in the drafts it makes, as we said a few weeks ago, on its mental force. All the political and social arrangements of the German nation tend almost irresistibly to throw the ablest and most ambitious men into the army, and to cause the application of a prodigious amount of the national talent, even in times of profound peace, to simple preparation for war, or, in other words, to the study of the best modes of killing people and destroying property. Everything that can be done is done to exalt the soldier, and make the youth of the country think his trade the most honorable of all. He is not highly paid, it is true, but he does not as yet need to be, because money has not as yet become a power in German society; in fact, it is still "the thing" in Germany for an aristocrat to be poor. That German industry flourishes at all under these circumstances, and that the country is able year after year to send a great deal of excellent skilled labor to nearly all parts of the world, are very remarkable illustrations of the national power. In France and in this country there is hardly any branch of industry in which German emigrants do not compete successfully with the natives on their own soil. We, who live in an industrial and commercial atmosphere, in which all the rewards that society has to offer are held out to the successful mechanic, and manufacturer, and trader, can hardly appreciate the difficulties over which German industrial energy triumphs.

PERSISTENCE OF SPANISH TYPES IN MEXICO.

Motley, in the thirty-fifth chapter of his 'United Netherlands,' paints in a few striking pages the portrait of the Spaniard of the sixteenth century. Egregious self-esteem, contempt of labor, superstition, intellect acute but narrow, indomitable force of will, imbecility in government—trait after trait is thrown upon the historian's canvas. It is singular that so few of the modern writers on Mexico have remarked the surprising distinctness with which the picture of Spain in the sixteenth century is reproduced in her lost Mexican provinces. Until within twenty years Mexico was more Spanish, in the sixteenth-century sense, than Spain herself. The impress made by pioneers of such iron mould as Cortes, Alvarado, Las Casas, Revillagigedo, was deep. A plastic people were stamped by it. Isolation kept away opposing influences. The type was petrified. Spain herself did not so easily escape, for she was too near the crater of 1789 in France, and, afterward, had to take the rude buffeting of the Napoleonic wars. While she was being awaked by the buzz of the modern world of science and industry and commerce, Mexico was left to placid slumber. In the latter country it was still possible for the ideas of a Philip, a Parma, a Lerma, to live. It is the more to be regretted that some serious attempt has not been made to trace the persistence of Spanish types in Mexico, because the opportunities for observation are rapidly disappearing. Mexico has undergone greater changes in the past twenty years than she did in the three hundred before. At present she is the subject of many contending influences—German, French, above all American—each stronger than the Spanish. What the resultant will be is not clear, but it is certain that a new type of some kind will replace the old.

Mexican architecture is Spanish sixteenth-century architecture over again. No town is complete without its plaza; if it can have its *alameda* too, so much the better, but better not to be than to have no plaza. Much the same is true of the matter of public *portales*. Little mud-built hamlets on the flank of a mountain will have their one or two arches, under which the natives lounge with a self-satisfaction fully as ineffable as that of the saunterer in the Plaza Mayor of Madrid. The low houses, with interior courts giving glimpses of flowers and fountains, make one expect to see Moorish faces at the balcony window, not the Indian features which really do appear. But particularly in church architecture are we carried back to the beginning of the Renaissance in Spain. Spanish architecture, then a conglomerate of Gothic, French, and Moorish, was appropriating Italian features. Over all it spread a most elaborate and detailed ornamentation, occasionally rich in its effects, more often tawdry. It put its vast treasures from the mines of Peru and Mexico into this extravagance of ornament, just as the Spanish peasant turns all his resources into brilliantly-colored serapes and silver spurs. All this is reproduced to the life in Mexico. There are the same cruciform churches, with dome-shaped lanterns at the intersection of nave and transept, and Moorish towers flanking the entrance, all covered with a profusion of senseless and bewildering ornament. There is the old Moorish skill in working in plaster, the old Spanish passion for rococo. You might stand before the *sagrario* of the Cathedral of Mexico and imagine that you were in Zaragoza.

Mexican education is still trammelled by Spanish methods. The memory is wonderfully stimulated and trained, the reasoning powers are left dormant. Children are made parrots. Writing is the reproduction of admired models. Everything goes by authority. The universal manual of grammar, for the youngest children, is a compend of the Academy's grammar, which endeavors to pour Spanish into the grammatical moulds of Latin. Childish tongues glibly talk of dative and ablative, of which their language is as innocent as is English. Yet public education is regarded as of the utmost moment in shaping ideas of liberty and patriotism, and is jealously watched. The Professor of Logic in the National Preparatoria, in Mexico city, recently wished to introduce Mill and Spencer as text-books. The entire press lifted up a cry of horror. The Church organ, *La Voz de Méjico*, was fairly outdone by the indifferentist *Monitor Republicano*. The foundations of morals were to be undermined. All the high sentiments of patriotism, which then inspired the generous breasts of Mexican youth, were to be destroyed by this dreaded experience-philosophy. The professor was obliged to yield to the clamor, at the risk of losing his chair.

But the lesson taught her by Spain which is, perhaps, the hardest of all for Mexico to unlearn, is the lesson in the art of government, in Spanish political economy. Without undertaking to point out the various fictions which the Mexicans cherish in regard to their public affairs—the fiction of national grandeur, of republican institutions, of reverence for the Constitution—it is enough to remark that the general policy of the Government has seemed to aim at throttling domestic industries and commerce and at pro-

hibiting foreign trade, with a fatuous complacency truly Spanish. From the lowest to the highest form of governmental organization, the idea seems to prevail that the Government is intended to act the part of an Arab sheikh, and extort every penny possible from any who are so bold as to think to profit by trade. The municipality comes first, laying especial taxes, in the shape of licenses, upon every sort of store and shop and factory, and allowing no single pound of meat or bushel of potatoes or quart of milk to enter its gates from the surrounding farms without paying for the privilege. Next gleans the State Government, claiming customs duties on all inter-State commerce, even on that which simply passes through her territory with destination to some point beyond. Finally the general Government appears upon the scene. It starts off with an internal-revenue system which would command the admiration of a Turkish governor. There is scarcely an act one can perform without the need of a revenue stamp. All receipts, bills, contracts, have to bear the stamp to be legal. If you wish to keep accounts, you must take all your books to the Government inspector, and get his legalizing stamp upon each page, for which you have to pay according to their size and number. At one time the law compelled all merchants to affix a stamp to every dollar's worth of goods sold; but this law was repealed, partly because it was odious, more because it was difficult to enforce. In matters of foreign trade the country is equally benighted. Money is regarded as the sole form of wealth. There was an export duty on silver coin until two years ago, when the dizzy rates of foreign exchange drove Congress to allow the free export of money. And still the people greet the bullion carts on the way to the dock with groans and imprecations, as they see the country being impoverished.

The outrageous tariff has not even the excuse of attempting to protect home industry. There is practically none to protect. The worst of it is that importers cannot depend upon a collection of duties in accordance with the tariff. Exorbitant fines, or bribes, have always to be counted on. A person going to Mexico to live, and wishing to take a few household goods, was told of the intricate ways of interpreting the tariff. He went to the office of the Mexican Consul in New York and had his invoices made out in accordance with the strict letter of the law, as he was assured. For this service he paid $4. In Vera Cruz he was fined $34 for imperfect invoices. It is useless to protest. An appeal to the courts is a costly affair, and promises little satisfaction. If importers should combine in getting a decision on a test case, the result would be vain, as there is a special law forbidding the establishment of precedents in the interpretation of tariff laws.

One sees, in the light of such facts, what a great step it was for the Mexican Government to take, to agree to the proposed treaty of reciprocity with the United States. No doubt those are right who attribute this to the all-powerful influence of ex-President Diaz. It is fortunate for Mexico that he, practical dictator that he is, is a man of such enlightened and liberal views. He secured the charters and subsidies for the American railroads, and did it in the face of the intensest opposition. The proposed treaty was furiously attacked. The press was almost a unit against it. Foreign influence was strenuous in opposition to it. But a voice from Oajaca was heard, and the Congress which it controls agreed to the treaty. If our Senate does not concur in it, a similar opportunity may not present itself for a generation.

HENRY IRVING IN "THE BELLS."

THE audience which assembled in the Star Theatre on Monday evening was perhaps the most numerous and distinguished ever seen within its walls, and the occasion will be long remembered even by those to whom theatrical scenes are most familiar. There is not an actor to-day who has been the subject of more critical discussion than Henry Irving; not one about whose abilities so many contradictory opinions have been expressed; not one who has been more extravagantly praised or more vigorously denounced. By his admirers he has been upheld for public adoration as a genius of the rarest brilliancy; by his detractors he has been derided as a mischievous charlatan; and amid the clatter raised by friends and foes nothing seemed certain except the fact that he had attracted more attention than any other man upon the English stage. This in itself was sufficient to stimulate curiosity concerning him to a high pitch, to say nothing of the general knowledge that his managerial career had been a succession of triumphs, and it was a foregone conclusion that his first professional appearance in New York would be one of the most notable dramatic events of this generation. This ordeal—one of the severest which any player can be called upon to face—is over, and nothing remains but to consider the result as carefully as is possible under the circumstances.

It is easy enough now to understand much that seemed inexplicable in the irreconcilable verdicts recorded by competent critics respecting Mr. Irving's achievements. His performance in "The Bells," the play selected for Monday's representation, establishes certain facts beyond dispute, but furnishes a comparatively slender foundation upon which to construct a comprehensive estimate of his powers. Until an actor has been seen in several characters no one can judge absolutely his capacity for impersonation, because it is impossible to determine whether certain tricks of manner or gesture are personal characteristics, stage mannerisms, or deliberate device; but it is safe to say of Mr. Irving that he is an actor with tremendous faults and most potent charm. His *Mathias* is a work as full of contradictions as any of the criticisms which it has evoked. It is stilted to the verge of the ridiculous, yet at times vividly natural; it is painfully labored and mechanical, yet illumined by many flashes of genuine emotion; it is marred by all sorts of affectations, and yet impresses the spectator with the sense of a sustained identity. Some of the lines are delivered so badly as to be almost unintelligible, others are read with a simplicity and force wholly admirable. All this shows how easy it is for the hostile critic to find fault and the friendly one to wax eloquent in praise; and it may be added that the individuality of Mr. Irving is so strong and his style so pronounced, that it is difficult to avoid strong prejudice either for or against him.

Whatever the final verdict may be, there can be no doubt of the effect which he created among the audience, which was first amused, then puzzled, then interested, and finally enthusiastic. Its friendly disposition was declared in the prolonged outburst of applause upon the actor's first entrance; its interest, in the dead silence which prevailed through the third act; and its enthusiasm, in the unmistakable heartiness of the plaudits at the fall of the curtain. It is a curious fact that there was scarcely any applause during the actual performance. When the echoes of the first boisterous welcome had died away, the house settled into an attitude of anxious expectation. This sensation was followed by one of blank amazement. The entrance of *Mathias* was exceedingly effective. The quick rush past the window, the abrupt opening and closing of the door, and the spirited action of the actor as he brushed the snow-flakes from his hat and heavy cloak and dashed the long gray hair upward from his brow were very striking and natural, but the illusion was not maintained. In the next few minutes it was easy to believe the worst that had been said of Irving's artificiality and mannerisms. His dislocated utterance, his palsied gait, the ungraceful jerking of his arms and shoulders, the incessant rise and fall of his eyebrows with every syllable that fell from his lips, the studied attitudes, the spasmodic gestures, might readily have been accepted as a burlesque of the ponderous methods of old English tragedy, and would have been laughed at had it not been for some subtle and indefinable suggestion of intelligent purpose and strong will. The methods were abominable, but the personal force of the actor asserted itself in spite of them. There was not a look or a gesture which was not the result of forethought or had not its special significance, but the intellectual perception which prompted it was made worthless by the wilful exaggeration in the execution of the design. That the exaggeration was wilful, or, at least, not chronic, was proved by the extraordinary truthfulness of Mr. Irving's acting when his daughter caressed him with the ejaculation, "How good you are!" The facial expression at this point was the first taste which the actor gave of his best quality. It would be difficult to imagine a more vital or piteous portrayal of anguish and remorse, and the effect was wrought in the most simple and legitimate manner. After this he relapsed into his purely artificial manner, and did nothing especially worthy of note until the apparition of the murdered Jew in his sleigh, when he stirred the house into sudden enthusiasm by a wonderfully executed fall and a smothered shriek of horror, which rang with the true note of despair. This effort was rewarded, and justly, by a double recall.

In the second act Mr. Irving's acting, although constantly marred by faults of manner previously alluded to, was brilliantly effective. His haggard face, his physical exhaustion, his petulance with his wife and the physician, his restless hands and eyes, furnished a striking picture of feverish dread nearly allied to madness. There were some magnificent touches, too, in his soliloquy over the gold which he counted for the dowry. The miserly ringing of the suspected piece, the running of his fingers through the heaps of coin, his self-congratulation over the betrothal with *Christian*, his horror at the discovery of one of the original coins stolen from his victim, were strokes full of imagination and power, and largely atoned for all his striding, mouthing, and posturing. Extremely fine, too, was the cunning of his scene with *Christian*, the forced and hollow laugh with which he sought to divert suspicion from himself, and the whole process by which he indicated racking suspense beneath an assumption of outward calm. His anxiety during the signing of the betrothal contract was somewhat overwrought—such conduct would infallibly have betrayed him—but the outbreak of almost maniacal glee with which he strove to drown the clanging of the fatal sleigh-bells was wonderfully done, and brought the act to a triumphant conclusion. This was completely spontaneous, and could be imagined only by an actor possessed of the finest dramatic instinct.

Another fine stroke is the solitary dance in the bedroom scene, where a very strong effect is secured by the contrast between simulated glee and the bitterest anguish; but the actor's chief success is won in the trial scene of the dream. Desperation, remorse, bravado, and cunning are

here portrayed with startling truthfulness, and with a sustained vigor which is very remarkable. The struggle against the influence of the mesmerist is splendidly acted, and the confession of the murder is recited with an elocutionary simplicity and skill which prove conclusively that the blurred delivery in some of the previous scenes is a mere trick. The pantomime of the murder is exaggerated but very effective, and the final death scene, with its horrible suggestion of strangulation on the gallows, is as realistic as the most morbid imagination could desire. The applause which followed this achievement was so great that Mr. Irving, after being called twice before the curtain, was compelled to deliver a brief speech, in which he returned thanks very gracefully for the cordiality of his reception, and begged for a similar welcome for Miss Terry.

Our review is necessarily imperfect. Comparison in Irving's case is impossible, not because he is the greatest or worst actor who ever lived, but because he has chosen to adopt a style which is a compound of old and new, and bristles with anomalies and anachronisms. He himself has in his time played every type of character, from *Jeremy Diddler* to *Hamlet*, and this varied experience is shown in his work. A man of indisputable originality, he elects at times to be a copyist, and copies badly; but if he copies from conviction, he is at least independent enough to act according to instinct when he chooses, and his instinct is generally right. The probability is that if he would cut loose from tradition altogether in fact, as it is said that he professes to do in theory, there would be fewer differences of opinion about him. It is certain that his worst faults in *Mathias*, which is a melodramatic and not a tragic character, are due to a foolish adhesion to the rules of a dead school of which Samuel Phelps, said to be his model, was the latest expositor of note. But Phelps never carried the traditional strut and stride of the Kemble and Siddons school to such extremes, and pupils ought to be no less moderate than their masters in these matters. Mr. Irving has many advantages. He has a face of great mobility and expressiveness; he has the length of limb which lends force to gesture; he has a voice of good natural quality, if of little force; he has great self-reliance, long and varied experience, keen intelligence, and a large amount of that mysterious influence commonly called magnetism. All this is apparent from his present performance; whether or not he has genius, it is too early to say. That question can be decided when he has given some specimens of his versatility. The one general reflection which can be made safely after seeing his *Mathias* is that he is far stronger in repose than in action. His powers of facial expression are remarkable—equal probably, if not superior, to those of any actor upon the English-speaking stage; and his features lend themselves apparently most readily to the interpretation of the more violent emotions—a valuable gift to a tragedian. His professional training, as has been said, is wide and thorough, and he is in every respect well equipped in the mechanical resources of his art. The intelligence evident in his work makes him a most interesting actor. Whether he is great will be known when he has appeared in other parts.

FERRY *VERSUS* THIBAUDIN.

PARIS, October 12, 1883.

OUR Cabinets are very short-lived, and it is doubtful if, in the long run, the system of ministerial responsibility can be found applicable under a republican form of government. The Ferry Cabinet came into power under circumstances which are not yet forgotten. Prince Napoleon threw into the dead calm of Paris a manifesto—"La France languit," etc.—which produced the most violent agitation in the Chambers, and in the first moment of fear and of consternation it was proposed to exile the members of the families which had once reigned in France. This law, occasioned by a Bonaparte and directed against the Orléans, was passed by the Chamber of Deputies. Its injustice was obvious, as the Orléans princes, so far from making any opposition to the Republic since it had been established, had accepted office under it. Three of the princes were serving in various capacities in the ranks of the army. None of them had given any encouragement to the Opposition press; they led quiet lives, like private citizens, and seemed to be quite satisfied with a position which, at any rate, was the end of their long exile. The Senate did not follow the Deputies in their ill-timed attack on the "pretenders"; the bill of banishment was thrown out. At the same time, as often happens in France, it was found that some measure of compromise must be sought, and some satisfaction given to the Deputies. If the princes could not be sent into exile, could they not be put out of the army? There is in every army a great power vested in the Commander-in-Chief; could not that power be used against the Duc d'Aumale, the Duc de Chartres, and the Duc d'Alençon? The question was put to many generals in the army, and they all refused to execute the princes by decrees. The only cases in which the Minister of War can dismiss an officer are those in which the honor of the profession has been touched, and, even then, six months after the ministerial decree has dismissed him, the officer has a right to call for a court martial. Professionally, no reproach could be brought against the three princes; they had been, in fact, models for the army—one in the capacity of Commander of the Seventh Corps at Besançon, the Duc de Chartres as Colonel of a regiment of cavalry, the Duc d'Alençon as Captain of Artillery.

When Jules Ferry composed his Cabinet, he had the greatest difficulty in finding a general for the delicate task of dismissing from the army three officers for the mere reason that they belonged to a royal family. Ferry had already broken up the Congregations by decrees, without having a new law on his side, and simply by appealing to the old monarchical laws. He was obliged by the will of the Chamber to force the princes out of the army, and in this case he could not even appeal to old laws: he could only use the dictatorial power of the Minister of War. A man was found willing to do the work, General Thibaudin. He had been somewhat under a cloud since the war of 1870: it is sufficient to say that General Thibaudin, having fled from Germany, reëntered the army in France, and thought himself obliged to change his name to Comagny. In the general report on the war published by the German Staff, he appears always as Comagny (Thibaudin). The German Government, however, made no observations on the nomination of General Thibaudin as Minister of War in the Ferry Cabinet. The work of expulsion was done immediately—as soon as he took office, General Thibaudin issued the decrees which he had promised to sign. It was thought at the time that, this being done, he would immediately leave the Cabinet. It was not so. General Thibaudin had now a strong claim on the Chamber of Deputies, and he had also endeared himself to President Grévy, and even more to his son in law, Daniel Wilson, who has become at the Élysée a sort of "Maire du Palais," and is said to have become the most ardent adversary of the Orléans, after having entered political life, during the Empire, under the auspices of the Orleanists.

Jules Ferry seems to be condemned by an evil fate to arbitrary measures. After having broken up the religious congregations and schools, not only without any special law, but against the wishes of the Senate (the Senate threw out, by a majority of seven, the bill presented against the teaching-congregations); after having employed General Thibaudin against the Orléans princes, he proposed a measure against the magistracy. This time he carried it not only in the Chamber of Deputies, but in the Senate. The courts were reorganized, and the number of the magistrates was slightly modified; but the great feature of the law was the establishment of a sort of six months' interregnum, during which the irremovability of the magistrates would be suspended. Six hundred judges will, during these six months, be removed from the bench of the high and of the lower courts; six hundred men will be sacrificed for no other than political reasons. Such hecatombs could only be possible in a country where justice is administered by so many magistrates; but whatever be the defects of our judicial administration, everybody must acknowledge that hitherto, and under so many governments, justice has always been administered in France with the greatest impartiality: our humblest magistrates are above suspicion. The purity of the bench is not owing to high salaries (the salaries are ridiculously small), but to a certain social status, to tradition, and to the principle of irremovability.

At the end of the session the Premier thought himself very strong; he had not had an adverse vote in either of the Chambers. His only difficulties seemed to be outside of France—in Tonquin and in China; and these difficulties he affected to disdain—when the journey of the King of Spain to Paris suddenly revealed the disordered state of his administration. The incidents of this journey might have been anticipated by a vigilant police. Paris has become, since the restoration of King Alfonso, the headquarters of the Spanish Republicans. Their chief, Zorilla, has only very recently left the French capital. His hand has been clearly traced in the pronunciamientos made a few weeks ago at Badajoz and some other places. Zorilla took advantage of the state of the Spanish army. A number of officers who owed their rank to a succession of pronunciamientos had been dismissed from the army, and had formed secret societies, which were open to many non-commissioned officers. The pronunciamiento of Badajoz was in reality the work of the non-commissioned officers. Without entering more into this subject, it is enough to say that the revolutionary party in Spain is not idle, and that its centre of action is in Paris. A few Spanish refugees could not, however, have made a demonstration in the French capital if they had not been able to work on the feelings of the French masses. An occasion was found in the nomination of King Alfonso as colonel of a regiment of Uhlans garrisoned at Strassburg. The French Radicals went immediately to work. Their leaders knew perfectly that this nomination had in itself no political significance, and that it was not meant as an insult to the French people; but they had not for a long time had any opportunity of measuring their strength, and they covered their innate love of disorder with the veil of patriotism.

While he was staying at Brussels, King Alfonso became aware that a demonstration was preparing against him in Paris. I myself, the day before his arrival, walked along the boulevards, and every few steps I was stopped by a man or a boy shouting: "L'entrée à Paris du Roi Uhlan! dix centimes." The *Intransigeant*,

the paper edited by Rochefort, was full of invectives against the young King, whom it called a "polisson." The King had announced his visit, and M. Grévy had come back from Mont-sous-Vaudrey in order to receive him. On his arrival at Paris, when the King entered his carriage he was insulted by hisses, which followed him all along the Rue Lafayette. It was noticed that the police took no pains to clear the streets completely when the King was to make his entrance; but this was not all. M. Grévy did not face the men whom he afterward called the "misérables"; he received the King at the station, and then went home independently, leaving his guest face to face with the "misérables." All the ministers had gone to the Northern Station with the exception of the Minister of War. General Thibaudin sent word that he had an attack of gout. Nobody believed in this unexpected illness, and the Radical papers represented General Thibaudin as the only patriot in the Cabinet. Not only was the Minister of War absent, but, under his inspiration probably, the commander of the military forces in Paris sent a very insufficient escort to line the Northern Station, and to accompany the King to the Spanish Embassy.

The disgraceful scenes which took place on the arrival of the King of Spain, and afterward on his visit to the Élysée, have an importance which can hardly be overrated. All the sovereigns of Europe will feel that Paris is not safe ground for them, and that the Government of M. Grévy either cannot or will not protect them against insults of the mob. Jules Ferry has perceived the danger of an interdict being put by all the Powers of Europe on the French capital, and, though General Thibaudin is a *persona grata* at the Élysée—though he is politically the ally of M. Daniel Wilson—the Premier has insisted upon his leaving the Cabinet. The battle is now fairly begun: the Chamber, when it meets, will have to choose between Ferry and Thibaudin, which means almost between Ferry and the Élysée. It is obvious that things have come to such a pass that, notwithstanding all he has done before, Ferry represents now the most conservative—or, if you like, the least revolutionary—policy; he has placed himself on the side of the law of nations, the respect due to the representatives of other nations, the common decencies of international life. On the other side we see nothing except the feverish and blind folly of the men who screamed "Berlin!" in 1870, and never fought the enemy but made the Commune; the false patriotism of words; the destructive wit of a Rochefort, who, the day after the entrance of King Alfonso, wrote an article entitled "Es-tu content, mon Colonel?" The Chamber has shown such petty passions, such an ignorance of the state of Europe, it is inspired by such small motives, that I confess the impossibility of prophesying its verdict in the case "Ferry *versus* Thibaudin."

Correspondence.

WHAT CONGRESS SHOULD DO NEXT FOR THE NAVY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is stated that the Democratic candidate for Governor of Ohio, in a speech arraigning the party in power, among other things stated that by maladministration the navy had been reduced to a state of inefficiency and weakness unworthy of the nation. If the party in opposition should take this as one of the issues of a campaign, it is difficult to say what the answer could be, for the administration of the Navy Department from the time of the closing of the war until the beginning of the Administration of Garfield has resulted in bringing the navy into such a state that there is no first, second, or third-rate Power, not even any semi-civilized maritime Power, but has a navy of more efficiency than that of the United States.

With a yearly expenditure of money sufficient to give us a respectable number of armored and unarmored vessels of modern types, we find that instead the appropriations have been frittered away, under the bureau system, on naval stations, in keeping up elaborately expensive establishments, in making repairs to and rebuilding obsolete vessels at highest prices for labor and material, and in many ways squandering money and doing little that was real or effective to prevent the decline and decay of the naval resources of the country aloft. Truly, it is not one of the things that the party in power can point to with justifiable pride.

The policy of the United States has been almost invariably peaceful, and seldom aggressive, yet no one can accuse us of being a cowardly people. Too much blood and treasure has been shed in the past to allow even our enemies so to speak of us. A nation of fifty millions of people occupies too large a space in the world, and contains too many elements, to pursue always a policy of isolation. There are many complications with foreign nations that the future can bring, and we may be called upon at times to resist and refuse aggressive demands which would lead to war. The well-known defenceless state of our coasts would cause offensive action which, under other circumstances, would not be thought of, and in the event of war would lead quickly to an attack upon our rich maritime cities. These would present themselves as tempting prizes to even moderately powerful naval nations, and before we could realize that war was upon us we might find an enemy's fleet levying tribute from our largest ports. One cannot say what complications might arise with England from the Irish-American question alone; and the Panama Canal, when completed, will bring a host of questions with France or England, or both. Germany is not over-friendly, and the possibility of delicate relations with Spain from her West India possessions should be too well known to call for more than a passing mention.

Hence, waiving for the present the possibility of aggressive action on our part, under any circumstances, we must face the question and necessity of having a defensive policy, as an instinct of national self-preservation, or at least to prevent great national disgrace and disaster. To defend our coasts and harbors, we must have defensive naval resources. Few nations have so much seacoast to defend, and still fewer have the financial power in a greater degree to provide those naval resources. In case of a war, it would be only a question of a few *weeks* before most of the European maritime nations could have at least one powerful squadron of heavily armed and armored vessels before one of our principal ports. These nations have the vessels *now*, and would not have to wait years or months to construct or equip them. Besides, England, with her naval ports of Halifax, Bermudas, and Port Royal (Jamaica), would have the rendezvous for transports as well as men-of-war, and, instead of a long inland campaign from the Canadian frontier, she could very shortly supplement a naval attack by landing troops on our unprotected coasts. The defence of Washington, for instance, from a foreign force would have to be a naval one, commencing at the Capes of the Chesapeake; and the defence of New York must commence before the enemy's fleet anchor off Sandy Hook or Throg's Neck. The sentiment of the day seems to be to rely on an improvised navy and improvised defences. If we were fighting the air, or a nation without a modern navy, this might be thought of; but sensible men must see that this idea now is as antiquated as the spread-eagleism of thirty years ago. Naval vessels of the present day, the ordnance of the last ten years, or even the active torpedoes required for real defence, cannot be improvised, cannot be built, in time to meet the emergency. Even the few unarmored vessels ordered by the last Congress to be built will not be finished in a year's time, and already it is stated that the armament of these vessels will not be finished until some time after the vessels are finished—so feeble are our resources.

Many have consoled themselves with the idea that torpedoes duly planted at the entrance of our harbors would protect them; but they do not seem to realize that these torpedoes can be destroyed by counter-mines, and that a channel can be made through them under the guns of armored vessels. We have no fortifications to support these lines of torpedoes, and nothing existing that will prevent the approach of a squadron within shelling distance of New York and other smaller cities. We have no modern fortifications, shielded by chilled armor and heavy turrets, and we have no guns to arm them with; and there seems to be no definite intention on the part of Congress to build them. These alone would take years to build, and then would form a secondary system of defence, the primary and exterior lines being purely naval. This exterior line of defence must consist of vessels (armored and unarmored), of rams, and of movable torpedoes and torpedo-boats. We have a few armored vessels that could be used for harbor defence, though they are somewhat obsolete and armed and armored in an inferior manner. Still, they could form a basis to start with.

As, however, the question of armored vessels is closely bound up with the question of aggressive naval and foreign policy, I will waive that for the present, and speak only of the gunboats or gun-vessels, the rams, and the torpedoes. These are necessary adjuncts for a defensive naval policy. The gunboats are extremely useful vessels in time of peace, and also serve as aids for defence in breaking up boat parties, repelling parties at work countermining torpedo lines, and attacking and driving back reconnoitring gunboats and gun-vessels of the enemy's squadron. As cruising outposts in the vicinity of our principal ports, they would be most useful to convey the information of the approach of an enemy, and in numberless ways they would be of the greatest service. The Naval Advisory Board convened by Secretary Hunt recommended the construction of gunboats of wood. Changing the material of construction to steel, and following the type lately built for the Chinese, a gun-vessel could be built of great service for peace or war. These vessels, built by Sir William Armstrong after designs by Rendel, have a displacement of 1,300 tons, a speed of sixteen knots, and carry sufficient coal for steaming 4,000 miles. They are also armed with two ten-inch guns capable of penetrating eighteen inches of armor. Our tariff principles, in this case more illiberal than the Chinese, will not allow us to have Armstrong build us similar vessels; but we could certainly with wisdom copy the designs.

For offensive-defensive purposes the marine ram holds a high place in the estimation of many naval authorities, but there has been little experience either in building them or manœuvring with them. Any one who knows of the naval operations of the civil war will not fail to remember how powerful a disease "the ram

fever" was among the blockading vessels, and how nearly the blockade was raised at Charleston and the passes of the Mississippi by improvised and hastily-built vessels. Against ironclads a carefully-built and strengthened steel ram would be needed. A number of rams of the Ammen pattern was recommended by the original Advisory Board, and to a certain extent this recommendation was seconded by the present Advisory Board. One at least of these should be built at once, if only for experimental purposes; to delay building the first one of this novel class of vessels until war was upon us, would be, to say the least, highly imprudent.

Torpedo vessels are of several classes. The largest type, of which the *Alarm* is the only representative afloat in the service, is expected to be sea-going and self-sustaining. The principal qualifications necessary are speed, great facility in manœuvring, and also ease and celerity in discharging and generally manipulating the torpedoes which are carried. The *Alarm* does these to a moderate extent only, and Ericsson's *Destroyer* has not been perfected. Here is ample opportunity for American inventive ingenuity, and, with sufficient encouragement, doubtless something satisfactory can be evolved. Among other designs proposed, Nordenfelt, the inventor of the celebrated machine-gun, has offered the plan of a boat to be submerged and to carry Lay's locomotive torpedoes. A board of torpedo experts could decide upon the best plan to be built at once as an experimental ship. There are two types of torpedo-boats built by Yarrow and Thorneycroft of England that are marvels of skill and ingenuity. They were evolved from the torpedo launch of our civil-war period, and are constantly improving. In the United States the Herreshoff boats, though as yet inferior in some respects to the Thorneycrofts and Yarrows, can, with sufficient encouragement from the Government, be developed into boats of equal power. Of the Heneschoffs, the Navy Department possess but two, and those of wood and of an antiquated type and inferior speed. The Government should be prudent, and order at least two for each principal port on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, to be built during the coming year. The third class of torpedo-boats are boats of the locomotive or automovibile plan, and are represented in general terms by the Lay, Whitehead, or Ericsson torpedoes. The last Congress appropriated a sum of money for the best torpedo of this class, and the purchase of the working plans and right to manufacture. This question will be decided by a board of competent officers, and will result in speedily acquiring, it is to be hoped, the most serviceable locomotive torpedo.

The Congress about to meet should supplement the action of the last Congress by appropriating money for the building of the vessels and torpedo-boats named above, and an additional appropriation should be made for the construction of modern steel ordnance and the purchase of Hotchkiss, Gardner, and Gatling multifire guns. Whatever may be said of the political methods of the present Secretary, and his personal treatment of some of the officers of the navy, it cannot be denied that he has shown executive energy and administrative capacity. By reducing and concentrating the establishments at navy yards, in closing some of the superfluous stations, in reducing the civil establishment at navy yards—an establishment subject to political abuse—and especially by stopping the crowding into the lower ranks of the service of superfluous officers, he has done a great deal in aid of economy and efficiency. He has also, in approving the sentences of courts-martial in cases of dismissal (an unknown thing of late years), done something to improve the discipline of the service. I trust that he will urge upon the coming Congress the creation of defensive *matériel* for the navy, and not let them remain satisfied with the building of a few commerce-destroyers. In doing this he will be furthering the possibility of peace in the future. C. H. S.

REPRESSION IN IRELAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to say that what I advocated as a temporary mode of trial in Ireland was not "a commission of judges," which, on the contrary, I deprecated, but a tribunal of laymen, selected for their character from the whole nation, without restriction to Ireland, and presided over by a judge. It seemed to me, and seems to me still, that such a court would combine the necessary independence of local passion and terrorism with all that is essential to justice in jury trial. The bill brought in by the Government, on the contrary, did enable the judges to try cases without juries, though the Government has preferred to act on another and, it appears to me, not less stringent provision of the bill. However, the form of the tribunal was a secondary question, and as such I always treated it. That which I, with many others, pressed "with vehemence," if you will, was the institution of some tribunal capable of protecting the lives of loyal men and women against gangs of barbarous and dastardly assassins. I cannot conceive anything more clearly demanded by the honor of the country. Surely the victims as well as the murderers have some claim on our humanity.

I do not quite know what you mean by "my talk about Irish matters when I was last in England." I delivered a lecture, which was printed, and in which I am perfectly confident that nothing sanguinary or wanting in right feeling toward Ireland will be found; but I made no speech. Whatever I did, however, you may be sure that you do me great injustice if you imagine that I had any object in view but the prevention, by timely firmness in vindicating the law, of the bloodshed which there has already been, and of that which, there is too much reason to fear, is destined still to come. I do not wish to see my country dismembered, but I wish to see its unity preserved by means consistent with humanity and justice.

Yours faithfully, Goldwin Smith.

Toronto, October 26, 1883.

RETROGRESSION IN ALABAMA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In conversation with a gentleman in Illinois, just after the rebellion, upon the future of the South, he concluded by stating that "when he came to die he wished to be taken back to Alabama." "Why," said I, "you are not a native of that State." "No, sir; but having traversed its length and breadth during the late war, and become familiar with all its machinations, I feel that I could leave the world with less regret from Alabama than from any other portion of the civilized globe." Sojourning here for awhile, I have at times seriously questioned its being "a portion of the civilized globe"; civilization implying advancement in all that pertains to the comfort and happiness of mankind, whereas this entire section has retrograded during the past fifteen or twenty years almost beyond recognition, the people of all classes growing stoically indifferent to any improvement of their present surroundings or their future welfare.

Perhaps nothing has so much contributed to bring about this lamentable state of affairs as the mortgage system, or, in common parlance, "The Crop Lien Law," which obtained, just after the surrender, for the avowed purpose of aiding the poor farmer and freedman to begin life anew. The law as at first enacted, to remain in force one year only, stipulated that nothing but such supplies as were absolutely necessary for making and gathering the crop should be furnished, or, if furnished, should be at the risk of the merchant—not legally collectible; the farmer executing a lien on the crop he expected to make, and also a mortgage on whatever he possessed, in horses, cattle, hogs, etc., duly witnessed and recorded. However strongly it may be argued that this inured to the good of the country at first, I think it questionable, inaugurating as it did a new system of credit, based on presumed resources having no existence in fact, and calling into requisition the already wasted energies of a people at from two to three hundred per cent. discount. As the statute was extended from year to year, with numerous amendments, provisos, etc., one could easily see who were the beneficiaries; and each autumn, as the cotton rolled into the merchant's warerooms, and the teams and wagons that brought it were seized by the sheriff, it was not difficult to discern the loser. Moreover, so loosely has the law been construed of late that anything is furnished one may call for, each bidding particularly for the colored trade, because the freedman is simple and childlike in his wants, and there is no difficulty in selling him any article at any price, especially on time.

I once saw, on a wager between a merchant and another party, an iron column supporting a portion of the building sold for fifty dollars to one of his colored customers, who was persuaded that it would protect his cabin against lightning, and that he could pay for it at the close of the year in cotton. Again, I saw a merchant take a five-dollar note a freedman asked him to change, tear it apart, and cast it on the floor, pretending to grind it in pieces beneath his feet, then threaten him with arrest for uttering counterfeit money. The note was genuine, and he was seen to gather the fragments and put them together, and in all probability used the bill himself. Upon another occasion I was present when a young colored man, with his girl, entered one of these mortgage houses, and, asking for flavoring extracts, was handed a case of handkerchief extracts, from which he selected a small bottle of patchouly, being informed by the proprietor that it was the identical article he wanted, and for it was charged the moderate sum of two dollars and fifty cents.

These are but a fair sample of thousands of such tricks practised upon the poor, unsuspecting freedman under this nefarious mortgage system; and as each year rolls by, and he finds himself moneyless and powerless, is it any wonder that he should begin to cast about him for relief, especially when he beholds in the near future the holidays approaching, with no prospect of being able to gratify his childlike whims? For from time immemorial it has been customary for the colored people to have a little ready money for their Christmas, it being their "day of jubilee" throughout the South.

Cotton being the principal crop upon which the lien is given, and being at all times a cash article, it is but natural that he should give it his first attention, especially as it is wholly under his control until ginned and baled, being stored in outbuildings as fast as gathered. This stock of seed cotton pressing necessity, together with the conviction forced upon him from past experience that he will derive nothing from it in the end, impels him to dispose of in any way, regardless of consequences, there being always a class of small, unprincipled dealers only too anxious to get it, yet never paying over half-

price in cash or merchandise. To these buyers it is brought in after dark, in sacks containing from fifty to one hundred pounds. They are generally saloon-keepers, carrying also a small stock of trinkets, gewgaws, etc., many of whom have grown rich and plethoric from the trade of the colored people. In fact, to such an extent has this traffic been carried, that what has been called the "Sundown Law" was enacted by the General Assembly several years ago, prohibiting, under heavy penalty, any trade in cotton between the hours of sunset and sunrise. These saloon-keepers, having once got the freedman into their power, control him effectually, well knowing how this cotton was obtained, and compelling him at pleasure to continue his depredations until they have all they can handle, which is usually secreted about their residences or in some out-of-the-way place until a convenient opportunity is offered for disposing of the lot.

Taking these facts into consideration, is it any wonder there should be two hundred thousand more illiterate persons in the South to-day than there were ten years ago? Our colored population are all farmers—nine-tenths of them renters, compelled to pay thirty-five pounds lint-cotton per acre for old, worn-out land, requiring three acres to produce one bale. And yet necessity has compelled them to go on paying these exorbitant prices to soulless landlords when, for a little ready money, they can buy the same land for less than their annual rental; in proof whereof, a large tract of the best land in this county was sold by decree of Chancery, a few days since (title guaranteed), for only $2 75 an acre.

All these things naturally incite to discontent, theft, robbery, and frequently murder; for there is no confidence between man and man, everything that should in business affairs arouse one to life and energy is utterly destroyed, and the entire country is in a semi-barbaric state. So, when Congress made an appropriation for improving Muscle Shoals in the Tennessee River, and work actually began, it was but natural the freedmen should flock thither by the thousand, for the better and surer compensation offered for their labor, to say nothing of the difference in treatment received at the hands of their employers, and leave the old, worn-out fields to grow up in May-weed and sedge-grass, as is their wont when left untended. Consequently there was a great hue and cry among these landlords, who, accustomed to lie idle during the entire year, dependent solely on their rents for subsistence, were now compelled to mortgage their lands for supplies to carry them through. The old state of affairs was thus reversed, for the freedman could now pay cash for all he wanted, and have a little left; was fawned upon and caressed by the merchant, while his old landlord was bound and securely held by the same shackles that once fettered him, "with none so poor to do him reverence."

SOJOURNER.

NORTHERN ALABAMA, Oct. 20, 1883.

THE SOCIETY FOR PSYCHICAL RESEARCH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As your readers will have learnt from a kindly notice of our "Proceedings" which recently appeared in your columns, a society, entitled the "Society for Psychical Research," has lately been established, under the presidency of Mr. Henry Sidgwick, Deputy-Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Cambridge, England, for the purpose of inquiring into a mass of obscure phenomena which lie at present on the outskirts of our organized knowledge. May we ask you to find space for a few lines as to the mode in which persons interested in our investigations may give us valuable help?

It is an object of this Society to get hold of as much first-hand evidence as possible bearing on such phenomena as thought-transference; clairvoyance; mesmeric healing; presentiments and dreams, noted at the time of occurrence, and afterward confirmed; unexplained disturbances in places supposed to be haunted; apparitions at the moment of death, or otherwise; and of other abnormal events, hard to classify at present, but which may seem to fall under somewhat the same categories as these.

We have been desired, as Secretaries of the Literary Committee of the above-mentioned Society, to invite information of this kind from any trustworthy source. It is clearly of great importance, considering the universal diffusion of these phenomena, that evidence should be drawn from as wide an area as possible.

Should any of your readers, now or in the future, be able and inclined to send us an account, or put us on the track, of any phenomena of the kind which may have come under the cognizance of themselves or their friends, they would greatly oblige us, and would also (as we think we may fairly say) be rendering a real aid to the progress of knowledge in a direction where such aid is much needed. Nothing will, in any case, be printed or published (either with or without names) except with the full consent of the persons concerned.

EDMUND GURNEY,
Devonshire Club, London, Eng.;
FREDERIC W. H. MYERS,
Leckhampton, Cambridge, Eng.

OCTOBER, 1883.

ORIGIN OF THE PHŒNICIAN ALPHABET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A review of Taylor's 'Alphabet,' in the *Nation* of October 11, appears to accept the theory of the Egyptian origin of the Phœnician alphabet as definitively proved. I will state briefly certain unanswered objections to that theory:

1. The resemblance of the hieratic Egyptian to the early Phœnician characters is not striking; it is, however, such as to render the development of the one from the other possible. This proves absolutely nothing whatever, since, as Doctor Taylor has successfully shown in the course of his two volumes, anything may be developed from anything. What is needed for a proof in this direction (and the same is, only in a still greater degree, true of the theories of the Hittite or Babylonian origin of the alphabet) is intermediate forms. Too many links are wanting to allow the construction of a sound argument on the ground of the forms of the letters.

2. As Doctor Taylor says, in reference to the derivation of the Æthiopic alphabet (vol. i., p. 353): "The identification of the letters with their Phœnician prototypes can be effected with much greater certainty [by a linguistic comparison of the names] than by means of mere resemblances of form, which are frequently deceptive." Comparing the Egyptian and Phœnician alphabets, we find no similarity in the names of the letters, either as to sound or meaning. In answer to this objection, Doctor Taylor adduces the example of the derivation of the Russian alphabet from the Greek, etc. (vol. i., p. 119). By an application of the acrological principle, *beta* became in the Russian alphabet *buki*, "beech"; *delta* became *dobro*, "oak." From this analogy he argues (p. 120): "Hence new acrologic names, significant in Semitic speech, would naturally be invented, as in other borrowed alphabets [compare for an opposite course the Greek], with the object of making it easy to connect the forms and values of the several characters." The analogy does not hold, and the argument is invalid, because a number of the Semitic letter names—more than half-a-dozen—are entirely without significance. They are not Semitic words, and yet they are not borrowed from the Egyptian.

3. In vol. i., p. 122, Doctor Taylor says that the "Egyptian alphabet" consisted of twenty-five letters, of which some were vowels. What became of those vowels, if the Phœnician alphabet was borrowed from the Egyptian? To omit what existed is inconsistent with the supposition of progress. The need of some method of expressing the vowels was undoubtedly felt among all Semitic peoples, as is shown by the attempt to indicate different vowel sounds by means of *aleph*, *vav*, and *yodh*, by the syllabic system finally adopted in Æthiopic and Mendaïte, and by the ultimate adoption of vowel points in the other Semitic languages. A minor objection of a similar kind is the combination under one character, *cheth*, of two different sounds. To follow Doctor Taylor's own argument regarding *teth* and other sounds peculiar to the Semitic languages (p. 117), inasmuch as the number of symbols in the Egyptian alphabet was sufficient for such a purpose, separate characters should have been chosen—from among the breaths, I suppose—for the two sounds now combined under the name *cheth*.

4. On p. 145 Doctor Taylor sums up his argument as to chronological probabilities as follows: "The Semitic occupation of Egypt lasted for several centuries. The origin of the Semitic alphabet is connected with this occupation by three distinct lines of evidence. The first is external. The sojourn of Israel in Egypt is nearly synchronous with the Hyksos period. Before the Hebrews went down into Egypt the art of writing was unknown to them: when they came out of Egypt they possessed it. The inference seems clear—it must have been acquired from kindred races who occupied the Delta." Sentences one, four, and five are assumptions of unproved facts, consequently the inference drawn is also an assumption. We are really in entire ignorance regarding these matters.

There are other minor objections which need not be stated here. The argument for the Egyptian origin of the Phœnician alphabet is, in fact, only this: The Egyptians, although they did not themselves know how properly to use it, had developed an alphabet at a time, apparently, when the Phœnicians were in sufficiently close contact with them to have borrowed or adopted it. We have no satisfactory evidence that before the time of such contact the Phœnicians possessed any system of writing; that is, we are in total ignorance on the subject one way or the other. In the absence of any proof of another derivation of the Phœnician alphabet, these facts give a probability to the Egyptian theory in spite of the objections mentioned above. Such absence of proof cannot, however, be regarded as ultimate until we know far more than we do at present about the Hittite and other systems of writing of hither Asia, and also about Assyrian-Babylonian. Hence the probability arising from this absence of proof must for the present be treated as merely provisional. As Doctor Taylor says, the discovery of Phœnician inscriptions of the year 1500 B. C., or thereabouts, may any day solve the problem; but, as he does not say, I think it must for the present be regarded as an open question, with the probabilities inclining toward Egypt. In conclusion, let me add that it is a mistake to say that classical tradition is in favor of the Egyptian theory. Classical tradition is about equally divided between the Egyptian and the Assyrian (which

may cover Babylonian) origin of the Phœnician alphabet. JOHN P. PETERS.

NEW YORK, October 26, 1883.

Notes.

CUPPLES, UPHAM & Co., Boston, have nearly ready Turgeneff's 'Poems in Prose,' with an introduction and portrait.

Pickwick & Co., Philadelphia, have in press and will shortly issue 'American Greek Testaments: a Critical Bibliography of the Greek New Testament as published in America,' by Prof. Isaac H. Hall, of which the public had a foretaste last year in the Transactions of the American Philological Association. The edition will be limited; the copies either cut or uncut, at the purchaser's pleasure.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately 'Sources of History in the Pentateuch,' six lectures by Samuel C. Bartlett, D.D., President of Dartmouth College; and 'The Yoke of Christ, in the Duties and Circumstances of Life,' by the Bishop of Rochester.

Messrs. J. B. Lippincott & Co. announce for immediate publication Mary Agnes Tincker's new novel, 'The Jewel in the Lotos,' with five handsome full-page illustrations by Hovenden.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish next month Longfellow's dramatic poem, 'Michael Angelo,' in folio form, with designs by eight American artists, and other illustrations pertaining to Michael Angelo and his friends from old paintings and engravings. There will be three portraits of Vittoria Colonna. The book will be conspicuous among holiday publications.

Mr. Edmund Goldsmid, 12 Castle Street, Edinburgh, invites subscription to his 'Bibliotheca Curiosa,' "a collection of curious and out-of-the-way books, intended for the historian, antiquarian, and littérateur." The list embraces forty-three numbers, with a range that includes James Maidment's 'A North Countrie Garland'; Mr. Goldsmid's complete catalogues of the publications of the Aldine press at Venice (1494–1597), and of the Elzevir presses at Leyden, Amsterdam, and Utrecht; Grotius's 'De Origine Gentium Americanarum Dissertatio'; Capefigue's 'Agnes Sorel,' in translation; Caxton's 'Reynard the Fox'; the 'Trial of François Ravaillac'; Wright's Camden Society edition of 'The Political Songs of Britain, from the Reign of John to that of Edward II.'; King James's 'Counterblaste to Tobacco'; Thomas Prince's 'Chronological History of New England' (1736); Dame Juliana Berners's 'Treatyse of Fysshynge with an Angle'; a translation of Lamartine's 'Christopher Columbus,' etc. The editions will be limited, with print and paper of the best, and in two sizes. Subscriptions may be made for a set, up to a certain number, or for separate volumes.

Mr. Alfred Marks, 155 Adelaide Road, N. W., London, having transcribed for his own use Venturi's rare biographical tract on Leonardo, of which only three copies are to be found in the libraries of London, is prepared to reprint it if subscribers enough agree to pay the moderate cost. He may be addressed as above.

Mr. Goldwin Smith's *Bystander* is to be suspended in favor of a new critical and literary periodical called the *Week*, of which the first number will be issued in Toronto on December 6, with Mr. Charles G. D. Roberts for editor. Mr. Smith will be a regular contributor to one at least of its departments.

The "Newstead edition" of Lord Byron's complete works (Philadelphia: E. Claxton & Co.) has the merits of being contained in a single if bulky volume, of giving a sufficient life of the poet, based on the freshest histories, and of having a good index to names, titles, subjects, and first lines. Perhaps we should add the illustrations, even if they are copies; and such comparison as we have made indicates careful proof-reading of the text. But as a manufactured article the book falls below the accepted standard of taste, and is not one which a lover either of Bryon or of poetry would cherish. It is uniform in style with an "Avon Shakspere" by the same publishers.

The 'Riverside Shakspere,' edited by Mr. Richard Grant White, in three volumes (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), whether it meets a want or not, will certainly find general acceptance. Mr. White is responsible for the text, and we need not hesitate to trust him for that, even though he very seldom records various readings. He puts his glossary in footnotes instead of by itself, and he repeats his explanations with every fresh occurrence of the word or phrase at a distance from the first—not always, indeed, but such is his intent. The pages have numbered lines. A brief introduction, giving what is known about its origin, precedes each play. The whole is prefixed with an introduction and a summary life of the poet. In the former, Mr. White shows how remote from public interest are the contentions of Shaksperian commentators, and then neatly gives a few samples of his own latest work in this vein, upholding, with the confidence of his class, original emendations of this, that, or the other passage. The few known facts of Shakspere's life are related in a way to impress the reader with his sordidness, overfondness for drink, unchastity, and small regard for his wife. The good is pretty much left to be interred with his bones. It cannot be said that the facts are distorted, but they have certainly been robbed of charitable perspective. The print of these comely volumes is large and, in spite of the rather thin paper, legible.

The *Century* Company has recognized the general interest created by Dr. Gladden's "The Christian League of Connecticut," in printing in book form the papers which appeared in the *Century Magazine* under that title. These vigorous and sprightly essays on organized charity and coöperative church work are already well known. The author was wise in pitching upon a town no larger than "New Albion" for the scene of the operation of his theory. The "League" could not have had origin in a large city—at least, not such an origin—and it may be doubted if it could be put into successful working there, since it implies so thorough an acquaintance on the part of one minister with the persons and churches of each of the others. Part of the work proposed is already done, in a different and probably better way, by the societies for organizing charity which exist in several large cities, as, for instance, in Buffalo. The blows dealt denominational rivalries are well directed and telling. The "ministerial famine" over which some of the denominations are greatly exercised of late is an affair only relative to particular sects, and without basis in the demand, broadly considered. We presume that Doctor Gladden has had his full of the amenities of temperance discussions since his removal to an Ohio church. The book is published both in paper and cloth.

Two more volumes—'Wet Days at Edgewood' and 'Dream Life'—have been added to the uniform edition of the works of Donald G. Mitchell now publishing by the Messrs. Scribner.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have made three tempting little volumes of 'Prose Masterpieces,' containing essays one would always like to have at hand, such as Matthew Arnold's "Sweetness and Light," Leslie Stephen's "Apology for Plain-speaking," Lowell's "On a Certain Condescension in Foreigners," Macaulay on "History," Morley on "Popular Culture," and many others, often in a calculated juxtaposition by contraries. Thus Froude and Freeman, Newman and Stephen, are brought together. The list embraces also Leigh Hunt, Irving, Lamb, De Quincey, Landor, Sydney Smith, Thackeray, Emerson ("Compensation"), Gladstone ("Kin beyond Sea"), Helps ("On the Art of Living with Others"), Kingsley, Ruskin, and Carlyle. The binding of these volumes is as choice as their contents.

The same publishers have brought out a new and revised edition (the second) of Mr. C. F. Thwing's 'American Colleges: Their Students and Work.' The author has added three chapters, one being on wealth and endowment, another an argument against a national university, and a third in favor of coeducation. This work answers a good many questions which foreigners are apt to ask concerning our colleges and the benefactions which support and multiply them.

'Mr. Washington Adams in England' has been reprinted in Glasgow by Mr. David Douglas in one of the pretty little volumes of the series containing the writings of Mr. Howells, Dr. Holmes, Mr. Cable, and Mr. Stockton, and about to contain Mr. Curtis's 'Prue and I.' Now that Mr. Grant White has acknowledged the writing of the 'New Gospel of Peace,' it is perhaps a pity that he did not include in this reprint of a stage-American's sayings and doings in England a reprint of the earlier pamphlet called the 'Diary of Sir Lyon Bouse in America,' in which were set down the sayings and doings of a stage-Englishman in these United States. The contrast in form and the substantial unity of impression after the score of years which intervenes between the two pamphlets are worthy of remark, whatever may be thought of the permanent value or conciliatory effect of either.

In continuation of a correspondent's list of articles which go to show the rapid Americanization of England, it may be mentioned that Marsh's 'Lectures on the English Language,' March's 'Anglo-Saxon Reader,' and Whitney's 'Life and Growth of Language' are among the text-books recommended to candidates for the higher local examinations of the University of Cambridge. It is a little singular that the training of English girls in their native tongue should be intrusted to writers of a nation which is supposed to have done so much to corrupt that tongue.

Both the leading articles of *Le Livre* for October arrest attention and repay reading. Antoine Fureteur recalls the loyal outbursts of joy, and pious fervor, and reckless prophecy at the time of the birth of the late Comte de Chambord—"l'enfant glorieux," according to Victor Hugo; "l'enfant du miracle," according to Lamartine. The Opposition were, of course, less happy and less exuberant. M. Fureteur cites from the contemporary *Quotidienne* what must have been already an old Joe—the story of the barber who exacts double pay for shaving a downcast Liberal customer: "mais aujourd'hui vous avez la figure beaucoup plus longue." As might be expected, the loyal poetry is most amusing of all. The second paper is a chapter from volume i. of M. Eugène Dutuit's 'Manuel de l'amateur d'estampes,' discussing the question, Who invented the art of printing? M. Dutuit sets forth the elements of the controversy with great fairness, but without throwing much independent light upon it, and without coming to any dogmatic conclusion. He holds to Holland rather than to Germany, but he does not insist on the truth of the Coster legend. Among the bibliographical notes of this number we read a statement that the only extant portrait of Balzac, a daguerreotype, was

broken to bits by the Prussians who occupied Charles Yriarte's house at Saint-Cloud. *Le Livre's* English proof-reading commonly leaves something to be desired, and its New York correspondent is made to attribute to General Dix the "lambeau de phrase mirobolant," "Shook him on the Spok."

Octave Feuillet's one-act comedy, "La Fée," is the latest issue (No. 6) of Mr. Wm. R. Jenkins's "Théâtre Contemporain."

Professor Young, embracing the favorable opportunity of the opposition of Uranus early in the present year, conducted an important series of observations bearing on the ellipticity and surface-markings of the planet. The former make it quite certain that Uranus, like Jupiter and Saturn, has a rapid rotation nearly in the plane of the satellite-orbits. Professor Young's observations establish the certainty of markings on the disk of Uranus resembling the belts of Jupiter and Saturn. They were seen only faintly, of course, but repeatedly by three observers independently, whenever the conditions of vision were good and the image bright and steady. On May 25, for example, the western pole was notably brighter than the eastern, and the western belt showed a little spur running out toward the pole. It does not seem to be possible to deduce any reliable rotation-period from the data so far collected, but there is certainly reason to hope that some of the great telescopes may establish something more definite in future years.

— A new analytical index to the *Nation*, supplementary to that of 1880, may now be had of the publisher of this paper. The latter was essentially literary in its scope, and paid little regard to the political side of the *Nation*, which is the exclusive concern of the present work. To this the compiler has given the title, 'A Record of Politics and Politicians in the United States, 1865–1882'; and to enlarge its usefulness he has occasionally referred to McPherson's Political Handbooks, and to other easily accessible sources. For convenience' sake he has adopted the style of the earlier Index. No such record has, we believe, ever been attempted in this country, and the mere perusal of it, without turning back to the *Nation*, is very instructive. Its value in the manufacture of "campaign documents" (see the bird's-eye view of Butler, for example), the preparation of dictionaries of "Men of the Time," or the serious study of contemporary American history, will be appreciated by the respective classes that have occasion to resort to it. As a stimulus to the well-known sluggishness of the American memory, its utility is not confined to those who have a file of the *Nation* at hand. Foreigners, moreover, can learn from it what is meant by the Americanism, a man's "record."

—Most people who take up *Harper's* for November will fall at once with avidity upon the account of a "Hashish-house in New York," given by Dr. H. H. Kane, M. D. In Forty-second Street, somewhere between Broadway and the North River, there is, we are told, what may be vernacularly called an élite hashish resort, where ladies and gentlemen in the custom of using hemp in any of the pleasing Oriental ways, go from time to time for the purpose of indulging in those delightful visions which hashish produces—not the demi-monde, or the low creatures who drug themselves in opium-joints, but real ladies and gentlemen of our best, oldest, and wealthiest families, who go there just as they might to a Turkish or Russian bath. It is a very luxuriously-furnished mansion, recalling, in some of its appointments, the peculiar class of abodes to be met with in the romances of the late Lord Beaconsfield. The floor of the principal room is covered with a velvety carpet, in which the feet of the visitor sink "almost ankle deep," the design comprising beds of flowers, parterres made up of "thousands of rare exotics and richly colored leaves," such as no gentleman likes to have his lawn without, but which few gentlemen perhaps would like to see in the pattern of their parlor carpet; a brook, moreover, creeping between damp green banks, fringed with coy violets and bluebells, to say nothing of the serpentine gravelled walk, which meanders through this smiling scene. This carpet, surprising as it may seem, is designed to reinforce the agreeable effect of the hashish; to judge by the description, the sight of it would be more likely to produce a nightmare than a pleasant reverie. In fact, to our minds nothing could give a more vivid idea of the potent effect of hemp than the fact that, with such a floor expanding about him and presenting its horrid images to his consciousness, as it passes into the domain of dreams, the drug should prevail against the floor, and actually produce in the hashish consumer a sense of comfort and well-being. The doctor says nothing of the effect of the carpet on awakening; in fact, for a scientific man he has not sufficiently discriminated the effects of the carpet from those of the drug. We do not mind confessing that we still have doubts as to the existence of this house in Forty-second Street, notwithstanding Doctor Kane's minute description; we cannot help believing that the vigilant reporters of some newspaper would have discovered its existence long ago, and given the public some accounts of its whereabouts, as they have faithfully done in the case of the opium dens, the gambling-houses, and all other really-existent places of an illicit character. That a monthly magazine should beat the daily press in disclosures of this sort is improbable. Still we should like to believe in it, just as we should in the shop in Fourteenth Street where, according to a recent English writer, parcels of cigarettes are made up and sent home to ladies who surreptitiously smoke tobacco, in shapes which resemble ordinary "dry goods." All these things make life in New York more "full" and various.

—*Lippincott's*, which sometimes has a little the air of being made up of contributions returned as "not available" by other magazines, opens with a rather commonplace illustrated article on Henry Irving, by Robert Laird Collier. Irving is likely to be for some time to come a "topic," and we confess to having looked forward with eager anticipation to the moment, which has now come, when there will be some independent and novel criticism of him which will serve to clear up the questions always suggested yet never answered by the accounts thus far given of his strange elocution and eccentric acting. "Housekeeping in Normandy," by Margaret Bertha Wright, is a readable article, in which the extraordinary economy of French cooking is dwelt upon, and what will strike most American housekeepers as a convincing illustration given. Not a drop of the water in which vegetables are boiled is ever wasted, it seems, in a Norman kitchen, but, "with a dash of milk, and a little pork fat or butter," it becomes "a good soup-vehicle with which to consume dry bread." Lavishness and waste is the peculiar "note" of the American cuisine, and we doubt if any amount of preaching would induce a "plain" cook in this country to get up a soup of this kind. The poorer Norman peasants, it seems, often eat boiled pea-pods as a vegetable. In New York there are numbers of Italian, French, and German cooks who get up every day what are known as "table d'hôte" dinners at the small price of from seventy-five cents to a dollar and a quarter, including the half-bottle of the wine of the country, as it may well be called; and this meal—an excellent one in its way—could not be served were it not for the economical habits imported from European kitchens; but the success of these makes no converts among American cooks. The typical American meal is probably still to be seen in the hotel kept on the American plan, where you pay a price sufficient for two people, and eat as much as you can without any question being asked, with a proud consciousness of superiority to details that a savage might envy.

—The *Atlantic* has a more than usually varied list of articles. Mr. Crawford's "Roman Singer" has now run through ten chapters, and, considering the furore with which the appearance of "Mr. Isaacs" and "Doctor Claudius" were greeted, we do not understand the quiet that prevails about it. It is at least as good as the first, and promises to be far better than the second, of its two predecessors; and, unless we are much mistaken, Mr. Crawford is more at home in Italy than he is either in India, Germany, or America. There are traces in the present instalment of his passion for the fantastic, as in the love parable of the Maiden and the Thorn; but this is a slight matter in a love-story. At the risk of seeming disrespectful to the novel-reading public, we are inclined to suspect that "A Roman Singer" does not attract its attention thus far mainly because it is too good, and that if Mr. Crawford wishes to give it greater vogue, he will do well to introduce, without further delay, some jewel-eyed polygamist from the far East, or some German Monte Christo from Heidelberg, or, better still, one of those vulgar materialists who, in the imagination of so many Europeanized Americans, make up the greater part of the best society of New York and Boston. A sketch of Ezra Ripley, by Mr. Emerson, originally written for his friends in Concord, gives an entertaining and life-like portrait of the old-fashioned New England minister, of the last quarter of the last and first quarter of the present century. It contains a number of anecdotes which give us a better picture of the society in which he lived than a volume of ordinary history could. His confident feeling as to his standing and influence with the Almighty is very significant, as in the story of his ordering the Rev. Mr. Goodwin off the ground, and taking charge of the prayers for rain, giving as a reason that the prevailing drought was altogether too serious to be prayed against by "young Cambridge men," or anybody but himself. Customary as it is nowadays for bright young agnostics to express serious doubts as to the "ages of faith," and the amount of religious belief actually then existent in the world, we do not see how it is possible for any one to gain even a superficial acquaintance with New England society as it existed a hundred years ago, without seeing that it was founded upon a real, living belief in the daily and hourly dependence of man upon a local, anthropomorphic divinity —a God not merely human, but distinctly Yankee in character. In this respect, the Jehovah of the New England system is not exactly what Mr. Matthew Arnold would call "Hebraic." Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's "Random Spanish Notes" are open to the criticism, that while good enough in themselves, they are somewhat spoiled by a vacillation of the style between that appropriate to a cosmopolite observer and that which is part of the outfit of the American humorist. The latter, represented best perhaps by Mark Twain, simply applies to what he sees in Europe the standards taken from every-day American life; the result being generally surprising and often amusing. Mr. Warner does this occasionally, but not with the bold,

free touch of the professional funny man. He is hampered by his sense as a literary man that Europe looked at in this way becomes mainly a laughable jumble of contradictions.

—Mr. James has in the *Century* the first instalment of a story called "The Impressions of a Cousin," of which the scene is laid in New York, the cousin whose impressions are recorded being a young woman sufficiently denationalized to see what goes on about her with the eyes, not of the children of Broadway, but of the children of light, though not, perhaps, sweetness. The magazine outdoes itself this month in illustrations. It has full-page portraits of Modjeska, Queen Victoria, and Turgeneff, the last having been engraved to accompany some reminiscences of the Russian novelist by Daudet. But Turgeneff was one of those writers whose books are not the reflection of their private lives, and any one who can trace a connection between his stories and the fact that he was a friend, and to the extent of a monthly dinner, a *convive*, of Flaubert, Zola, De Goncourt, and Daudet himself, is welcome to do so. The article throws a curious incidental light upon Daudet's opinions of the modern French *salon*, as represented by Madame Adam's evenings. To a party at this lady's house, it seems, Turgeneff on one occasion took the Grand Duke Constantine. "I hasten to say," Daudet maliciously adds, "that he saw nothing but attitudes—attitudes of people who pretended to turn their back, and of others who presented themselves as fully as possible. Alexandre Dumas, furious at being taken for a curious animal, refused to say good things. Carolus Duran, the painter, sang; Munkácsy whistled; M. de Beust played a pretty valse, which was rather long." Perhaps the following—when we recall Turgeneff's unfailing faith in the interest of mankind in the analysis of suffering—is as noticeable as anything in the article. He had an operation performed without taking chloroform, and afterward gave a minute account of his sensations to Daudet. First, he said, there was "the sharp pain of the blade in the flesh; then a circular sensation, as of a fruit being peeled," and he added: "I analyzed my suffering so as to be able to relate it to you, thinking it would interest you" And he was quite right.

—The *American Law Review* for September-October contains an important article by John Norton Pomeroy on "The Supreme Court and State Repudiation," which embodies a scathing review of the recent Virginia and Louisiana decisions. He takes the ground which we did in these columns some time since, that the idea advanced in the published opinion, that the "coupon-killer" laws in Virginia (this is perhaps the plainest case) did not "impair the obligation" of the contract with the creditors of the State, is unintelligible, because practically they took away the remedy which the creditor had (by mandamus), and gave him nothing in return. The matter is much complicated, however, by the intimation thrown out by the court, that nothing in the case is intended to affect the right of the creditor to make a tender of his coupons for taxes, or the duty of the State officers to accept them at their peril, followed as it has been by a decision of the Circuit Court that this course is still open to the bondholders. But Mr. Pomeroy goes beyond the discussion of this question, and declares that the court is in many ways showing signs of a tendency to depart from settled rules of construction, and to enlarge the scope of State legislation, dangerous to property rights. He finds this tendency not only in the Virginia and Louisiana cases, but in the elevator (granger) decision, in which the court decided that elevator charges might be fixed by State legislation, and that this did not infringe any of the Constitutional guarantees with regard to property. Yet this decision was rendered by the same court which has decided that any interference with the beneficial use of real property is a "taking" within the meaning of the clause relating to taking private property for public use. Mr. Pomeroy goes so far as to undertake to explain the present position of the court as resting upon, or at any rate necessarily involving, a dangerous and new theory of constitutional interpretation, which in its paralysis of the implied restrictions on State power would go beyond the view of the old secessionists.

—Professor Holden, having lately examined the excellent compilation by Sergeant Finley, of the Signal Service, 'Characteristics of Six Hundred Tornadoes,' with reference to the question of saving human life, describes in *Science* a simple apparatus which he has devised for a system of local warnings. Saving property seems to be out of the question, as no structure can withstand the force of the tornado-wind. Life may be saved by recourse to underground shelters, cellars, etc., such as have actually been built in many places for this end. He quotes two facts from the work named: (1) Three hundred and forty-seven out of 393 tornadoes (that is, 88 per cent.) originated between the west and the south-southwest points; (2) The average velocity of progression was about one mile in two minutes. It seems probable that in the future it may be practicable for the general weather service at Washington to send out warnings a day in advance to large regions of country within which tornadoes are likely to occur; but there is no prospect whatever that warnings of any particular tornado can be given in the immediate future. A five-minutes' warning at any of the late tornadoes might have saved many lives. A wind of seventy miles an hour is sufficient to blow down chimneys and to unroof houses, unless they are well built. Ordinary trees will not stand under it. The pressure on a square foot is not far from fifty pounds. Professor Holden finds it practicable to erect, at a moderate expense, an apparatus which will give from three to five minutes warning to all the inhabitants of a small town, by the firing of a cannon, for instance; and in addition, and without any increased expense, this apparatus could ring a bell in every house. Two or three miles outside the town, and along that quarter from which the approach of tornadoes is to be feared, he would run a line of single telegraph-wire, and from the west point bring the wire into the town, letting it end at the telegraph-office. The battery and ground connections are appropriately so made that a constant current is sent over the line, and a magnet in each house holds a detent which prevents the ringing of a bell so long as the circuit is closed. If the circuit is broken anywhere along the line, each bell begins to ring, and continues to sound until its spring is run down. A cannon could be fired by a suitable modification of the same device, to warn persons out of doors to seek shelter. Professor Holden indicates the detail of his very practical device for the automatic breaking of the circuit by the pressure of the wind, the essential part of which is a thin wire, ordinarily a part of the circuit, and which is so arranged as to be broken whenever the pressure of the wind on an indicator-board with which it is connected exceeds a given amount. Any desired number of such automatic attachments are erected on the poles along the line outside the town, and the action of any one of them is sufficient to send the warning along the entire line. He has made one such indicator, and finds it to work in a perfectly successful manner, being so adjusted, for trial, that the circuit is broken at a wind-velocity of about ten miles an hour. Reflecting that in this year alone several hundreds of lives have been lost from the violence of tornadoes, it will appear that the question of erecting telegraphic systems for local warnings ought to be seriously considered by persons living in exposed regions.

—Within the past few months a number of important works have appeared on the diminishing rate of increase in the population in France. The note was sounded last year by the volume of M. Raoul Frary entitled 'Le Péril National,' was echoed by Charles Richet in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and now is taken up by W. Grossrau in the last number of the *Vierteljahrschrift für Volkswirthschaft*. It appears from the article of Herr Grossrau that the average annual increase of population in France has been almost invariable since the beginning of the century, and is about 95,039; while during the last ten years the annual increase in Great Britain has been 340,118, in the German Empire 493,360, and in the United States, 1,155,446. These figures, showing the total increase, are not more striking than those giving the relative growth of the several states. For every 10,000 inhabitants the annual increase in the United States has been 260, in Germany 115, in Great Britain 101, while in France it is only 26. The rate of increase in France appears, moreover, to be steadily diminishing. Since 1872 the excess of births over deaths has fallen from 172,936 to 96,647. Even deducting from the increase in Great Britain and Germany the total number of emigrants from those countries, we still have an annual net increase in Great Britain of 276,623, and in Germany of 564,094 as against 93,854 in France. The death rate in France is not unfavorable. While in that nation the annual rate is 1 in 450, in Germany it is 1 in 400, in Italy 1 in 340, in Austria 1 in 310. In Great Britain alone, where it is 1 in 500, is the rate less than in France. The low rate of increase with the French, therefore, is to be sought in the small number of births rather than in the large number of deaths. Statistics cited by the author show that the number of births per 1,000 inhabitants has steadily diminished since the beginning of the century. From 1801 to 1810 the rate was 32.5 per 1,000; from 1821 to 1830, 30.9; from 1841 to 1850, 27.4; in 1876, 26.2; in 1879, 25.1. In the table given by Herr Grossrau there is not a single year in which the rate is not a fraction less than it was in the year preceding. Meanwhile the rate of marriages has remained almost invariable. At the beginning of the century the annual number of marriages per 1,000 inhabitants was 7.89. During the eighty years it has not fallen below 7.05, nor risen above 8.02. The cause, therefore, is not to be attributed to any growing infrequency of marriage.

—It is interesting also to note that the diminishing number of births seems not to be confined to the cities, but is characteristic of the rural districts as well. Since 1801 the rate of births per 1,000 inhabitants has fallen in the Pyrénées-Orientales from 44 to 32; in Rhône from 36 to 26; in Tarn from 34 to 25; in Indre from 37 to 27; and in La Creuse from 33 to 23. While in Germany the average number of children per marriage is 5.25 and in England 4.79, in France it is only 3 31. The total rate of births among the French is 26 per thousand, while in England it is 35, in Austria 38, in Prussia 38.5, in Saxony 40, and in Russia 50. We may even speculate as to what the result will be if the present rate is maintained for fifty years. Making no calculations for any disturbance by war or famine or

any other cause, we find that France will have advanced in millions of inhabitants from 37 to 44; Great Britain from 36 to 63; Austria from 38 to 51; the German Empire from 46 to 83; Russia from 90 to 158; and the United States from 52 to 190. Though, as Herr Grossrau remarks, there is a law against the trees growing to the heavens, the figures which he gives furnish much food for thought.

THE CONFEDERATE CRUISERS.

The Secret Service of the Confederate States in Europe; or, How the Confederate Cruisers were Equipped. By James D. Bulloch, Naval Representative of the Confederate States in Europe during the Civil War. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 2 vols., pp. 460–438.

As indicated by the above title, Captain Bulloch was the officer selected by the Confederate authorities to organize and equip their naval demonstrations from abroad, and his operations are related in the two large, somewhat loosely jointed, but interesting volumes under consideration. At the outbreak of the civil war the South found itself singularly barren of materials or resources for the creation of a navy. Beyond a few merchant steamers of indifferent character in its ports, there were no vessels within reach to meet the naval ships of the North, which, for their period, represented a more efficient and complete naval force than we now possess. There was but one shop in the whole Confederacy capable of turning out a first-class marine engine, and no available yards for ship-building. The Pensacola and Norfolk yards, it is true, were for a time in possession of the Confederates, but the former was a place of repair, not of construction; and the latter, when it fell into their hands after its unnecessary evacuation by the Federal forces under Commodore McCauley, in April, 1861, was already rendered useless for the despatch of cruisers by the enemy's occupation of its outlet at Hampton Roads. This latter yard, it is worth remark, in passing, supplied the Confederates not only with the hull and engines out of which the *Merrimac* was created, but also with what Captain Bulloch fails to notice particularly, a store of heavy artillery (at least twelve hundred guns, according to Soley, Parker, and other authorities) sufficient to provide for their immediate need. It was with these guns that the Confederates equipped their otherwise comparatively inoffensive coast-fortifications and gunboats, and found material for the effective thirty-two-pounder rifled and banded pieces which they so cleverly improvised.

Under these circumstances, the attention of the Confederate naval authorities was early turned to foreign sources for the development of the insignificant germ of a navy then in hand. Accordingly we find, as probably one of the last letters coming through the mails which as yet reached the North from the seceded States, a communication, dated April 23, 1861, from Judah P. Benjamin, then Secretary of State under the Montgomery Government, requesting Captain Bulloch, at New York, to come forthwith to Montgomery. Arriving there a few days later, he was despatched to England on the following day, under brief instructions, the execution of which led to the events which form the subject of his book. It is interesting to observe that in the brief colloquy which Captain Bulloch had on this occasion with Mr. Mallory, then the Secretary of the Navy of the Provisional Government, and afterward holding the same post under the Confederate Government, it appeared that, although the Montgomery authorities ultimately expected a formal recognition of their Government by foreign nations, nothing but the comity of the latter to a belligerent was sought, or expected to be invoked, at that period.

Arriving in England in June, 1861, Captain Bulloch found himself without funds or a status sufficient to render his task encouraging, and with the formidable Foreign Enlistment Act staring his enterprise in the face. This statute, since amended, and afterward largely considered in the *Alabama* case at Geneva, forbade any person to "equip, furnish, fit out, or arm" any vessel within the realm for the purpose of making war on any foreign state or persons, and provided, in the event of its violation, not only for a forfeiture of the property, but certain penal features applicable to the parties concerned. Sufficient as the provisions of the act would seem, at first blush, to prevent his purpose, Captain Bulloch, as the event proved, found a way, if not to "drive a coach and four" through it, at least to slip through a few cruisers. Taking advice of eminent counsel, he found he could (as in fact he did) *build* his ships within Her Majesty's dominions, leaving the work of supplying their *equipment—i. e.*, the necessary appliances for warfare—to be performed elsewhere, whether in obscure foreign ports, by the aid of tenders which took the materials out as ordinary merchandise, or otherwise. With this construction of the existing law to stand upon, in spite of many obstacles thrown in his way by the zeal of Mr. Dudley, the United States Consul at Liverpool, and Mr. Adams, the American Minister, and even of difficulties arising from the indiscreet babble of friends, he managed to build and despatch the *Florida*, *Alabama*, and other vessels, with results with which the world is familiar. Their work began the decadence of American commerce, and the heavy bill of damages they caused against England at Geneva represents but a small portion of the loss, one way or another, attributable to them.

With that promptitude which characterized all of Captain Bulloch's work, and which was largely the secret of its success, he caused the keel of the *Oreto* (afterward the *Florida*) to be laid in the same month in which he arrived in England, and even before his first remittances had arrived from home. The same energy led to the building of the *Alabama* a few months later, and was evidenced again in the prompt despatch of this latter ship on a pretended further trial-trip, when the author had received information, "from a private but most reliable source, that it would not be safe to leave the ship in Liverpool another forty-eight hours." And as an example of Captain Bulloch's restless activity, we find that while awaiting the completion of the *Florida* and *Alabama*, he bought and took home to the South, through the Savannah blockade, with a cargo of army supplies, the steamer *Fingal*, which was afterward altered into the ironclad ram *Atlanta*, and suffered capture a year or two later, in a brief engagement under the guns of the monitors *Passaic* and *Nahant*. One object of this incidental trip was to obtain opportunity for conference with the naval authorities at Richmond. On her way out, the *Fingal* met the Confederate steamer *Nashville* at Bermuda, the latter being then bound for England, where she created so much talk and stir, and whence she departed home unexpectedly, before her officers and crew could be transferred to the *Florida*, as was intended.

The successful career of the *Alabama* and *Florida* illustrates the skill and foresight with which they were designed. It was apparent that, to keep the sea effectively, they must be capable of speed under sail alone, and dependent on their auxiliary steam power only in emergency. The various foreign nations had early proclaimed rules of neutrality intended to restrict the use of their ports by vessels of either belligerent, particularly in the matter of supplies of coal, and the home ports of the Southern vessels were in effect sealed against them by the blockade. Hence the two ships in question were built with fine lines for speed, and carried exceptional spread of canvas, especially in their fore and aft sails. Their chief cruising was done under sail alone, and they made a port only at long intervals, while their operations against the merchant-ships were carried on at times almost under the guns of the enemy. On this point Captain Bulloch remarks that he has always thought

"that the United States Navy Department showed either great apathy or was singularly blind to the real danger to the commerce of the United States, and strangely negligent in using the means to protect it. The points of attack were so apparent that it seems hardly credible that they were never occupied."

After describing in detail the course of American vessels between their home ports and those of the east and west coasts of South America, the Cape of Good Hope, and the East Indies, and showing that to catch the northeast and southeast trade-winds effectively they must pass near Fernando de Noronha, when about crossing the Atlantic equator, Captain Bulloch continues:

"If the United States had stationed a few ships to cruise in couplets in the neighborhood of the above-named 'forks of the road,' as they have been called by Maury, and a few more, say, in the Straits of Malacca, and on the principal and well-known cruising-ground of their whaling fleet, two or three Confederate cruisers could not have remained for weeks in the track of passing ships, capturing and destroying them without hindrance. Neither the *Alabama*, *Florida*, nor *Sumter* was driven from her work in any particular latitude; they shifted their cruising-grounds only when it seemed advisable to seek fresh victims elsewhere; and the *Shenandoah* went round the world, sought out the great American whaling-fleet in the North Pacific, and destroyed thirty eight vessels without so much as seeing a man-of-war."

The Navy Department did send out the steamer *Vanderbilt* and other vessels with instructions to cruise over nearly the same route that Captain Bulloch indicates, and it would appear to have been in some degree a matter of luck that the commerce-destroyers so long escaped an encounter. Professor Soley, in commenting upon the judicious instructions given to the commander of the *Vanderbilt* on this occasion, says that they were defeated by Captain Wilkes, who annexed that vessel to his flying squadron, and refused to give her up until peremptory orders had been issued from the Department, thus delaying her until the birds had flown and her plans proved abortive.

Of the midnight surprise and capture of the *Florida* by the *Wachusett*, under Captain Collins, in the neutral port of Bahia, Captain Bulloch speaks in strong terms, characterizing it as an act of "assassination." The *Kearsarge's* duel with and victory over the *Alabama* off Cherbourg was a different matter, and recalls the chivalric challenges and combats of the older school of naval warriors. The story of the famous fight of June 11, 1864, is retold freshly and with great fairness by Captain Bulloch. He finds, in brief, that "the result of the action was determined by the superior accuracy of the firing of the *Kearsarge*," and, in common with other reasonable people, holds that Captain Winslow's protection of his ship by hanging her chain-cables outboard over the more vulnerable parts was a sensible performance, notwithstanding the strictures this circumstance provoked—chiefly among Southerners—at the time. The well-known fact of the *unexploded* shell from the *Alabama*, which lodged in the *Kearsarge's* most vital parts—the sternpost, near the screw, rudder, and wood-

ends—early in the action, is worth recalling, as a curious example of what minute chances success sometimes turns upon in warfare. Concerning the much-discussed attitude of the English yacht *Deerhound*, in carrying off and landing in England some of the *Alabama's* crew and officers from the sinking ship, Captain Bulloch fails to note the important fact pointed out by Professor Soley, that before the *Deerhound* intervened, she was hailed from the *Kearsarge* and asked to assist in taking off the *Alabama's* people. This latter authority, in a review of the case, concludes that the *Kearsarge* had no right, under these circumstances, to expect that the *Deerhound* would deliver up the rescued men into imprisonment, and fails to see how any blame can be imputed to her owner in the premises.

We have thus far chiefly confined our attention (with many omissions) to Captain Bulloch's operations in England, but his chapters concerning the attempts to build and despatch vessels in France possess equal interest, particularly for their nearly positive evidence that no less a person than the Emperor himself, at one time, smiled upon and fostered these efforts. But that exalted personage was not unpractised in the methods of shifty diplomacy, and could, on occasion, with equal facility, blow either hot or cold. It appears that, early in 1863, the Confederate authorities had received intimation from high officials in France that facilities would be offered for the construction and equipment of ironclad ships-of-war in that country, and that this intimation was of a sufficiently formal character to induce the passage of a secret act, by the Confederate Congress, appropriating £2,000,000 for this purpose. These facts were communicated to Captain Bulloch, in a cipher despatch, by the hand of a special messenger, under date of May 6 of that year; from which, by the way, it appears that Secretary Mallory not only felt sure of his ground in constructing these ships, but even supposed it possible that "one or more of the ironclads of the French navy might be so transferred" as to come into Confederate possession.

Before the receipt of these advices, however, Captain Bulloch, having himself received intimations from France of somewhat similar character, was already in treaty with a French shipbuilder for the construction of suitable vessels. This was a M. Arman, who, then engaged in building large armored vessels for the imperial navy at his Bordeaux yard, where he had been recently personally decorated by the Emperor, was a deputy in the Corps Législatif, and, as it appears, possessed of facilities for obtaining personal interviews, on occasion, not only with M. Rouher, the Minister of State, but with his Imperial Majesty himself. On M. Arman's assurance that he was "confidentially informed by the Minister of State that the Emperor was willing for him to undertake the construction of ships for the Confederate Government," and to let them go to sea under the French flag, for delivery at any desired point, Captain Bulloch ordered a formidable fleet of four clipper corvettes of twelve or fourteen six-inch rifle-guns each, and two ironclads of large power. What these effective vessels might have accomplished on the Northern coast, in the hands of the daring Confederate officers who were awaiting their completion, and how much they might have delayed the march of events in the then waning fortunes of the South, it is idle now to discuss. Whether it was bad news from Bazaine in Mexico, or Lee's shattered recoil from Gettysburg, that suggested a more cautious consideration of the protest from the United States, by that time lodged against these vessels, we shall perhaps never know; but this much is clear, that when Mr. Dayton, the American Minister presented his complaint, the shipbuilders concerned were sent for and informed, with fine official indignation, that their plans must forthwith be abandoned.

M. Arman, indeed, was treated to a personal interview with the Emperor, who "soundly rated" him, and, threatening imprisonment in the event of further dealings with the Confederates, dismissed him to such loss as his suddenly aborted transactions might involve. That the purpose of these vessels was fully known to the Emperor and his ministers, and their building connived at, admits of little doubt. Formal official authority to arm the ships had been duly furnished to the builders by the Minister of Marine, this functionary (M. Chasseloup-Laubat) writing under his official signature to M. Arman, under date of June 6, 1863, in reference to the corvettes, as follows:

"Je m'empresse de vous faire connaître . . . que je vous autorise volontiers à pourvoir d'un armement de douze à quatorze canons de trente les quatre bâtiments à vapeur, en bois et en fer, qui se construisent en ce moment à Bordeaux et à Nantes. Je vous prie de vouloir bien m'informer en temps utile de l'époque à laquelle ces navires seront prêts à prendre la mer, afin que je donne les instructions nécessaires à MM. les chefs du service de la Marine dans ces deux ports."

To this evidence may be added, as a bit of interesting history not generally known (or, indeed, known to Captain Bulloch, perhaps), the fact that the official records of the Richmond Government on this subject, including such papers as Mr. Slidell, their representative in France, had obtained from the imperial officials, were solemnly destroyed in the furnace of the Mint at Charlotte, North Carolina, on the retreat from Richmond of Mr. Davis and his Cabinet. And it was observed by such of these Confederate officials as were soon after captured and imprisoned, that one of the chief matters of inquiry directed to them by Mr. Seward was the French encouragement in the naval operations here referred to. It is said by Southerners in the confidence of these officials, that the reason for the detention of Mr. Mallory at Fort Lafayette (the last Confederate prisoner except Mr. Davis himself) was Mr. Seward's confident belief that he could produce these papers, which were then very much desired at the State Department in Washington, for use against the Emperor of the French in the matter of dislodging Maximilian from Mexico.

In construction Captain Bulloch's book is defective. The practice of following out each subject to its conclusion, without considering it in its relation to others, leads to much repetition, and, in consequence, to unnecessary length. But in discussing the events of the war, the work is conspicuously fair—there being, indeed, a somewhat over-punctiliousness at times in the effort to do justice—and it is uniformly interesting. The absence of an index seriously detracts from the usefulness of a book of this character for purposes of reference, but as a whole it constitutes a decidedly valuable contribution not only to naval history generally, but to the full history of the civil war.

RECENT AND FUTURE ARCTIC EXPLORATION.

The Voyage of the Jeannette. The Ship and Ice Journals of George W. De Long, etc. Edited by Emma De Long. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883. 2 vols. 8vo.

Loss of the Steamer Jeannette. Record of the Proceedings of a Court of Inquiry, etc. Washington. 1883. 8vo, pp. 363.

The New York *Herald*, 1879-1883.

THE wide publicity given by the daily press to the equipment, progress, and disastrous failure of the *Jeannette* expedition has made its chief features household words. Two publications emanating from survivors of the wreck have already been noticed in these columns. With catholic impartiality, the great journal to whose proprietor the expedition was due, has given place in its columns to every fact, statement, or opinion which offered any light on the subject. Quite recently the report of the board of inquiry into the circumstances of the loss of the vessel has been issued. Now the wife of the ill-fated commander has published selections from his journals, preceded by a biographical chapter, and supplemented by a condensed account of the search which followed the rescue of the survivors. A brief review of these two publications, with some consideration of the bearing of the expedition on Arctic exploration, is in order.

From a bookmaker's point of view, a criticism on the two volumes of Mrs. De Long, which presents itself at once, is their excessive weight. The matter might easily have appeared in one volume of comfortable size. The maps are wretchedly executed. With these reservations the dress of the work is attractive, and the illustrations worthy of the pains bestowed upon them. The notes on the early life of De Long, leading up, though with some noticeable gaps, to his selection for the expedition, are interesting, but in no way remarkable. His chief characteristic from the beginning seems to have been a dash and energy which refused to consider obstacles, whether admirals, cabinet ministers, or ice-floes. This does not appear to have been accompanied by unusual intellectual ability or studious disposition, though the style of the extracts from his journal is that of a man able and accustomed to express himself with clearness and propriety. The account of the cruise on the *Little Juniata* steam-launch in Baffin's Bay indicates better than any other single episode in the book his courage and ability as a naval officer; though it is absurd to regard it, as has been done, as in any sense a preparation for Arctic work. This ten days' cruise seems to have turned De Long's attention to Arctic matters. In 1873 he proposed to Mr. Bennett, then a stranger to him, to undertake an Arctic "expedition to the North Pole." This phrase seems to express tolerably well De Long's idea of Arctic exploration; at least, so far as the testimony of these records avails us, there is no more lucid statement of his aim and object. Personal acquaintance followed his application, and the *Jeannette* voyage was the ultimate though long-delayed result.

It is unnecessary to recount that history in detail. The party was selected by the commander, and its record bears testimony to his judgment of men. It would be invidious to particularize among the living, but none who have followed the story of the voyage can have failed to recognize the moral qualities and professional abilities of De Long's officers, particularly, perhaps, in the case of the surgeon of the expedition. If to these qualities had been added that experience in meeting the conditions of the Polar region which association with its native people in their primitive condition alone can effectually give, very different might have been the outcome. Or, without this experience, if the leader had had any grasp of the Arctic problems long awaiting solution, other than the primitive notion of discovering an imaginary point on the earth's surface, or registering additions to the Arctic shore lines, all this noble blood might not have congealed in vain. Perhaps it should not be said in any case that these men died in vain, for the moral lesson of patient, heroic endurance which they left us is beyond price. But, from any other point of view, it still remains true,

humanly speaking, that their lives were uselessly sacrificed. Perhaps the most touching figure in it all is that of the warm-hearted, hot-headed Collins, who, devoted to his favorite study, forsook the pleasant places of a metropolitan city, accepted a nominally menial station, and dared the well-known perils of the icy north, the discomforts of association with those who could not share his enthusiasm for a specialty; who, unaccustomed to routine, chafing under an unsympathetic discipline, saw the instruments of his research placed beyond his reach, his plans frustrated, and his endeavors made fruitless—in the end, denied even the poor privilege of aiding his comrades in their daily labor; his anticipations blasted; gnawed by famine; yet lying down uncomplainingly to die.

This we do not learn from Mrs. De Long's book, which has naturally taken the form of a eulogy rather than a history. The record of disagreeable things, as between the commander and his people, has been expunged, if it existed in his journal, and this it would be hard to censure. It is not here that one would be justified in looking for unbiassed criticism. Nevertheless the work unconsciously but effectively testifies to the defective preparation of the man for his task. After four months' experience he is forced to "believe that this ocean is subject to tidal action" (p. 204), and less egregious evidences of ignorance are not rare. Evidently to the tidal literature of the Polar Sea he had never given a thought, and supposed that an ocean could exist without a tide. It is to be hoped that better physics are now taught at Annapolis. It is also beyond question that De Long was hampered by the worst failing which can affect an explorer—namely, a want of adaptability. Great in his eyes was discipline, not as a means but as an end. He could not be conveniently blind on proper occasions, nor could he yield the execution of his orders, under rapidly changing circumstances, to anything less than the impregnable forces of nature. He did not know what it was to have a sliding scale of action or to meet nature half way. For this he is not to be blamed. It was his constitution, his education, his misfortune, but not his fault; and if it had been, he paid the forfeit like a man.

Of a different character is the report of the Court of Inquiry. In form, it is an ordinary public document, enriched with several maps, good, bad, and indifferent, of which only one, that of Nindemann, has anything more than an historical value. The Court was convened to "diligently and thoroughly investigate the circumstances of the loss" of the *Jeannette*, and of the death of De Long and others, and to inquire into "the general conduct and merits of each and all the officers and men of the expedition." Here, if anywhere, we might expect to find a plain unvarnished statement of all the facts attainable, from which to form a judgment as to the real causes of the failure of the expedition to produce tangible results or to save the lives of its members.

The first item, that of the loss of the ship, forms a safe subject of inquiry. No rational being could expect any vessel once fixed in such a moving pack to emerge unharmed. This is treated at great length. The circumstances of the search are fully recited, showing that everything possible was done by the survivors to succor their unfortunate comrades, and the most hypercritical could reach no ground for fault-finding in that particular. But it was noticed at the time by those interested, and is fully confirmed by the printed report, that great care was taken to suppress any testimony which seemed likely to lead in certain directions. The court really took the place of a coroner's inquest on the bodies of the dead. In one sense the responsibility of the commander for the death of his men was the chief question at issue; yet the testimony to the survivors, of one who did not survive, supposed to bear on this branch of the subject, was repeatedly excluded on the ground that it was "hearsay evidence." Whatever the truth might have been, this mode of proceeding shows no desire to get at it; and it does not seem unsignificant that the log-books, as well as the private journals of De Long and Collins, though "considered by the court," do not appear in the record, and have not, in an unmutilated state, been made accessible to the public anywhere. It may have been desirable that private squabbles, if any, should rest in their obscurity; but the way in which this result should have been reached was by frankly limiting the scope of the inquiry, and not by suppressing evidence on mere technicalities.

De Long, it may be hoped, was the last pole-seeker. That style of exploration among qualified experts is happily obsolete. Yet on those who most clearly see the folly of such headlong, unsystematic attempts is likely to be visited the public opprobrium they have excited. Rational investigation will doubtless be stifled for a time, because some rash spirits have parodied the duel of the bull and the locomotive. Nothing is more certain than that the investigation of the physics of the Polar area must be continued, and that it can only be properly carried on in a scientific spirit. Hitherto Arctic expeditions have been of two kinds: one scientifically planned and almost invariably fruitful in results, without loss of life; the other ministering to public notoriety or national vanity, expensive, pseudo-scientific, and not rarely disastrous. If a quietus has been given to the latter by the miseries witnessed on the Lena delta, those sufferings will not have been in vain.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

THE spirit of Plutarch is the one thing wanting in Rosalie Kaufman's adaptation called 'Our Young Folks' Plutarch' (Lippincott). The book has been thoroughly elaborated: there is no patchwork, no excerpting, about it. It is scholarly enough: other sources besides Plutarch have been drawn upon. The writer's style is unexceptionable in itself considered, without, however, being specially adapted to the youthful reader, so that occasionally it runs the risk of being unintelligible. But the flavor of the old Greek historian is all gone; and in spite of Miss Kaufman's desire to offer "lives, and not a history," she has failed in this very particular. She is not, we are forced to infer, a natural lover of biography; she is, we dare say, a very earnest historical student. To say this is to say that she is out of sympathy with her model. Still, let us recognize the difficulties of the task, and let us hasten to admit that children will find themselves interested in the present abstract, in happy ignorance that the personality of Plutarch himself has eluded them. Something more was their due, which could even now be supplied in a future table of contents—a simple statement of the periods at which the historical characters, at least, flourished. The omission of dates in the case of Cæsar, for example, leaves the child's perspective vague where it ought especially to be clear, considering all that has grown out of the conquest of Britain, to say no more. There are a few mediocre illustrations and several excellent classical maps in this handsomely printed volume.

A capital story-teller is the Rev. Lal Behari Day, whose 'Folk-Tales of Bengal' (Macmillan) is not ostensibly addressed to children, and was probably compiled as a serious contribution to the study of folk-lore. Like all Oriental fiction, however, with its astonishing fertility of invention and its endless surprises, these tales have an irresistible attraction for the young, and there is nothing in them—from bigamy to burying alive—which need keep them out of hands to which the 'Arabian Nights' is allowed. The grotesque outweighs the bloody; and neither are the few ghosts calculated to make children nervous or sleepless, nor even the anthropophagous Rakshashas, who are, after all, represented as a rather stupid kind of demon. There are twenty-two of these stories.

'Two Years at Hillsboro' (Lippincott), by Julia Nelson, is a very weak, trashy story of life at a girls' boarding-school, where the pupils were ill trained, the teachers underbred, and where impudence and audacity were at a premium. Indeed, the author seems really to admire effrontery in young girls. There is a great deal of most trivial chit-chat, unworthy of being written or printed, and the book in general has a hopeless lack of tone. It is needless to describe faults of style *per se* where the subject-matter is so objectionable.

It is a refreshing change to turn to Mr. Edward Eggleston's 'Hoosier Schoolboy' (Scribners), a serial from *St. Nicholas*. It would be hard to find a more vigorous and well-told story of schoolboy life. The whole book is instinct with manliness and right feeling. Jack, the hero, is a brave, intelligent, and resolute lad, whose unfolding character reveals all the germs of a noble manhood. With no love of fighting, he fights pluckily when occasion calls, yet never fails to estimate rightly the finer quality of moral courage. Perhaps he shows too mature decision for his years, but that one error may be forgiven to the idealism of the author. The accounts of the different games played by the Hoosier schoolboys are a marked feature of the book, and ought to furnish valuable hints for amusement to boy-readers unfamiliar with them, especially those fortunate ones who enjoy country freedom and space. The incidents of the story are admirably varied, and all full of interest. In short, the book is an eminently delightful one.

Mr. James Otis's 'Tim and Tip,' first published as a serial in *Harper's Young People*, is a very amusing and also pathetic little story, which must please all children, especially boys, between six and twelve years of age. Tim is an orphan who runs away from bad treatment; Tip, the homely but faithful dog so fondly cherished by his young master. There is nothing objectionable in the book, unless we except the bad grammar, which seems to be considered indispensable in portraying illiterate people, or the failure to emphasize the parental carelessness which permitted small boys to carry fire-arms and camp out for several days and nights without supervision.

A new volume of the second series of Mr. Scudder's "Bodley Books" tells of 'The Bodleys in England' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Some items of interest can be gleaned from it by patience and perseverance; and those cautious purchasers whose special aim is to avoid placing anything injurious before the eyes of youth will welcome its advent. But the boy or girl of spirit (from a literary point of view) will prefer instruction less diluted, entertainment more spicy. The style, meant to be easy, lapses occasionally into carelessness. The illustrations are fair.

'The Ball of the Vegetables, and Other Stories, in Prose and Verse' (Harper & Bros.), by Margaret Eytinge, is a collection of pieces which have already appeared in different juvenile magazines. They are bright, charming, and generally merry; some showing much wit and

ingenuity, others very kindly and delicate feeling. The wit, to be sure, as well as some of the finer touches, is sometimes over the heads of children, but this will not interfere with their enjoyment. There is but little to find fault with, though in this age of irreverence it seems superfluous ever to place old people before young eyes in a ridiculous light, even in a funny story —*vide* "Ned Morningstar's Locomotive." The book is rather more suitable for girls than for boys, and some of the stories will delight little readers and listeners in the nursery.

Italian Byways. By John Addington Symonds. Henry Holt & Co. 1 vol. 8vo.

THIS book is made up of sketches of minor Italian places, intermingled with essays on historical crimes of the sixteenth century, which have no connection whatever with its title, and, to our thinking, form one of its greatest blemishes. Not that they are poorly done, for Mr. Symonds is always a charming writer, and thoroughly conversant with the subjects he treats. But these repulsive crimes, which were common not only in Italy, but everywhere among the courts and feudal nobility of Europe in that age, make a jarring and discordant note among the artistic and poetic descriptions of the scenery of the Italy of to-day. As we have pointed out in other more serious works of Mr. Symonds, he seems prone to morbid delineations of lust and crime, even in the most inopportune times and places. Passing over these, we select as a specimen of his descriptive powers the following passage portraying the ill-fated island of Ischia:

"Casamicciola is a village on the north side of the island, in its centre, where the visitors to the mineral baths of Ischia chiefly congregate. One of its old-established inns is called La Piccola Sentinella. The first sight on entrance is an open gallery, with a pink wall on which bloom magnificent cactuses, sprays of thick-clustering scarlet and magenta flowers. This is a rambling house, built in successive stages against a hill, with terraces and verandas opening on unexpected gardens to the back and front. Beneath its long, irregular façade there spreads a wilderness of orange trees and honeysuckles and roses, verbenas, geraniums, and mignonette, snapdragons, gazenias, and stocks, exceeding bright and fragrant, with the green slopes of Monte Epomeo for a background and Vesuvius for far distance. There are wonderful bits of detail in this garden. One dark, thick-foliaged olive, I remember, leaning from the tufa over a lizard-haunted wall, feathered waist-high in huge acanthus leaves. The whole rich orchard ground of Casamicciola is dominated by Monte Epomeo, the extinct volcano which may be called the *raison d'être* of Ischia; for this island is nothing but a mountain lifted by the energy of fire from the sea basement. Its fantastic peaks and ridges, sulphur-colored, dusty-gray, and tawny, with brushwood in young leaf upon the cloven flanks, form a singular pendant to the austere but more artistically modelled limestone crags of Capri. No two islands that I know, within so short a space of sea, offer two pictures so different in style and quality of loveliness. . . .

"Evening is divine in Ischia. From the topmost garden terrace of the inn one looks across the sea toward Terracina, Gaeta, and those descending mountain buttresses, the Phlegræan plains, and the distant snows of the Abruzzi. Rain-washed and luminous, the sunset-sky held Hesper trembling in a solid green of beryl. Fireflies flashed among the orange blossoms. Far away in the obscurity of eastern twilight glared the smouldering cone of Vesuvius—a crimson blot upon the darkness—a Cyclop's eye, bloodshot and menacing.

"The company in the Piccola Sentinella, young and old, were decrepit, with an odd, rheumatic, shrivelled look upon them. The dining-room reminded me, as certain rooms are apt to do, of a ship's saloon. I felt as though I had got into the cabin of the *Flying Dutchman*, and that all these people had been sitting there to meat a hundred years, through storm and shine, forever driving onward over immense waves in an enchanted calm."

Mr. Symonds here grazes a peculiarity of the Italians, that, unlike other people who go to the spas for amusement under the pretext of health-seeking, they prefer resorts where sick people do not congregate. We recall the exclamation made by several members of a fashionable club in Naples when the natural beauties of Ischia were extolled: "Yes, it is an enchanting spot, but who wants to live in a hospital!"

The book abounds in word-painting of remarkable power, and the "Spring Wanderings," "May in Umbria," "A Venetian Medley," "The Gondolier's Wedding," and, above all, the "Winter Nights at Davos," are pages worthy of the author's scholarly and æsthetic reputation.

Moses Mendelssohn. Ungedrucktes und Unbekanntes von ihm und über ihn. Bearbeitet und herausgegeben von M. Kayserling. Leipzig. 1883.

THIS pamphlet forms a supplement to the author's 'Moses Mendelssohn: sein Leben und seine Werke . . . nebst einem Anhange ungedruckter Briefe, etc.,' which appeared about twenty years ago. It contains a number of letters written by the Jewish philosopher to friends and admirers—some of them translated from the original Hebrew—several letters addressed to him, and a few incidents in his life. As a supplement to a life and letters which reveal the character, the standing in German literature, and the peculiar religious attitude of the author of 'Phädon' and 'Jerusalem'—whom the more enlightened of his coreligionists called the third Moses, likening him to the son of Amram and the son of Maimun, while orthodox Jews decried him as a heretic, and Christian adorers saw in him a modern Socrates—this little collection is interesting enough, reflecting as it does, *in parvo*, the most salient and antithetical features of the man who was at once a bold philosophical thinker, a literary reformer, and a sincere Talmudist Jew. Readers unfamiliar with Mendelssohn's writings and his position between the school of Lessing and the synagogue, will find in these letters and other trifles nothing but incongruities, out of which no decently consistent character can be constructed. To them most of the contents will appear enigmatic or strangely odd. A part of the explanation, however, lies in the age, in which liberal thought pierced through all restraint, while the practice, in state and society, was still all but mediæval. Thus, as to ideas which we are inclined to look upon as outgrowths of agitations originating with the French Revolution, it is interesting to read the following remarks of Mendelssohn—in a letter written to Isaac Iselin in 1766—on a line of Beccaria's 'Dei delitti e delle pene,' borrowed from his French guide, Rousseau:

"A fugitive note of this writer has caused me no little astonishment. He alludes, in passing, to the right of property, and adds the following words in parenthesis: 'Droit terrible, et qui n'est peut-être pas nécessaire.' Strange! Have the sophistries of the great philosopher penetrated so far that one is ready to speak so contemptuously of the most beneficent right of human society? We pardon a genius for driving, in a mental revel, a paradoxical thesis through all its sequences, and declaring (in order to prove that the arts and sciences have done nothing for the good of mankind) that property and the entire social order are altogether unnecessary. But to adopt these conclusions confidently, and cite them in passing as fully established, in a work which is to teach man his rights and duties, shows, I think, no ordinary haste. He who does not know the wild theories which make a sensation in our day must regard the whole line as a misprint."

The following incident in the life of the Berlin philosopher illustrates the lingering mediævalism of those days. In August, 1876, Mendelssohn, in company with his wife and his friend Friedländer, visited Dresden. Early on the morning after their arrival, an employee of the Jewish congregation called upon them and collected twenty groschen toll money, which, as Jews, they were bound to pay into the treasury of the Saxon capital. Hastening to the pass-office, he delivered the toll, and entered the names of the travellers. "Mendelssohn," said the officer on duty; "methinks I have heard of this 'Mauschel.' Is he not a writer of books?" "And of what books!" exclaimed the Jew. "What does it matter?" replied the toll-gatherer; "a Jew is a Jew." Next day Mendelssohn visited the Electoral library, where the learned librarian Dassdorf was charmed to see him. Asked how he liked Dresden, the philosopher expressed his pleasure at much that he had seen in Saxony, but, after some hesitation, alluded to the strange equality established by the Electoral laws between travelling Berlin Jews and imported Polish cattle. Dassdorf heard of the toll affair with dismay, muttered some words of exculpation, and, as soon as his visitor left, rushed breathlessly to his friend Baron Ferber, a liberal Saxon statesman, and, like himself, an ardent admirer of Mendelssohn. Ferber lost no time in informing a member of the Saxon Cabinet of the affair, and next morning the College of Finances received an Electoral rescript ordering them to return the twenty groschen to "the Berlin scholar of Mosaic faith, Herr Moses Mendelssohn," and to inform him that he and his party could stay in Dresden as long as they liked, without paying for the permission.

Les États-Unis de Colombie; Précis d'histoire et de géographie physique, politique et commerciale. Par Ricardo S. Pereira, Secretaire de Légation de 1re classe, ex-Délégué du Gouvernement de Colombie au 3me Congrès Géographique International. Paris. 1883.

SEÑOR PEREIRA'S object in writing this book was twofold: to counteract prejudices propagated by light-minded travellers, chiefly French, against the young commonwealths of South America, politically and socially considered, and to offer "to geographers, travellers, and merchants" a connected tableau of each of the nine States of his native Republic. Most of the book is devoted to the latter object, and is executed with great care, symmetry, and neatness. The whole is divided into five parts, of which the first presents a brief history of Colombia. The second treats, in separate divisions, of its geographical position, orography, hydrography, climate, population, etc., and, in a supplement contributed by Dr. Gutierrez Ponce, of races, fauna and flora, and mineral resources. The third, embracing more than half of the entire work, sketches the nine States in alphabetical order—Antioquía, Bolívar, Boyacá, Cauca, Cundinamarca, Magdalena, Panamá, Santander, Tolima—each under the separate heads of "Name, formation, situation," etc., "General physiognomy," "Population," "History," "Social and political conditions," "Agriculture, industry, commerce," "Roads and means of transportation," "Natural curiosities," and "Administrative divisions," to which are added a map of the State, a dictionary of communes, and a table of populations in 1881. A general statistical résumé of the financial, commercial, and maritime relations of the Republic forms the fourth part. The fifth embraces alphabetical notices of celebrated Colombians, and a bibliography, historical and geographical. A handsome colored map of Colombia (and Ecuador) is prefixed to the title-page.

Señor Pereira does not enter into a direct refutation of false assertions concerning his country-

men in the wider or the narrower sense. He combats aspersions and prejudices mainly by the warmth with which he speaks of the great deeds of the South American struggle for independence, of the barbarities perpetrated by the Spaniards on the champions of freedom, and of the advances made by his country in the path of reform and material and moral improvement. His patriotic fervor and animated diction—in fluent and forcible, though here and there slightly unidiomatic, French—are indeed very pleasing and calculated to win favor, especially as he conceals none of the crimes which stain the careers of the greatest of his own heroes, and almost apologizes for justly branding the cruel misdeeds of the Spaniards, from the conquest down to the day of Ayacucho, which sealed the independence of South America. But his own narrative of post-revolutionary events in Bolívar's Republic of Colombia—which included Venezuela and Ecuador—in the centralized Republic of New Granada (1831-1861), and the present United States of Colombia, into which triumphant federalism in 1861 transformed New Granada, strongly controverts his patriotic optimism: an optimism in marked contrast to the tone in which that veteran South American statesman, Sarmiento, recently summed up the results of his lifelong experience (see the *Nation* of July 19).

The Liberator, Bolívar, himself barely escaping assassination in 1828; Padilla, "the Colombian Nelson," executed as a conspirator by his command; Córdova, the hero of Ayacucho, and Sucre, who commanded in that battle, successively assassinated in 1829; Venezuela, which he delivered, outlawing Bolívar in 1830—"comme s'il s'agissait d'un bandit"—what a shocking succession of crimes committed in the name of liberty! It is true, however, that in the following half-century New Granada (the present Colombia) had a smaller share of great political crimes and general revolutions—we ignore the State insurrections—than, perhaps, any other republic of Spanish America, excepting Chili; and that the great insurrection of 1876, in which 26,000 revolutionists and 43,000 Government troops faced each other, was an exception in the history of its civil wars. There is also some force in the author's boast that in the long series of presidents who have succeeded one another since 1831—elected for four years before 1861, and for two since then—two only, Obando in 1854, and Mosquera in 1867, have been deposed before the expiration of their terms, both because they aspired to the dictatorship; and that not one of all, whether placed in power by the Conservatives or by the Liberals, who have ruled the country since its transformation in 1861, enriched himself in the presidency.

The Book-Lover's Enchiridion. Thoughts on the Solace and Companionship of Books. Selected and chronologically arranged by Philobiblos. American edition, revised and enlarged. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1883.

THIS volume, which was well received on its first publication in England, is now better printed and temptingly bound for American buyers. It consists of quotations in the praise of books. The wisdom of Solomon naturally opens the series; but the ancient writings are soon exhausted, and by far the larger portion of the book is given up to the moderns, there being long extracts from addresses made at the opening of free libraries and on like occasions. What is most noticeable (and it is a comforting reflection) is the completeness with which the thought of these authorities, who are certainly the best, has passed into the region of commonplace—a fact that puts their style to a severe test. There is a characteristic gravity in the earlier extracts, and a practicality in the later ones; but the substantive unanimity of reflection and advice shows how thoroughly the subject has been worked out. Frequently, for example, the authors, both great and small, congratulate themselves on having the society of "the good and great of all ages" without being bored by it; one wonders why some of them did not rather say, "without intruding on it." The book appeals, however, to the specially educated taste of the reader of books; it will delight him with many familiar passages, with many that will pleasantly suggest his own experiences, and with some novelties, for instance in authors' names. The advice how to use books, as of course he has long got beyond tutelage, he will cordially agree with and soon skip, as his habit is—a compliment to which, if he be wise, he will also treat the poetry as a whole.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

An Ethical Symposium: Being a Series of Papers concerning Medical Ethics and Etiquette, from the Liberal Standpoint. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 25.
Brand, W. F. Life of William Rollinson Whittingham, Fourth Bishop of Maryland. In 2 vols. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Emerson, R. W. Letters and Social Aims.—Society and Solitude. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 75 each.
Freligrath-Kroeker, Kate. Alice Through the Looking-Glass, and Other Plays for Children. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Jones, L. A. A Treatise on the Law of Pledges, including Collateral Securities. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6 50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 8, 1883.

The Week.

VIEWED from a non-partisan and patriotic point of view, the general results of Tuesday's elections are satisfactory and encouraging. They show on the part of the people no strong drift in favor of either of the great parties, but rather a disposition to vote for the one which is most worthy of support. In this State the verdict is unmistakable. The Democratic majority of 190,000 last year has almost totally disappeared. While the Democrats have been able to save all of their State ticket except its head, they have lost the Legislature and the United States Senator, and have lost all the moral effect of their phenomenal success a year ago. This will be for them as a national party the most serious reverse of the year. It will obliterate completely the effects of the Ohio victory, and deprive them of nearly if not quite all of the advantage over the Republicans with which they expected to enter upon the Presidential campaign. They tried the experiment of carrying the State upon a platform which was silent on the tariff and all national issues, and which was emphatic upon nothing save the necessity of turning the rascals out. They made their campaign mainly upon the issue of putting the Democratic party, including rascals, into office, and they are now able to estimate pretty accurately the value of that issue as a rallying cry for next year. With a Republican ticket against them which excited no popular interest, and in support of which no systematic canvass was made, they have come so near to defeat that they have no better chance of carrying the State in 1884 than the Republicans have.

Outside of New York, Tuesday's results are equally gratifying. In Massachusetts General Butler has been practically driven from political life, and in him the most forbidding personage in American politics disappears. In Pennsylvania it has been shown that the Republican dissensions are sufficiently healed to give the party easy control of the State again. The experiment of reform with a Democratic Governor has not been satisfactory—not so much through lack of disposition on Mr. Pattison's part, as through his inability to resist the desires and tendencies of his own party. The Virginia contest has ended in Mahone's defeat, and he disappears from politics with Butler. His influence in Southern affairs has been almost wholly bad. He, more than any other man, is responsible for the demoralization of Virginia upon questions of financial honor, and although he may have had some influence in securing for the negroes their rights as voters, he has alienated Northern sympathy from all anti Bourbon movements in the South by contaminating them with repudiation principles. His defeat frees the Administration of one of its most unnecessary and damaging alliances.

Little significance attaches to the elections in other States. New Jersey is Democratic by about the usual majority, and so far as Mr. Abbett's success has any meaning it is that the Democrats there have chosen him because he represents what they like best. He was nominated and made his canvass as an open opponent of civil-service reform, and will take office pledged to Mr. Thurman's policy of "taking the boys in out of the cold and warming their toes." In Minnesota the Republicans have elected their candidates by the customary majority, and in the minor elections in other States there are said to be slight Republican gains. Taken together, the elections in October and November cannot be interpreted by either party as a promise of success next year. They do show that the independent vote is held aloof from the Democrats, and that some other issue than "the Republican party must go" will have to be found in order to attract it. Dodging on the tariff, silver coinage, and other important questions has been tried and has been found wanting, as every rational person knew it would be. The temperance issue, which hurt the Republicans so badly in Ohio, was found equally disastrous for the Democrats in New York, and both parties can be depended upon to avoid it as far as possible hereafter. There is no controlling national issue in sight now for next year, but the Democratic Congress may evolve one, and it may possibly be the one which the Democrats have hitherto been trying most carefully to avoid—namely, the tariff.

General Sherman retired on Thursday from active service, after a career which all his brethren in arms may well envy him. He has won a high place among the half-dozen great soldiers of his time. There has been a great deal of depreciatory criticism of the work done by all the other Union generals in the late rebellion, but we believe no critic has ever denied that Sherman was one of the great masters of his art. It is, of course, in Europe that most attention is paid to military topics, because it is there that the largest armies are to be found and most fighting to be done. Nearly all the great military critics, therefore, in our time are European soldiers, and the sympathies of the European military class were almost wholly with the Confederates during the late struggle. Consequently General Lee has, in nearly all the critiques on the operations of the civil war, been put at the head of American generals, by a most laborious and not very ingenuous process, however, in which very little account was made of the defensive facilities afforded him by the nature of the country, which were such as no European soldier had ever seen or dreamed of. To the Union generals, on the other hand, no credit has been given in this quarter which could possibly be withheld. Every presumption has been made to tell against them. General Sherman is the one man among them who has triumphed over this hostility. No critic or commentator has ventured to deny him the marks of genius, or to say that his march through Georgia, and the triumphant sweep Northward afterward, did not put him in the small class of great commanders, and make him one of the historic thunderbolts of war. His military services do not, however, constitute his only claim on the gratitude of his countrymen. They are indebted to him still further for never having allowed his simple and honest soldier's head to be confused by the fumes of flattery or the *ignis fatuus* of politics. He therefore is followed into his retirement by praise and good wishes, in which there is not one particle of alloy.

General Sherman, on retiring, makes some very sensible suggestions about the organization and discipline of the army, of which perhaps the most useful is, that soldiers who are employed in non-military work should be paid the current wages of the particular labor to which they are ordered in the locality in which they perform it. We believe nothing produces more discontent and desertion than the exaction of all sorts of civil labor from men who enlisted without the expectation of anything but soldiering. In fact, it is in order to escape from hard manual labor that a great many young men enlist. They would have no difficulty in getting employment in any kind of work of which they are found capable in the army, without entering the army at all, at the ordinary rate of wages. When, therefore, they find themselves forced into it for a soldier's pay, under the yoke of military discipline, they naturally grumble and run away. Labor of some kind is good for them as for all men. They ought to have it, and be made to do it at every post, but they ought to be paid for it and paid well. If the officers, too, had more to do, there would be fewer military scandals, less drunkenness, gambling, and defalcation.

The Director of the Mint renews his recommendation that the coinage of silver dollars under the two-millions-per-month law be discontinued. He enforces his opinions by the statement that there are now $39,000,000 of these coins in the Treasury over and above the outstanding silver certificates. If we regard the silver reserve in the Treasury as a fund to protect the corresponding paper circulation, nobody can say that it is desirable to keep on hand more metal than the outstanding paper calls for. If, on the other hand, it is the object of the silver coinage to provide all the silver dollars that the people will take and use for any and all purposes, either as coin or paper, then the object has been more than accomplished. The continued operation of the law, as the Director points out, is to take two millions of gold out of the Treasury every month in order to put two millions of silver in its place. The gold so displaced goes to satisfy the greed of the Rothschilds and other pampered aristocrats of the Old World, who will of course do nothing to remonetize silver as long as we are buying

twenty-four millions per annum, and thus sustaining the price of the rupee in the Indian exchanges.

The recommendations of the Chamber of Commerce Stock-Watering Committee are much more moderate than most people probably expected that they would be. The report is satisfactory as showing that we have reached a stage in the discussion of stock-watering at which those who have taken it up are no longer content with vague and empty denunciation of the practice, but feel that this denunciation, of which we have had an abundance, must now be supplemented by practical suggestions as to a remedy. The Committee's first recommendation is that stock-waterings "similar" to the Manhattan Elevated Railway issue of $13,000,000 should be made a penal offence. Everybody would be glad if this could be done, but this is a special case, differing in many respects from the problem presented by ordinary waterings. They also insist that the public welfare calls for some kind of Government supervision and control, and that "ordinary differences" arising between railroads and their customers should be decided summarily by a Government board, so as to avoid the tedious and expensive delays of a lawsuit. There is great force in these recommendations. The most important suggestion made by the Committee, however, is that the capitalization of "surplus" earnings should be prohibited by law, and that all "increase of capital, either by stock or bonded issues, should be defined by strict legal formulas, easily understood and only permitted for good and sufficient public reasons, and not because it can be shown that a corporation can be made to pay a fair dividend on an increased capital," and that the rate of cash dividends should be determined according to the necessarily varying conditions of each particular case, and not by any fixed rule. The chief objection to the latter suggestion is that it would apparently leave the rate to be fixed by a very dangerous sort of special legislation, which would offer from time to time a tempting opportunity for bribery and corruption of all sorts in the Legislature. This objection does not apply to the prohibition of the capitalization of surplus earnings, but here the Committee will find, when they come to put their idea in a legislative form, that they will have to distinguish pretty carefully one kind of capitalization from another. Wicked as it may be to make a high rate of profits look like a low rate by means of "water," the use of profits by a railroad to extend its lines, to buy additional rolling-stock as its business increases, to put up new stations, and so on, is clearly a necessity of the case, and this is capitalization of surplus profits in the true sense of the words. If this can be discriminated successfully by law from the kind of capitalization the Committee evidently have in mind, so much the better; until their scheme of legislation is brought forward, we can hardly say how far it is possible. It must be remembered that the statutes of this State, and probably most others, now positively forbid the issue of stock representing anything but money actually invested or plant; but that the Western Union corporation has successfully triumphed over the obstacles presented by these is pretty generally conceded.

On one point we must emphatically differ from the Committee, and that is as to the cause of the distrust of American securities in foreign markets. They speak of this being attributed to "Yankee tricks" in such a way as to create the impression that it is "water" the foreigners are so afraid of. But it is not. The Yankee tricks of which they complain abroad are the tricks practised by directors in corporate management in their own interest, and at the expense of the stockholders—tricks by which they get possession of roads they are managing as trustees, by which they make contracts with themselves, and "freeze out" the stockholders who, living at a distance, are not in the "ring." The Committee does not produce any evidence to show that it is the dread of "water" which is now keeping the foreign investor out of Wall Street, and we may confidently say that none exists. As a matter of fact, if the practice of stock-watering really enabled directors, as the denouncers of it would sometimes have us believe, to pay two dividends where there was only one before, the demand for American securities abroad would be such as the world has never yet dreamed of.

The testimony collected by the Government for the purpose of bringing civil suits against the Star-route contractors is said to have been placed in the Attorney-General's hands. It is also said that there is very little chance of the Government's getting a verdict, because the suits will have to be brought where the defendants reside, that is, in the Star-route country. In that region, owing to the lavish way in which they have provided the inhabitants with mail "facilities," they have won a firm hold on the affections of the people, much as Tweed in this city endeared himself to a constituency which he was robbing with one hand, by distributing liberal supplies of coal with the other. It is hardly probable that a jury can be found in the Star-route districts which would give the Government a verdict. Under these circumstances, says one correspondent, there are only two reasons for thinking that the Government ought to bring the suits, first, because the statute is "mandatory," and second, because the "moral effect" will be good. What statute it is which compels the Attorney-General to bring suits which there is no chance of his winning, we do not know, any more than we can understand how the cause of morality would be advanced by any more Star-route failures. We very much fear that the only effect would be to confirm a very large number of people in the impression that the chief value of Star-route trials is the comfortable livelihood they afford to "counsel."

There is every day more and more reason to fear that the reduction in the price of the morning papers, unaccompanied by the condensation which has been hitherto the characteristic of the best cheap newspapers, is likely to prove a positive calamity for the community. In other words, the kind of news which some papers evidently suppose to be required by the two-cent public, produced with four-cent prolixity, seems likely to put decent householders who need a cheap daily morning paper, in a position of great perplexity. The old four-cent papers used to be made up on the theory that the four-cent public wished to be spared the nauseous details of crime and vice, but there is a marked tendency, since the two-cent movement began, not to mind what the four-cent people think on these matters, but boldly, for the benefit of the new two-cent public, to make the very most of all the murder, adultery, and lubricity of every description there is going. The murder of an adulterer, for instance, is treated as if it were an inexhaustible topic, for which a column or so a day is not a bit too much, and the case of a woman who disguises herself as a man, and then contracts a fraudulent marriage, becomes a perfect nugget around which a salacious reporter's fancy is allowed to play *ad libitum*. Instructions are said to have been once given by a two-cent editor to his contributors, to write no longer as if they were walking down Fifth Avenue, but as if they were walking down the Bowery; which may be good advice enough, if regarded simply as a direction to be popular and discourse of popular themes, but which in some cases seems to have been taken as a direction to write as if walking down the Bowery on the way to Billy McGlory's dancing saloon.

The Syracuse *Herald* has discovered a novel way of meeting, if not silencing, libellous attacks. It has been very much annoyed by a series of articles with regard to blackmailing, blackmailers, and blackmailing newspaper practices, which have appeared in the Syracuse *Journal*, and which, for some unexplained reason, it takes as reflecting on its own journalistic career. We say unexplained, for the casual reader meeting with such statements as these—a "blackmailing policy soon plays itself out in all cases. The lack of new victims to replenish a low treasury, and the arousal of a public sentiment that reprobates and frowns upon the blackmailer, leads to his sure downfall"—would merely say, "How true that is! How often have I said so myself!" but in Syracuse it appears that when any one comes across such a paragraph he smiles and says: "Aha! That hits the *Herald* pretty hard"—a state of public feeling which, of course, is very injurious to that newspaper. The *Herald* accordingly publishes a long letter addressed to Mr. Carroll E. Smith, whom it holds responsible for these publications. It tells him that he has passed "all the bounds of reputable journalism" (a charge which might or might not wound Mr. Smith), and also that if his blackmail paragraphs are intended to reflect on the *Herald*, he is a liar. It gives him the choice between several distinct varieties of the lie direct, and then tells him that he must now either confess expressly, or by "ignominious silence under the lash," that he is a liar, or else must "proceed against the *Herald* company for defamation of

character." Future proceedings in this case will be watched with interest. The old idea was that it was the libelled person who had to bring an action to clear his character. If he can compel his accuser to bring a suit to show that the libel is not false by simply calling him a liar, the tables are very neatly turned.

The complaint which is heard from all religious quarters now, that people are not going to church so generally as they ought, took a new form at a meeting of Baptist clergymen on Monday. One of them said it was a mistake to set down Brooklyn as a church-going community. He had investigated and had discovered that the proportion of church-goers to the population was not increasing in the same ratio as the growth of the city, and he was convinced that the young men especially were staying away from the churches more generally each year. Various explanations were given for this backsliding on the part of the young men, but the reason which appears to have received the most consideration was that given by Mr. Hutchings, that the "young people were allowed to spend too much time in courting." He had asked a deacon once why his son was not at church, and had been told that he "had gone to see a young lady." He had asked another deacon where his daughter was, and had been told that she was "waiting at home for a young man." No united action was taken to break up this abuse of courting, the reform being looked upon evidently as too serious a one to be undertaken without the fullest deliberation. If it is undertaken, we venture the prediction that the result will be a social convulsion which will shake Brooklyn to its foundations. The young people will not submit without a desperate struggle.

The failure of Ranger, the great Liverpool cotton speculator, whose operations have for three or four years back converted the market in that city into a huge gambling house, will probably produce profound quiet in cotton circles for a year or two to come. He has perhaps reached a higher eminence than any of the produce "Kings" in this country. Even our Lard King never was important enough to have special telegraphic codes concocted for the use of those who were watching his movements. Moreover, Ranger's corner in 1881 is now said to have been such a large and complicated operation as nearly to drive him insane. Corners here sometimes drive people to madness; but it is the people who are cornered. We believe we have never had a corner which was so difficult to "handle" as to overthrow the reason of the cornerer. Ranger has gone the way of all the great gamblers of recent times, except Jay Gould, who is the only one apparently thus far who has known when to stop; but even with regard to him we have to bear in mind Solon's advice, to call no man happy until his death. Ranger's career will furnish the legislative Committee on Corners and Futures with a useful illustration of the folly of trying to stop speculative operations by the law of the land. The laws of human nature are all that such cases call for. They inflict the most tremendous punishment on the great speculators, free of expense to the country, by simply making them too restless to stop, and making their incessant activity ruin their judgment.

We fear it will be impossible for the Irish Nationalists to get the English public to believe that they have had nothing to do with the explosion in the Underground Railroad in London. It will be useless for them to ask people what good it would do them to blow up the innocent passengers in a train. They have been for the last three or four years declaring openly that their great object is to make Englishmen so uncomfortable in the possession of Ireland that they will let her go for the sake of peace and quiet. A good deal of their action in the House of Commons has had this and nothing else in view. The explosion at Whitehall some months ago had this in view. People will conclude that the late explosion had it in view also, if for no other reason than that it has caused the greatest alarm and anxiety, and has helped still further to give a kind of social terror to the Irish question. It is not at all improbable that it is an answer to the very foolish and impolitic talk in which a good many Englishmen, even Liberals who ought to know better, have been indulging during the past year—that the measure of quiet which Ireland now enjoys is due to the Coercion Act. Of course this is exasperating to the Irish, and besides being exasperating it is unnecessary. It illustrates very well that deficiency of "amiability" in Englishmen to which Mr. Matthew Arnold the other night ascribed much of the Irish trouble. Simultaneously with the Coercion Act, two great measures of relief and conciliation were passed. One was the Land Act; the other the Arrears Act. That they have done far more than coercion to produce the comparative tranquillity which reigns in Ireland, no supporter of the policy of the land legislation can question without stultifying himself. With a little more amiability, English Liberal politicians at all events would have taken pains to ascribe the pacification to the healing measures, and, whatever they may have thought, would have kept the coercive agencies in the background. Nothing seems easier and simpler than, in talking about Ireland, to say that the people were more peaceable because they were more secure in their holdings and more certain of the rewards of their own industry. But so ingrained is the English preference for the rule of power to the rule of love, that in nine out of ten public references to the condition of Ireland much is made of the working of the Crimes Act, little or nothing of the working of the Land Act.

If it be true that the Hovas purpose to negotiate with the French, it is a piece of good luck of which the Ferry Ministry are sorely in need. It is not as good news as the news that the Chinese were ready to settle the Tonquin trouble would be, but it makes some improvement in the present situation. The Ministry have openly quarrelled with the Radicals, led by Clémenceau. M. Ferry, in fact, declared war against them in a speech at Havre the other day, and they, on the other hand, are quite ready for the fray. If they should succeed in overthrowing him it is hard to see what could keep them out of power, and their getting into power, it is now generally conceded, would soon lead to the reëstablishment of the monarchy. Things have got so bad under the Republican administration that the property-holders would hardly submit to another step in the same direction. How to get out of the Tonquin trouble without discredit is now the great problem before the Ministry. There would be, of course, no magic in monarchy now any more than thirty years ago, but it would be a change, and a change of any sort always seems desirable to people who are suffering and do not know what is the matter with them. M. Challemel-Lacour has got out of the mess by resigning, on the ground that "a foreign Power" is egging on the Chinese to resist.

A newspaper war has broken out in Paris between *Galignani's Messenger* and the *Morning News*, which bears all the marks of a struggle quite as "internecine" as any that have raged on this side of the Atlantic. The *News* is a cheap paper, lately established as a rival of *Galignani* (which has hitherto enjoyed a monopoly of the Anglo-Saxon circulation of the French capital), and it is pushing itself vigorously. It is what we should call a very "live" newspaper, and has brought on the conflict by attacking *Galignani* in the most vital part — publishing a letter showing the comparative number of copies of each sold at certain stands in Paris, and boldly asserting that "the sale of the *Morning News* is six times larger than that of *Galignani's Messenger*." Instead of replying to this in a business-like way by offering to give $5,000 to some popular charity if the *News* could prove the fact to be so, the managers of *Galignani*, who are hot-headed Europeans, immediately began a suit against the editor of the rival sheet, on the ground that while he had a right to puff his own wares, he could not do so "by using the name of a competitor, without overstepping the rules of permissible competition." Therefore they demand damages to the extent of $4,000, and that the *News* shall be forbidden to use the name of *Galignani's Messenger* under penalty of a heavy fine. The *News* affects to treat this as a capital joke, yet not as good as the attempt to palm off *Galignani* as a "newspaper."

The younger journal is now in trouble again, for in its character of a "bright, newsy little sheet" it sent an interviewer to M. Clémenceau, who, when that gentleman refused to see him, calmly composed a fictitious interview. This M. Clémenceau has resented by asking for the insertion of a letter pronouncing the report fraudulent, to which by the French law he is entitled. His demand has been refused, and the newsy little sheet is again in court for this. In fact, without some important changes in the French law it will not be possible to carry on a really "live newspaper" in Paris. Not only is the law which protects private life from the reporter and interviewer very stringent, but the courts take a very narrow view of the journalist's functions.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, October 31, to TUESDAY, November 6, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ELECTIONS were held in ten States on Tuesday. Incomplete returns make the following results probable: In New York State, Carr, the Republican candidate for Secretary of State, was elected by about 16,000 majority, over Maynard, the Democratic candidate, who fell many thousand votes behind his ticket on account of his prohibition record. The rest of the Democratic State candidates — Comptroller, State Treasurer, Attorney-General, and Engineer—were elected. It is also probable that the Republicans have carried both branches of the Legislature, the Senate containing 20 Republicans and 12 Democrats, and the House 74 Republicans and 54 Democrats, or a majority of 28 on joint ballot. In New York city the Democratic majority was reduced. On the State ticket, without Maynard, the Democratic majority was 39,000. The next Board of Aldermen will consist of 8 Republicans and 16 Democrats of various shades of opinion. It is probable that John Reilly, the united Democratic candidate for Register, was elected by a plurality over Hess (Rep.) of 15,000. The Democratic judiciary ticket was elected by about 40,000. Nine Republican and fifteen assorted Democratic Assemblymen were elected. The Democrats elect six out of seven State Senators. In Brooklyn, Mayor Low (Ind. and Rep.) is reëlected by 1,840 over Hendrix, Democratic.

In Massachusetts Butler was overwhelmed by Robinson's (Rep.) majority of from 15,000 to 20,000. The entire Republican State ticket receives a similar majority. There are many gains for the same party in the Legislature.

Pennsylvania has fallen back into the Republican ranks with a safe majority of 15,000 for State Treasurer and Auditor-General. The entire Republican city ticket was elected in Philadelphia.

Returns from Virginia are very incomplete, but there are indications of a defeat for Mahone's party on the total vote. His organ gives up the Legislature. His life was endangered during an election row at Fredericksburg.

The result in Connecticut shows large Republican gains in both branches of the Legislature, and the probable election of all the eight Sheriffs voted for. The Democrats were completely routed in their strongholds, Hartford and New Haven.

Mississippi carried both branches of the Legislature for the Democrats. One man was killed in a political quarrel, and the Governor has ordered out the troops to prevent further trouble.

Leon Abbett, Democrat, is elected Governor of New Jersey by about 5,000 majority. The Senate will be Republican and the House Democratic.

Maryland elected Robert M. McLane, a Democrat, Governor, over Hart Benton Holton, the Republican candidate. The Democratic candidates for Comptroller and Attorney-General were also elected.

Nebraska Republicans elected their Justice of the Supreme Court and four Regents of the State University by from 10,000 to 15,000 majority, large Republican gains having been made everywhere.

Minnesota returns show that Governor Hubbard (Rep.) was probably reëlected by a reduced majority. Two years ago his majority was 28,000.

Virginia was excited over a race conflict that took place at Danville on Saturday. Its origin is not perfectly clear, but some alleged insolence on the part of a negro caused a disturbance, and firing at once began on both sides. The firing drew crowds to the scene, and the Mayor at once ordered out the military. The negroes retired to the black quarter of the town before the soldiers arrived. The whole city was roused by the fight. One company of military at once cleared the streets, and something like order was restored. At 11 o'clock P. M. a platoon of soldiers was fired upon by negroes ambuscaded in a house, but without fatal effect. The house was surrounded and one negro was captured. The soldiers were later fired upon by the negroes in different parts of the city. Some six or seven negroes were killed, and two or three white men were wounded. The trouble is charged by the Bourbons indirectly to Mahone's influence.

In a recent political speech in Maryland Fred Douglass said: "The Democratic party has been the life-long, inflexible, persistent enemy of every act of justice proposed for the colored people. The Republicans, on the other hand, have been the active and aggressive advocates of every measure which has thus far contributed to our freedom and progress. We should all vote the Republican ticket till we get something better."

A mass meeting of negroes held at Keokuk, Iowa, on Wednesday night, resolved to ask the next Legislature of Iowa to adopt the section of the Civil-Rights Bill which has been decided to be unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States. A similar meeting was held in Memphis, Tenn., on Friday night.

Governor Cleveland on Friday admitted having written a letter, which had been published, to Mr. John Kelly, expressing a desire that Senator Grady be not renominated, as that gentleman had neglected no opportunity to cripple the Governor's administration.

A large mass meeting of Republicans was held in Cooper Union, in this city, on Saturday evening. Ex-Governor Cornell, William M. Evarts, and Chauncey M. Depew were the speakers.

A number of influential Germans, including representatives of the brewing interest, met in Rochester last week and passed resolutions to support the Democratic State ticket with the exception of Isaac H. Maynard, the candidate for Secretary of State, who was accused of being a Prohibitionist.

The contest for the minor offices in the House of Representatives has already begun in Washington. The candidates for Sergeant-at-Arms and Doorkeeper spend much time there.

The transfer of the command of the armies of the United States from General Sherman to Lieutenant General Sheridan was made on Thursday, at noon, in Washington, without ceremony, except that the staff officers were present in full dress uniform. General orders were issued to the army announcing the change.

The last annual report of General Sherman has been submitted to the Secretary of War. In it he asserts that the Indian problem has been substantially eliminated from the problem of the army. This result has been brought about by immigration, railway construction, and the army. General Sherman also submits a plan for reorganizing the army, which would admit of its increase without disorder or confusion to 40,000 men, and afterward the force could be doubled without the addition of a single officer.

Secretary Lincoln is not satisfied with Lieutenant Garlington's explanation of his conduct of the Greely relief expedition, and has asked for further information. The Secretary says, in a letter to Chief Signal Officer Hazen on the subject: "It appears to me that Lieutenant Garlington's supplementary reports only make an understanding of his failure to remain at or near Littleton Island after the loss of the *Proteus* more difficult than before." The Secretary has recommended to the President that a Court of Inquiry be appointed.

The annual report of the Paymaster-General to the Secretary of War shows that the receipts for the last fiscal year amounted to $15,490,310, and the disbursements to $13,382,164.

The annual report of W. W. Upton, Second Comptroller of the Treasury, has been submitted to Secretary Folger. It shows that during the last fiscal year 28,516 accounts and claims were settled, involving an expenditure of $99,462,600. Judge Upton devotes considerable space to the inadequate clerical force now allowed his office, and gives figures to show that work is fast accumulating, with no prospect of speedy adjustment.

The public debt of the United States was reduced during the month of October, $10,304,798 83.

Hereafter pension agents will not be suspended from practice before the Interior Department when prima-facie cases of irregularity have been submitted to the Commissioner of Pensions, except for special reasons communicated to the Secretary of the Interior.

The Secretary of State, Mr. Frelinghuysen, has written a letter to a number of Irish citizens of Chicago, in regard to Peter Carey's assassin, in which he says: "In the event of its being ascertained that Patrick O'Donnell is an American citizen, he will receive from the Executive Department of this Government all the protection to which he is entitled. It is not within the province of this Department to ask a modification of the ruling of the court in a particular pending case." He adds that if the English court should need an assurance of the high standing of the counsel from this country, the American Minister will be instructed to give an assurance of their standing.

The Board of Directors of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company held a meeting on Thursday afternoon in Philadelphia, and agreed upon a semi-annual dividend of 4½ per cent. cash, of which stockholders have the privilege of taking 2 per cent. in stock at par.

A Commission in favor of the Hennepin Canal scheme met in Chicago on Thursday.

Heavy gales along the coast and on the Lakes during the week have done much damage to shipping.

About 2 o'clock on Monday afternoon Springfield, Mo., was visited by a tornado. The path of the storm was only a few yards wide, but it destroyed everything that it passed over. Thirty buildings were destroyed and about 200 others damaged. It is believed that seven persons were killed and many were injured. The loss of property is about $250,000. The neighboring town of Brookline was also visited. The path of the tornado there was about 300 yards wide. Thirty small houses were blown down and a number of people injured. Farm-houses in the neighborhood of Republic were also destroyed.

A fire which had its origin on Wednesday noon in the large cotton warehouse of Garnett, Stubbs & Co., in Savannah, Ga., destroyed the warehouse, containing 3,000 bales of cotton, 300 houses, covering an area half a mile square, and caused a loss of nine lives. Careful estimate fixes the losses at nearly $1,000,000 and the insurance at not half that amount.

The bi-centennial of the formation of Staten Island into Richmond County was celebrated on Thursday amid great enthusiasm.

The Sophomore and the greater part of the Freshman Class at the Troy (N. Y.) Polytechnic Institute were suspended on Friday for engaging in a fight over a class flag on the top of the college building, and destroying about $300 worth of property.

After many delays the action for libel by Gaston L. Feuardent against Louis P. Di Cesnola was called up for trial on Wednesday before Judge Shipman and a jury, in the United States Circuit Court in this city. The plaintiff in 1879 asserted that certain objects in the Metropolitan Museum of Art in this city had been tampered with, the design being to

deceive the public as to their genuineness and value. These charges the defendant declared through the press to be malicious and absolutely false. This statement the plaintiff claims is grossly libellous. Testimony in the case has been offered during the week.

Arthur B. Johnson, a well-known Stalwart politician and friend of ex-Senator Conkling, committed suicide in his office at Utica during the early hours of Saturday morning. He was an uncle of J. L. Lynch, who was killed at Batavia, N. Y., on Wednesday night by a husband he had wronged. This event, together with a social scandal connected with his own name, wrought upon his mind, which has been unsettled of late, and led to the deed. He was fifty-five years of age. He was a member of a prominent and influential family.

FOREIGN.

The explosions in the underground railways in London caused great excitement, and led to a careful investigation. It is said that the London police warned the railway officials three months ago that they had received advices from America threatening such explosions. The Irish in London think that the outrages were planned by enemies of the National party of Ireland, who intend to create an anti-Irish feeling in England. It is believed that nitro-glycerine was the explosive used. The British Government has offered $2,500 reward for information leading to the conviction of the criminals. The railway companies have offered an equal amount.

Considerable excitement was caused in London on Friday evening by the announcement in a newspaper extra that the authorities had been anonymously informed that an attempt would be made to destroy the train on which the Duke and Duchess of Connaught were to travel from London to Dover on their way to India. Elaborate precautions were taken by the railway authorities and police. The journey was accomplished by the royal party without incident.

A procession of Irish Nationalists was fired upon by Orangemen in Londonderry on Thursday. A man and a boy were wounded. The police and soldiers cleared the streets of the mob. On Saturday a parade of Irish women was stoned in the streets of the same city. They fought the mob desperately.

Michael Davitt, in a lecture recently delivered in London, advocated the nationalization of land, and denounced the course of Lord Salisbury and Sir Stafford Northcote in stirring up discord in Ireland.

In a recent address Lord Hartington, British Secretary of War, said that he thought that Mr. Gladstone, in his coming speech at the installation of the Lord Mayor of London, would be able to say that the peace of Europe was assured, and that the difficulties of England with France were settled, although a state of things might arise with China which would require all of England's friendship and forbearance to prevent serious complications resulting therefrom.

The London *Pall Mall Gazette*, on Tuesday, said it was probable that the British Government would introduce at the next session of Parliament a Household Suffrage bill, which should apply to both town and country in all parts of Great Britain and Ireland alike. A bill for the redistribution of seats in the House of Commons will probably follow the above measure.

Lord Lorne and the Princess Louise arrived in Liverpool on Monday, and were received with enthusiasm.

Lord Coleridge arrived at Liverpool from New York on Monday after a pleasant voyage.

Two more firms of cotton brokers suspended in Liverpool on Wednesday, and the excitement in the cotton trade continued to be great. It was reported that the liabilities of Morris Ranger were £750,000. His failure is attributed to reckless speculation. There was an easier feeling in the Liverpool market on Thursday afternoon. Another failure was announced on Friday.

The International Fisheries Exhibition was brought to a close in London on Wednesday. The Chairman of the Executive Committee read a report showing the complete success of the Exhibition. The Prince of Wales made a very complimentary reply.

Mr. Moody successfully opened his great mission at Islington, London, on Sunday. More than 4,000 persons were present at each of the four services.

The steamer *Holyhead*, from Dublin, came in collision with the German ship *Alhambra* when twenty-five miles off Holyhead on the night of October 30. Both vessels soon after went down. The boats of the *Holyhead* saved all on board but two of the crew. There were sixty passengers on board. Fifteen of the crew of the *Alhambra* were drowned; twelve were saved.

M. Challemel-Lacour, French Minister of Foreign Affairs, will, it was reported on Friday, soon resign his portfolio, because, it is alleged, he has publicly intimated that England has been urging China to resist France. Prime Minister Ferry will take charge of his portfolio, and M. Paul Bert will take the Ministry of Public Instruction, in place of M. Ferry. Another report is that M. Challemel-Lacour only goes to Cannes for the benefit of his health, and will resume his portfolio on his return.

An order of the day expressing confidence in the firmness and prudence of the Government was adopted by a vote of 339 to 160 in the French Chamber of Deputies on Wednesday, after a long debate, in which Prime Minister Ferry and M. Clémenceau took part.

A Paris rumor is that Great Britain has sounded the Brazilian and United States Governments to ascertain whether they would mediate between France and China. It is also asserted in Paris that, on the day after the meeting of the Chamber of Deputies, orders were sent to Admiral Courbet to push operations in Tonquin, in order to make the Chinese Government show what course it intends to pursue, so that France can take definite action.

It is reported in Paris that the First Secretary of the Chinese Legation there has stated that war between China and France is now certain. The French Cabinet Council on Friday discussed General Bouet's account of the French position on the Red River, but nothing was decided. The Chamber of Deputies will probably be asked to vote a new credit. In his account General Bouet states that at least 10,000 men of all arms—infantry, cavalry, and artillery—will be required. It is asserted that General Campenon, Minister of War, is preparing a reserve corps of 10,000 troops for service in Tonquin.

The Marquis Tseng, the Chinese Ambassador to France, had his attention called to the assertion made by M. Tricou, the French Agent to China, that Li Hung Chang had disavowed the policy pursued by the Marquis Tseng upon the Tonquin question. In reply to the assertion, the Marquis repelled the intimation conveyed that there are differences between Li Hung Chang and himself by saying, "I have the same opinions as Li Hung Chang." A despatch from the Chinese Government confirms the statement of Marquis Tseng and approves of his course.

In an interview published on Tuesday the Marquis Tseng is reported as saying that if war occurred between France and China, which he believed to be probable, the kingdom of Anam would become the ally of China. The French, he said, would require 40,000 troops to overcome their united forces. Meantime England's commercial interests would compel her to intervene.

The French forces have occupied Kuangyen, some forty miles northeast of Haiphong, and Ninhbinh, which is some seventy miles southwest of Haiphong.

Admiral Galiber, commander of the French forces in Madagascar, telegraphs that the Hovas have asked to come to terms with the French authorities, and that negotiations have been opened. An early settlement of the difficulties may be expected. France has moderated her claims for indemnity.

A letter from Tamatave, Madagascar, dated October 4, asserts that the Malagassy Envoys who recently visited Europe and the United States, and the Prime Minister of Madagascar, have been strangled in their native land. This report has not been confirmed.

It was reported in Paris on Wednesday that M. de Brazza, the French African explorer, had been killed in a fight in the Congo country. The report has not been confirmed.

A party of French Anarchists on Monday exploded an infernal machine in front of the mansion of a wealthy merchant of Lyons. Great damage was done to the building, but no one was hurt.

The International Labor Congress closed its session in Paris on Thursday.

Señor Moret, Spanish Minister of the Interior, and Gen. Lopez Dominguez, Minister of War, have acquired proof of fresh intrigues between political exiles and their friends in Spain with a view to preparing for another military disturbance. The Government has discovered that these intriguers are connected with a ring of speculators at home and abroad.

The Spanish Cabinet has resolved to summon the Cortes to assemble on December 15.

Festivities were held at Worms and Wittenberg on Wednesday to commemorate Luther's nailing the theses to the church door, thereby inaugurating the Reformation.

Serious encounters have taken place between the troops and the rebels in the Crna Reka district of Servia.

The Egyptian Government was informed on Wednesday that Hicks Pasha, after two battles, entered El Obeid, which place he found had been abandoned by the forces of El Mahdi, the False Prophet. Many of El Mahdi's men, it was reported, were killed in the two battles, and his forces were broken up. There has been no official confirmation of the report, and military authorities in Cairo doubt it. It is regarded as mere bazaar gossip.

There was but one death from cholera in Alexandria, Egypt, on Monday.

Jeremiah Daignault & Co., of Montreal, the largest buyers and shippers of bark in Canada, have failed, with liabilities amounting to $400,000. The failure is the outcome of an attempt, conjointly with the Shaw Brothers, of Boston, to corner the market.

It is reported in Montreal that the Canadian High Commissioner has nearly completed arrangements in Paris for the sale of the island of Anticosti to the French Government, the object being to bring to an amicable termination the difficulties existing between the English and French fishermen in Newfoundland. The latter would be invited to establish themselves on that island.

The Iglesias Government in Peru has resolved not to recognize Montero's acts. Montero has resigned command of the defending force in Arequipa. The troops are greatly exasperated, and have killed two of his aides-de-camp.

The latest accounts from Afghanistan show that the country is in a state of complete anarchy. The exchequer is without funds and the troops are demoralized. The Amir is a mere plaything in the hands of the Ghilzais.

THE SUEZ CANAL QUESTION.

The British Shipmasters' Association have again asked Mr. Gladstone's Government to take some decided steps in the matter of a new Suez Canal. Obviously the question is one which will not sleep. The demands of commerce have outrun the capacity of the existing canal, and whatever may be the political or other impediments which stand in the way of a new canal to be constructed under British auspices, the pressure for more passageway of some sort is imperative and growing.

The outburst of opposition with which Mr. Gladstone's arrangement with M. de Lesseps was received last summer, and by which it was borne down, has been productive of nothing but delay. When the joint project was abandoned, Lesseps announced that he would go on and dig a new canal within the boundaries conceded to him in his original grant, if a new grant could not be obtained from the Egyptian Government. When this announcement was made, Lord Salisbury moved a petition to the Queen that she should use her influence to prevent the granting of any further concessions to Lesseps and his company. No vote was taken upon this motion, the effect of which, if agreed to by Parliament, would be to put a block upon any movement by the existing canal company, unless it should be found practicable to do all the work within their own territory. British interests would evidently be the principal sufferers from such a block, since they furnish three-fourths of the traffic. Moreover, the canal being under French control, it would be easy to discriminate against British ships in a crowded waterway, and this, the British ship-owners say, has been done to an aggravating extent.

Looking back to the time when Mr. Gladstone was forced to recede from his provisional agreement with Lesseps, it is quite plain that the agreement was an advantageous one for British interests, and that the explosion of wrath which assailed it was exceedingly ill-timed and unfounded, not to say immoral. It sprang from the fact that England had got temporary possession of Egypt by force of arms. But the occupation of the country under the circumstances and the declarations which preceded it, gave England no rights which she did not possess before. She went there to establish order. To wrest from the Khedive a concession for a new canal, in violation of the existing contract with Lesseps, or regardless of it, would have been a flagrant departure from the declared purposes of the war, and an affront to France the consequences of which could not have been foreseen. The British ship-owners and commercial classes would never have thought of pushing the new canal project without the co-operation of the old company, before the bombardment of Alexandria. Yet no lawyer in Christendom would have said that the bombardment of Alexandria gave them a better title to sit in judgment on the Lesseps contract than they had before. The enlargement of their power did not enlarge their rights. This was conceded by Lord Granville throughout the negotiations, and it was upon this idea that Mr. Gladstone took his stand. Although forced by the opposition of the commercial bodies to abandon the agreement, he never receded from the position that the Lesseps contract was to be construed by law and not by force.

This contract, entered into between the Suez Canal Company and the Egyptian Government twenty years ago, provided that the company should have the exclusive right to build and operate a canal or canals between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean through Egyptian territory. It was confirmed by the Sultan of Turkey. It had every feature which could give sanctity and authority to a written agreement. The British crown lawyers so declared. A few casuists who sought to find flaws in it were easily routed in the debate, and Lord Salisbury was driven to say that the Suez Canal should be treated and dealt with in the same way as the Cattegat—in other words, that an artificial waterway should be held subject to the same principles as a natural one. This novel doctrine was pulled in pieces by the Lord Chancellor to such purpose that it has never been heard of since.

If the British ship-owners were not justified upon moral grounds in their angry opposition to Mr. Gladstone's agreement, they were still less so on other grounds. The British Government owned nearly one-half of the shares of the Suez Canal Company, and could easily have acquired the small amount needed to gain a majority. The voting power did not attach to these shares immediately, but it was only deferred for a short time, and in the interim it was quite certain that no advantage would be taken by Lesseps as against the largest shareholder, who happened to be also the first commercial and naval Power in the world. This fact was ignored by the impatient ship-owners and the doctrinaires who sided with them. Yet no fact had a more practical or potent bearing on the case. The sole object and purpose of the agitation being to get a new canal under British control, the shortest way would have been to make use of the vantage ground already gained in the ownership of 170,000 shares of the old company. From this standpoint absolute and peaceful control within a reasonable time was possible, if absolute control were needed. By the methods urged by the ship-owners, backed by the conservative party in Parliament, no control or approach to it was possible, except at the price of very strained relations with France, coupled with the risk of establishing an ugly precedent and the certainty of tarnishing the fame of Great Britain in the eyes of mankind.

Four months have passed away, and the ship-owners find themselves exactly where they were in the beginning. The same difficulties beset them now. They have alienated the good will of the canal company and gained nothing. The Government has not changed its views. The grounds of its refusal to take advantage of its military occupation of Egypt to force the hand of Lesseps being moral grounds, it could not change. The excitement having subsided, the opportunity is now afforded to anybody to show a better plan than Mr. Gladstone's for securing a new canal. None has been suggested that does not look to violent measures and a rupture with France. In short, the ship-owners and commercial bodies have thrown away in a fit of anger a very advantageous arrangement, without substituting anything in its place, and they ought, if Lesseps and his company are willing to resume the negotiation where it was broken off, to embrace the opportunity at once.

GOODNESS AND THEATRE-GOING.

The Rev. Dr. Cuyler's announcement that "no good woman wants her sons and daughters" at the theatre, perhaps excited more indignation than it calls for. In order to criticise him intelligently, one would have to find out what he meant by "good," and it would probably appear that he did not use the word in the ordinary sense, but, in fact, restricted the term "good women" to female members of his own church or denomination, or of one or two other denominations holding the old view touching the separation of "the church" and "the world," and touching what are called "worldly amusements." As a matter of fact, we believe, it is only the sects known in England as Dissenters (that is, the Congregationalists, Presbyterians, and Methodists), the French Calvinists, and that portion of the Anglican Church which used to be called "Low," or "Evangelical," in the whole Christian world that have ever offered decided opposition to theatre-going. The Catholic Church has confined itself in the main to denouncing the actors and actresses, which is not only more economical, but a much more sensible proceeding.

The objections of evangelical people to the theatre are well known. The principal one, the introduction of immoral motives or situations into the plot, is really almost as applicable to novels as to plays, and at one time sufficed to exclude novels from the reading of religious people, and to have them kept as far as possible out of the hands of young people of both sexes. That this prejudice has been greatly abated, if it has not been destroyed, within the last fifty years, is largely due to the modern school of English novelists, such as Dickens, Thackeray, George Eliot, Trollope, and others, who made the novel good family reading. In fact, they introduced the novel into religious society, and made it possible for the boys and girls to be caught reading it without shame or fear. Since then there has been a distinction between good and bad novels in the Anglo-Saxon world, but it can hardly be said to have found its way to France, probably because of the power of what Mr. Arnold calls "lubricity" over the French imagination. It is, indeed, to French light literature, and to the French drama, very much what yeast is to bread. It gives flavor and lightness and digestibility, and is so generally used in the French literary bakeries that the mere epithet "French" attached to a novel or play connotes a touch of indecency or immorality.

No attempts to purify the drama, as the novel has been purified, have as yet been successful, probably because the playwright has not room enough to make purity exciting or interesting. The novelist is able to carry

his heroes and heroines through a long series of events, on which he can lavish all his art in the way of decoration and complication, and can keep the reader's curiosity rising all through the approach to a very distant dénouement. The dramatist has to crowd everything into two hours, and must make his impression with a few strokes, which need to be very vivid and stimulating to accomplish their object within the time. The temptation to be audacious, both in the dialogue and the situations, is thus very strong, and, this considered, it must be admitted that the Anglo-American stage is remarkably pure and decent both in speech and behavior. But it will probably never be possible to make the theatre a fit place for Doctor Cuyler's "good women"—that is to say, a place in which they will see and hear nothing that would be considered out of place in a church sewing circle, or in the parlor of a religious family. An attempt in this direction has been made in this city at one theatre, by the production of plays which might, as far as plot and dialogue are concerned, be acted by a Sunday school. They have all the outward appearance of great success, for they have drawn crowded houses during very long runs, and are now meeting with a similar reception in England. But that they owe this success to the fact that only one theatre produces them, there is little doubt. They reach a public which usually does not go to the theatre, and is delighted to be able to see an improving play, in which even the villains are only giddy or thoughtless. But this public is, after all, very small, and probably could not support more than one little theatre, even in a large city. Theatres not purely comic cannot live in our time on a limited selection from the passions by which the world is moved. They must, in order to draw the needed support, furnish something like a picture of human life, and no picture of human life is complete or can interest the mass of mankind from which the really tragic side is excluded. But the tragic side is filled with the play of all the great passions—those which raise to heaven, as well as those which sink to hell. It is not a world in which the worst that happens are broken engagements among young people, and temporary coolnesses between husbands and wives, but a world of

> "Blight and famine, plague and earthquake, roaring deeps and fiery sands,
> Clanging fights and flaming towns, sinking ships and praying hands."

There are, of course, two ways of producing on the stage the play of the passions—a corrupting way, full of evil suggestion, and a simply illustrative way, which fortifies the moral judgment. But in neither way can the stage probably ever be made attractive to people of Doctor Cuyler's way of thinking, for to him, as to all the older school of moralists, ignorance of vice is the great, if not the greatest, purely mundane support of virtue. From the earliest days of Christianity the good man, and still more the good woman, have been encouraged to find safety in flight—to make their virtue, in fact, as far as possible, a cloistered virtue. The Roman Church ended by literally shutting up all the very pious people, and treating stone walls as the only sure defence against Satan. The tradition lingers in the evangelical theory of the necessity of absolute separation between the Christian man and "the world"—a term which really means in ecclesiastical nomenclature that portion of mankind which amuses itself for amusement's sake, and without any view to moral culture. It is not likely that the latter will ever be able to get up a theatre which the former will find an edifying place of resort. Moreover, all the tendencies of our time, outside the evangelical denominations, are toward the repudiation of seclusion as a sanction of morality, and towards treating all goodness which rests on it as conventional goodness simply—that is, as something too vapory and unsubstantial to be worth cultivation. The good man or woman of the next century will probably be the man or woman who, knowing evil well, chooses and pursues the right.

LUTHER AND THE CLASSICS.

The fourth centenary of Luther's birth has called forth all manner of Lutheran demonstration and Lutheran literature in Germany, to which there has been a modest echo in the United States, the home of so many of Luther's countrymen. One of the last contributions to the study of Luther's works is a posthumous pamphlet by Dr. O. G. Schmidt, an enthusiastic student of Luther's writings, and an ardent lover of the ancient classics. In this tract Doctor Schmidt, alarmed by the assaults that are made on classical studies in Germany, has bequeathed to us the results of his researches as to Luther's acquaintance with the Greek and Roman classics, in the hope that the mad materialists will pause and reflect that "Germany's greatest son was no stranger in that field of knowledge." It is very much to be feared that neither the materialists nor the "modernists" of America will care much for such an argument. Muscle is muscle, and bone is bone, and it will be contended that modern muscle and modern bone can be made out of modern fare as well as out of ancient. Nectar and ambrosia, if they sustain intellectual life at all, which seems to be doubted, can contain nothing more essential to life than baked beans and Boston brown bread. As to Luther himself, it may fairly be said that the classics were in his time the best reading to be had; that Latin was the common medium of all education worthy of the name; and that, if Luther were living now, he would not care any more for the classics than he cared then for what he considered mediæval rubbish. Evidently, what Luther read, and liked to read, in the beginning of the sixteenth century cannot be of any vital importance to us as students of educational methods, although it has a certain interest for those who study the equipment of one of the greatest figures in modern history. The defence of the study of the ancient classics, if defence is really needed, must be put on other ground than the example of a man who lived in the light of the Renaissance. And so the classical scholar will look rather coldly on the trite quotations, from the usual school-books, that Doctor Martinus Lutherus has dropped here and there in his voluminous writings.

What is of real interest is the manly way in which he treats the classic authors. The man who called the Epistle of James a *straminea epistola* was not likely to unbonnet before a heathen, ancient or modern, Horace or Erasmus, simply because that heathen had a better command of the Latin language than he had. To Luther, with all his admiration for Cicero, *Sancte Cicero, ora pro nobis*, was as silly as it was blasphemous. Those whose business it is to teach Latin and Greek often get up a spurious enthusiasm for everything Latin and Greek. Now and then, in a paroxysm of rebellion, a certain author is devoted to the infernal gods. A great scholar arises who irreverently speaks of Cicero's writings as a Sahara. Ovid, by reason of his restless talent, is and has been fair game for fault-finders. But the general tone is that of rapt admiration. A few years ago it was hinted that Thucydides was human; that as a politician he had not been altogether unacquainted with the Machine; that at a certain time he had found it expedient to vote the Cleon ticket, with the reserved right of turning against Cleon when it suited him. The points may not have been well taken—they may have been rashly and rudely advanced; but there was no call for the hubbub raised in the scholarly world about the audacities of Müller-Strübing. Luther's attitude is, humanly speaking, much more respectable.

Doctor Schmidt treats of Luther's training in the humanities; his acquaintance with the Roman prose-writers, the Roman poets; his own Latin poetry; his relations to Hellenic literature; and the influence of classical studies on Luther's intellectual life. A few points must suffice. So far from being surprised at the extent of Luther's reading in the ancient classics, one is surprised rather that he did not make more use of these revered authorities in an age so much under the domination of their charm. Of the Latin prose-writers, Cicero of course leads the van. Everybody was brought up on Cicero at that time, and Luther gives him all the credit for the Greek wisdom that Cicero conveyed with cynical coolness. Luther is astonished that a man so deep in great affairs could have read and written so much, and contrasts him with Aristotle, very much to the disadvantage of the great sage, whom he calls "an unemployed ass, who had gold and goods and jolly, idle days enough," whereas Cicero was up to his eyes in work and bearing vast burdens of state. There are but few indications of an intimate acquaintance on Luther's part with Livy or Sallust or Tacitus. Pliny the elder was the great storehouse of knowledge in those days—the 'Conversations-Lexikon,' the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' of the time. But Luther does not like Pliny, for all that: Pliny is a materialist and an epicurean, and he dismisses him with the contemptuous epithet of "a clever fool." Melanchthon was wasting time on Pliny that he might better have spent on the Epistle to the Romans.

Of Roman comedy Luther was a great admirer, and favored the acting of the plays of Terence. He thought the moral tendency admirable, encouraged the boys in the school at Wittenberg in their dramatical performances, and tried to get up a game supper after the play. Westminster and Wittenberg are thus bound together by an old tradition. Virgil was his delight. On a scrap of paper written two days before his death, he made the note that no one could understand the Bucolics unless he had been a shepherd for five years, nor the Georgics unless he had been a farmer for the same length of time. One who is neither might be permitted to suggest that even Luther was too much under the traditional spell to be a good judge—peasant as he had been himself. At any rate, it is rather strange that he should have put the Bucolics on the same line with the Georgics. Horace was too much of an epicurean for Luther's taste, and he depresses him below—Prudentius, Catullus, Juvenal, and Martial he would not suffer in the school-room, though he could not resist the temptation to quote Juvenal on occasion. With correct instinct, he questioned

whether Lucan could be called a poet, and wisely postponed buying a copy of the 'Pharsalia' to the closing years of his life.

Luther's own Latin poetry is meagre in quantity, and not remarkable for quality, in an age of trained parrots. Of Greek, not "a College Fetish" yet, he evidently knew very little. Much that he refers to comes to him at second hand. To Aristotle he was a sworn foe. Plato, he thought, was often in fun, and amused himself at the expense of other philosophers—a frivolous view of Plato, with which the solemn commentators among Luther's countrymen will have little sympathy. So, throughout, Luther says what he thinks with refreshing directness, and in this way, at least, sets modern scholars a good example.

GERMAN AFFAIRS.

BERLIN, October 29.

SINCE the close of the extraordinary session of the Reichstag our political life has been rather dull, the whole Government machine working at half speed, while our public men sought recreation in the mountains and watering places, and the high official, military, and royal world went to manœuvres and parades, or exchanged visits. The newspapers, nevertheless, have been filled with all sorts of rumors, and for the sake of sensational news raised the war cry, now for the East, now for the West. There is, however, no impending danger. Russia is the only Power which, in consequence of her domestic difficulties, may be driven into a war (and she can find a tolerably good pretext in the present Bulgarian imbroglio). If the Czar can subdue the discontented parties, Russia will remain quiet; but if the Opposition prevails, we may witness a second and enlarged edition of the last Russo-Turkish war, if not a general European conflagration. So much, however, is certain, and I can positively assert, that Germany detests a war, that she will do everything in her power to avoid it, and that in this respect she is just the reverse of what Louis Napoleon was in the days of his glory. On this point there is no difference of opinion all over our country; the Government's policy is endorsed almost unanimously by the people.

Last week, viz., October 18 to 20, the elections for the Common Council of this city took place. For weeks they had occupied the foreground of public interest, inasmuch as for the first time since its existence (1808) an entirely new election of all its 126 members was made necessary. Politics, of course, in a well-regulated community, never ought to interfere with the election of an administrative corporation: but, in the present case, the Government itself had introduced politics for the purpose of breaking up the "Progressive ring" (an expression which Prince Bismarck had borrowed from American political slang, and which was hastily taken up by his Secretary of the Interior, Herr von Puttkamer, his most unscrupulous supporter). Both gentlemen, principal and clerk, about two years ago commenced the battle for the Redhouse (City Hall) by throwing out the threat of dissolving the present Common Council, for the reason that it was a corrupt and inefficient body, which sacrificed the general interest to party strife and quarrels. Now the fact is that the popular representation of the city did not prove a pliant and subservient tool which Bismarck could handle as he pleased, and that its members in their great majority were men of ability, experience, and backbone, who knew how to carry out their measures. There is and has been no large capital the affairs of which have been and are managed in so practical, business-like, and economical style as in Berlin. This city is now in the process of transition from a large Government town and royal residence into a really great imperial city, and has about the same number of inhabitants as New York. Its growth, too, is of quite American character. In 1648 Berlin had only 6,000 inhabitants; in 1709, 55,000; in 1755, 136,664; in 1790, 150,803; in 1816, 195,200; in 1840, 322,640; in 1861, 547,571; in 1875, 964,240; and in 1880, 1,122,504. In consequence of this rapid increase of population the city has to attend to all sorts of modern improvements, such as sewerage, extensive waterworks, electric lighting of the principal streets, new pavement, erection of expensive bridges, and enormous costs for educational purposes. Of the budget of about 23,000,000 marks (nearly $6,000,000) every penny has been and is well spent and accounted for. In short, a more honest and efficient administration has seldom existed. It is composed of men of all parties, who, free from any political bias, are animated by a common desire for the promotion of the city's welfare.

Our Conservatives, however, hate an efficient self-government which makes patriarchal rule and the interference of red tape superfluous. Knowing that they served Bismarck's ultimate ends, they therefore denounced the City Council as an anti-monarchical ring, without a vein of patriotic feeling, that ought to be put out of the way. The anti-Semitic clique took hold of the agitation and raised the wildest passions. Government clerks, and even civil officers, coöperated with the street demagogues, with Court Preacher Stoecker and men of that ilk; but, nevertheless, Mr. von Puttkamer did not dare to dissolve the Common Council. Finally, another stratagem was resorted to. The Minister suddenly discovered that the several districts were too unequal in extent and population, and that, in accordance with the present distribution of the inhabitants of the city, new districts ought to be laid out. On this plan last week the new election of the 126 Councilmen took place. For this purpose the taxpayers, according to their income, are divided into three classes, each of which elects 42 candidates. Thus the first class, even if it comprises only 10 per cent. of the number of the third class, votes for as many Councilmen as the latter. The result was that the first and second classes polled their votes for the so-called Liberal ticket (the present incumbents), while the third elected 22 Liberals, 5 members of the so-called Citizens' Party (anti-Semites), and 2 Social Democrats. In 13 cases an absolute majority was not reached. In such an emergency the two candidates having the largest number of votes must submit to a second election. The result stands at present 106 Liberals, 5 Citizens' Party and 2 Social Democrats. As the impending 13 new elections will give the Liberals at least 6 seats more, there will finally be a Liberal majority of 112 against a minority of 14.

Satisfactory as this result may be, and conclusively as it has shown the utter barrenness of a party without positive ideas, it creates on the other hand a very uneasy feeling. For the first time the doors of the City Hall have been opened to the Social Democrats, and this has been done by the Secretary of the Interior himself, who, it seems, does not understand that he is playing with fire. After this defeat, the ministerial organs suddenly found out that the victory of the independent people involved no principle at all, and that the object of the contest had only been an administrative measure. "The bourgeois," says the *Kreuz-Zeitung*, a reactionary paper, "have triumphed over the citizens," thus throwing the odium of the former term on the men who wanted to maintain their time-honored and sterling institutions. "Woe to our city," said Councilman Virchow, the celebrated professor of physiology, a few days ago, at a public meeting, "if ever doctrines should prevail here which teach that we need not rely upon our own energy and labor. We, the real workingmen and citizens, have been attacked by the so-called Workingmen's and Citizens' parties for believing that the working of the commune must stop where the activity of the individual begins. What will finally become of the citizen when he is deprived of one sphere of enterprise after another? We are crowded between two socialistic camps—the one looks to the potentates above, the other and lower one relies on being able to cheat the gentlemen at the head of affairs out of their dues. This election is like the verdict of a jury on the question of guilty or not guilty. We have been acquitted, and so gloriously that no one will dare to bring in a new charge." So it is. This memorable contest was stirred up by the Government not for the sake of the best possible attention to the communal administration, but for the control of the political power in the capital of the Empire. Bismarck's defeat is therefore well deserved, and cheerfully received by all independent men.

Besides the splendid festivals which have been celebrated in Germany within the last two months—most prominent among which was the unveiling of the colossal statue of Germania, on the Niederwald, near Bingen on the Rhine—there was a modest anniversary held at Crefeld in commemoration of the 200th return of the day on which the first association of German emigrants departed for the present United States. Permit me to describe it in a few words, as the fact may be of some interest to your readers too. It was at the instigation of no less prominent a man than William Penn that thirteen Quaker and Mennonite families of Crefeld and neighborhood in 1683 left their homes and settled at Germantown, the present Twenty-second Ward of the city of Philadelphia. These well-to-do people were inspired with high and elevated ideas; they wanted nothing more than to serve their Lord in their own way—men of superior character and intelligence, and trained in economic and industrial habits. For conscience' sake they sought homes in the Pennsylvanian forests, and proved an excellent acquisition to the new country. Crefeld is now a thriving silk-manufacturing city of nearly 100,000 inhabitants. Proud of her noble sons, the prominent citizens on October 6 paid their tribute of respect to those first German pioneers of emigration, and sent words of greeting to their German-American brethren who, at the same hour, were celebrating the day in Philadelphia. At a full meeting held in the largest hall of the city Dr. Friedrich Kapp, member of the Reichstag, delivered an address in honor of the occasion, and gave an exhaustive sketch of the political and religious causes which drove these Crefeld linen weavers, and after them millions of Germans, beyond the Atlantic. As an immortal memorial of them he praised that glorious protest which, as early as in April, 1688, was made by them against human slavery, and which places them on the same platform with the noblest abolitionists of our day. "You fully enjoy here the liberty of the soul," they said to their fellow-citizens: "do not be illogical, but grant the liberty of the body too; by upholding a cruel institution do not deter emigrants from Europe, and do not make the name of your young colony a shame and a by-word among thinking people." This first step, however, against the abolition of slavery was choked by the English-speaking Quakers, who declared it inopportune and impractical. This spirit of the Crefeld abolitionists, nevertheless, prevailed among the Germans in Penn's

colony for some fifty years. After them other emigrants from the Rhine, and especially the Palatinate, landed there, driven out by famine, wars, and the general desire of mending their fortunes. They were poor, oppressed people, these wandering sons of the beautiful Palatinate, who humbly plodded their way, unassuming and unpretentious, unable to gain and to occupy any public position. How have things changed since then! The other day, Mr. Henry Villard, also a son of the Palatinate, at the head of the first dignitaries of his adopted country, and surrounded by the most distinguished guests from Europe, drove the last spike in the rails connecting the East and the West of the American continent, *via* the Great Northern Pacific Railroad. † † †

Correspondence.

THE NEW EDITION OF EMERSON'S WORKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your remark, in a notice of the new edition of Mr. Emerson's writings (*Nation*, Oct. 25), that you must think it a serious omission that the essays in the fifth and seventh volumes have no indication of the time at which they were composed, delivered, or first published, invites a word of explanation from me, since it appears to imply that the essays contained in these volumes ('English Traits' and 'Society and Solitude') were composed and delivered at definite times, ascertainable by proper inquiry. Now, it is true that lectures on England were delivered by Mr. Emerson at various times after his second visit to that country in 1847–8, and no doubt the sentiments and opinions put forth in those lectures were afterward published in the book. But it would be very difficult to ascertain when they were first written down, or what was the precise relation of the lectures to the book. Some sentences I recognize in his diaries of 1833, others in his journals of various times within the next twenty years. But, as I have explained in the preface to 'Letters and Social Aims,' Mr. Emerson constantly varied his lectures by the introduction of new matter, and I have no doubt that a good deal was added by him when he prepared the "copy" for the press; but no entire transcript for publication, so far as I am aware, now exists. The same is true substantially of 'Society and Solitude.' Two of the essays in that volume had appeared in periodicals, and this fact might have been mentioned. But I thought it better, on the whole, to keep the reprints of the essays which had been published in a collected form by Mr. Emerson as free as possible from editorial comment, and to reserve bibliographical details for a future occasion.—Your obedient servant,

J. E. Cabot.

Brookline, Mass., Oct. 31, 1883.

MR. GOLDWIN SMITH AND IRISH REPRESSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his letter in your impression of today, headed "Repression in Ireland," Mr. Goldwin Smith deprecates a "Commission of Judges," and seeks "a tribunal of laymen selected for their character from the whole nation." He is perfectly aware what sort of people this tribunal would consist of — Lord Rossmores, Bence Joneses, and the like. The former is permitted by the English Government to threaten with murder the Nationalists when they propose to hold meetings which are perfectly legal, and which, when interfered with by the Lord Lieutenant, are prevented on pretexts which have no concern with legality. The magistrates and officials of Ireland are almost without exception landlords and aristocracy. The judges of the land might be too independent to act as a tribunal according to Mr. Smith's own heart, so he proposes his friends should judge in their own cause. At least, I presume, he had no intention of selecting his tribunal from the followers of Mr. Parnell—four-fifths of the nation. If so, I humbly apologize for my mistake. The "men of character" he alludes to have signalized themselves by plundering the people until the Land Act intervened. By a little "timely firmness" this robbery might have been mitigated some years ago and bloodshed arrested. But that "timely firmness" was only shown by the House of Lords when they threw out the Compensation for Disturbance Bill, and thus enabled the plundering to go on a little longer. Mr. Smith claims protection for loyal men and women from "gangs of barbarous and dastardly assassins." Robbery he does not mind; that is an innocent recreation. But how about the Orange mobs led by "men of character"?

I enclose my card.

An English Officer.

New York, November 1.

EXCLUSIVE PREFERENCE FOR THE CLASSICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It seems to me that the *Nation* altogether misses the point in its comments on the anti-Greek argument. If the study of the classics deserves the exclusive preference it has always enjoyed, well and good. Some of us think it does not; but, while denying most of their premises, we are able to follow and to appreciate the argument of such able defenders of it as Doctor Porter. But the *Nation's* comments are annoying because they are based on what seems to us an irrelevant circumstance—viz., that a large portion of Harvard and Yale undergraduates study, under all circumstances, as little as they can help. That is, a large portion of the cleverer and more industrious should be condemned to an intellectual treadmill because this is good enough for the idle or stupid.

The *Nation* assumes that the intrinsic difficulty of classical studies, or imperfect instruction, or both, are the reasons generally alleged for the substitution of modern languages. This is certainly an error. Mr. Adams frankly admits the excellence of classical culture—for those whose minds thrive on it. But why should the large number of boys who are disposed to study, but who have no liking for Latin and Greek, be condemned to study them? It is no answer to say that they are at liberty to give them up during the last two years of their college course. That means that they have been obliged to waste the six or seven preceding years—years which, for the study of language, are more valuable than any subsequent period, let alone the fact that six or seven years form no unimportant fraction of a man's life.

Let us afford those who wish to become philologists every facility for doing this, just as we should afford the same opportunities to embryo naturalists. As it is, the naturalists and physicists have little to complain of: they can, if they choose, go direct from a "common" school to a technical? But why, we ask, must those who wish to study a series of years before beginning a professional career be obliged to follow the curriculum suited to only two or three out of many professions? As it is, our colleges can and do graduate excellent classicists (may their number never be fewer!); they do not and cannot graduate persons really familiar with any modern tongue, except in those exceptional cases (like the "Cerberus" at Harvard ten years ago) where the student has obtained his preparation for college while living abroad. But if it were possible to give those (for language study) best years of fourteen to eighteen to French or German, who will deny that our colleges could turn out as good modernists as classicists?

Then, too, so far as my own observation proves anything, a good deal of the *vis inertiæ* which, as the *Nation* remarks, characterizes the majority of undergraduates, is due to the deadening consciousness of the uselessness of the studies pursued. For the majority of boys, I believe as heartily as Doctor Porter in the advantage of language study. But, except for the followers of a very few professions, the classical curriculum provides (when it provides anything) mental discipline plus nothing; while it is claimed that the study of German or French gives mental discipline plus positive knowledge of enormous advantage to many, and of some good to all. I, for one, shall always regard the careful instruction which I received at Exeter, and the very laborious hours which I gave there to Latin and Greek, not only as thrown away, but as a might-have-been of the utmost value.

W. M. G. (A.B., Harvard).

[The *Nation's* comments ought not to be "annoying," because they were not based on the "circumstance" that "a large portion of Harvard and Yale undergraduates study under all circumstances as little as they can help." It never alleged any such "circumstance." It simply said that a large proportion of them do not study enough to master Greek, Latin, or any other language—which is a different circumstance and very relevant. Moreover, the *Nation* did not "assume that the intrinsic difficulty of classical studies, or imperfect instruction, or both, are the reasons generally alleged for the substitution of modern languages." It said nothing about "reasons generally alleged." It was talking of Mr. Adams's reasons, and more especially of the chief of them, which was that neither he, nor his father, nor his grandfather, nor his great-grandfather, nor his two brothers, ever learned Greek enough at college to be of any use to them in the work of life, or even to enable them to study the Greek classics with pleasure or profit. Nor have we been arguing in defence of the classical curriculum, but against what we consider the chimerical notion that any change in the curriculum is going to make the bulk of undergraduates any more thoughtful, or industrious, or eager for mental discipline than they now are. Finally, as our correspondent admits the existence of the *vis inertiæ*, "which, as the *Nation* remarked, characterizes the majority of undergraduates," we are little puzzled to know what his thesis is. —Ed. Nation.]

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN PLAGIARISTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Many are the pitfalls dug for us poor buyers of books. One hates, for instance, to buy the same book twice, though it be a valuable one—so long, that is, as no dear friend has *borrowed* one's first copy. And so, to buy a book one has seen advertised by an author al-

ready favorably known, and to find that the self-same book, under another title, is already on one's shelves, is apt to occasion a feeling of chagrin. Similarly, to buy a book one has seen advertised as by one author, and to find the same, or nearly the same, already on one's shelves under another title, and by a different author, is to be made to feel that one has too hastily parted with one's money.

These reflections are aroused by a communication in the *Athenæum* of October 13 (No. 2,920), in which the writer shows that a certain book entitled 'The Development of English Literature and Language,' by Alfred H. Welsh, M.A. (Chicago: Griggs & Co.), is really, to a very great extent, a work published by himself and other well-known collaborateurs, under another title. The manner of showing this which Mr. T. Humphrey Ward, the writer of the communication referred to, adopts, recalls irresistibly to mind the exposure of Mr. Thomas Hardy's literary methods made by a correspondent of the *Nation* some time ago, wherein your correspondent showed how Mr. Hardy had arrived at some of the cleverest pages of his (?) novel, 'A Laodicean.' This communication had a wide circulation, for, besides what it got by appearing in the *Nation*, it was reproduced, *in extenso*, in the pages of the London *Academy*. Ever since it appeared, I have been afraid to buy anything by Mr. Hardy, lest I should be duplicating some of the volumes by which I am already surrounded.

This exposure of Mr. Welsh in the *Athenæum* reminds me to ask you, as I have often intended to do, whether Mr. Hardy has ever offered any justification of his methods, for, though I have been looking for some rejoinder from him, none has thus far met my eye.

CONSTANT READER.

BALTIMORE, October 30, 1883.

THE "RESOLUTIONS OF '98" AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your comments in the *Nation* of October 18 give precision to the points in issue between us concerning the historical meaning of the "resolutions of '98." You say that "Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Delaware, and New York, by action of their Legislatures, all denounced the secessionism of the resolutions of '98, interpreting them in the same sense in which they were understood in 1860." So far is this, I submit, from being an accurate digest of the facts in the case, that Mr. Madison, in 1830, cited the terms of these very legislative declarations for the express purpose of showing that the States which protested against the "resolutions of '98," did *not* regard them "as avowing and maintaining a right in an individual State to arrest, by force, the execution of a law of the United States." If they had so regarded the resolutions, he says, "it must be presumed that it would have been a conspicuous object of their denunciation" ('Writings of James Madison,' vol. iv., p. 106). These replies abound in general declamation and in specific accusations against the resolutions, but neither in the one nor the other do I find any fling at "secessionism," in name or substance.

The difference between the "resolutions of '98" and "secessionism" is accurately defined by Mr. Madison. Writing in 1833, he says:

"The case of the alien and sedition laws was a question between the Government of the United States and the constituent body [the States], Virginia making an appeal to the latter against the assumptions of the former. The case of a claim in a State to secede from its union with the others resolves itself into a question among the States themselves as parties to the contract. In the former case it was asserted against Virginia [by the protesting States] that the States had no right to interpose a *legislative* declaration of opinion on a constitutional point; nor a right to interpose at all against a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, which was to be regarded as a tribunal from which there could be no appeal. The object of Virginia was to vindicate legislative declarations of opinion; to designate the several constitutional modes of interposition by the States against abuses of power; and to establish the ultimate authority of the States, as parties to and creators of the Constitution, to interpose against the decisions of the judicial as well as other branches of the Government—the authority of the judicial being in no sense ultimate, out of the purview and forms of the Constitution" ('Writings of James Madison,' vol. iv., p. 335).

If it be said that these remarks apply to the Virginia and not to the Kentucky "resolutions of '98," it suffices to say that the resolutions of both States are coupled in the same condemnation by the Legislatures of New York and New Hampshire. But nowhere, in the condemnation of any State, do I find a hint of "secessionism," which you accurately define in your review of Mr. Curtis's 'Life of James Buchanan,' and in your comments on my communication.

The Kentucky "resolutions of '98" *are* more trenchant than those of Virginia. In the form in which they were originally drafted by Mr. Jefferson they contained an appeal to the natural right of revolution. In *that* form (never adopted by Kentucky) it was held that when the Federal Government assumes powers "which have not been delegated, a nullification of the act is the rightful remedy; that *every State has a natural right*, in cases not within the compact (*casus non fœderis*), to nullify, *of their own authority*, all assumptions of powers by others within their own limits." You say that "there is no real dispute that prudence alone suppressed this resolution," and thereupon you immediately add, "in the following year *it was passed, making the whole complete again.*" (The italics are mine.) That is, you affirm that the two following propositions, respectively contained in the Kentucky declaration of 1798 and 1799, are substantially identical:

Clause in series of 1798, *as not adopted:* "*Every State has a natural right*, in cases not within the compact (*casus non fœderis*), to nullify, *of their own authority*, all assumptions of powers by others within their own limits."

Clause in resolution of 1799, *as adopted:* "The several States who formed that instrument [the Constitution], being sovereign and independent, have the unquestionable right to judge of the infraction, and a nullification *by those sovereignties* of all unauthorized acts done under color of that instrument is the rightful remedy. . . . Although this Commonwealth, as a party to the Federal compact, *will bow to the laws of the Union*, yet it does at the same time declare that it will not now, or ever hereafter, cease to oppose, *in a constitutional manner*, every attempt, at what quarter soever offered, to violate that compact."

Where you see identity I see a great difference between these two propositions. The former affirms the right of "every State," therefore of each single State, to nullify a Federal law "in cases not within the compact," and derives that right not from the Constitution but from "nature." The latter affirms the right of "the several States *which formed the Constitution*," therefore of the States collectively, to nullify unauthorized acts "in a constitutional manner"—a mode of safety and redress which lies within the lines of the Constitution, and has been exercised again and again in our national history. But neither of these propositions symbolizes with the doctrine of the latter-day disunionists, for whereas the former clause deduces the right to nullify from the law of nature, the disunionists of 1860 deduced it from their theory of the Constitution; and whereas the latter clause contemplates a nullification wrought by the combined action of all the States, agitating for change "in a constitutional manner," the disunionists of 1860 contended for a nullification or a secession to be effected by the act of any State *in its separate capacity*, and exercising then only its reserved right under the Constitution.

When you say that "there had been no dispute about the right to do every one of the five things" formulated by me from the debates in the Virginia House of Delegates on the passage of the "resolutions of '98" through that body, I venture to say that you speak unadvisedly. A question *was* formally raised by the Federalists against the first named of those "things"—a yea and nay vote was called on it—and the same question reappears in the replies of the protesting States. Indeed, it was the gravamen of *all* the opposition offered to these resolutions in Virginia, in Kentucky, and elsewhere, that, in assuming to make *legislative* declarations against the constitutionality of certain statutes, they encroached on the functions of the Federal judiciary, and on the individual right of the people to petition for redress. Beyond these points the opposition wasted itself in vague declarations against the "pernicious *tendency*" of the resolutions. But "secessionism" is not once named in these protests, so far as I can discover.

You say that the real question involved in the political discussions of 1798 was this: "Could a State, regarded as a separate sovereignty, an original party to a compact, nullify that agreement, or laws passed by the Federal Government under it, *without* securing repeal either through Congressional action or Constitutional amendment?" I affirm that, so far as my knowledge extends, no such issue was formulated, or understood to be formulated, in that whole discussion, whether as conducted by the friends or the enemies of the "resolutions of '98," and whether as waged over the series passed in Kentucky or the series passed in Virginia; but I hold this opinion subject to correction on the presentation of contemporaneous proof to the contrary from any document, book, pamphlet, letter, or newspaper relating to that topic. When you add that "the resolutions are empty of meaning if they did not refer to this," you speak positively but too narrowly in the face of scores of contemporaneous witnesses who testify to an entirely different meaning and purpose in these resolutions. For a signal illustration of such different meaning, I point to the trial of Callender, at Richmond, under the alien and sedition laws, after the passage of the "resolutions of '98," and to the report made upon it by Governor James Monroe in his annual message to the Virginia Legislature next ensuing after that trial. In that message he gives an interpretation of the resolutions which has the merit of being contemporaneous, precise, and authoritative.

I regret that in closing and clenching your remarks with a supposed citation from the Kentucky "resolutions of '98" you have been misled by inadvertently quoting from a mutilated copy. Such copies abound in the political literature of a later day, when men have often garbled the resolutions to make them sound like "secessionism." The mutilated clause, as you quote and italicise it, is given as follows:

"Whenever the general Government assumes undelegated powers, its acts are *unauthoritative, void, and of no force;* that to this compact [the Constitution] each State acceded as a State, and is an integral party; that this Government, created by this compact, was not made the exclusive or final judge of the extent of the powers delegated to itself, since that would have made its discretion, and not the Constitution, the measure of its powers; but that, *as in all other cases of compact among parties having no common judge*, each party has an equal right to judge for itself, as well of infractions as of the mode and measure of redress."

This language imports that the "each party" which is said to have an equal right to judge, "for itself," as well of infractions as of the mode and measure of redress, is each separate State, *irrespective of the judgment and control of the other States.* But the text of the resolution, *as unmutilated, affirms exactly the contrary.* Let me reproduce the clause in its textual integrity. It reads (I put the omitted parts in small capitals):

"Resolved, . . . that whensoever the general Government assumes undelegated powers, its acts are unauthoritative, void, and of no force; that to this compact each State acceded as a State, and is an integral party, ITS CO-STATES FORMING, AS TO ITSELF, THE OTHER PARTY; that the Government created by this compact was not made the exclusive or final judge of the extent of the powers delegated to itself, since that would have made its discretion, and not the Constitution, the measure of its powers; but that, as in all other cases of compact, each party [*i. e.*, each "State" and its "co-States"] has an equal right to judge for itself as well of infractions as of the mode and measure of redress." (See Bache's *Aurora*, Dec. 10, 1798; H. Marshall's 'History of Kentucky.' Frankfort, Ky. 1824. Vol. ii., p. 255.)

The "each party" *here* designated and defined is not each State acting for itself, irrespective of the judgment and authority of its "co-States," but each State standing in the presence of, and under the acknowledged judgment of, *all its sister States*, who, "as to itself," are styled "the other party," and who, as such "other party," are equally entitled to sit with it in scrutiny on any proposed mode and measure of redress. It would be impossible for language to be more precise or explicit against the whole pretension of the later disunionists. And now we see why it was that the "Resolutionists" of Kentucky and Virginia sent a copy of their declarations to each and all of the "co-States"; for these latter were "the other party" with whom Kentucky and Virgina had to account, and by whom the alleged "infractions" and the proposed "mode and measure of redress" were to be canvassed on the basis of "an equal right to judge." And now, too, we can see why John Taylor, of Caroline, speaking for his political associates in the Virginia Legislature of 1798, was compelled, in consistency with the logic of these ideas, to hold the following language: "Are the Republicans possessed of fleets and armies? If not, to what could they appeal? *To nothing except public opinion. If that should be against them, they must yield.*" (See "The Virginia Report," etc., Debate of December 20, 1798, p. 113, as republished, Richmond, J. W. Randolph, 1850.)

JAMES C. WELLING.

WASHINGTON, October 20, 1883.

[We had not expected that the discussion of a purely collateral question would lead so far from the subject of the review which started it; but the topic is an interesting one, and in treating it the facts of history must be fairly faced, *coûte que coûte*. We shall try, however, to be very brief in noticing the principal points made by Mr. Welling.

First, as to the mistake in quoting the Kentucky resolution. We copied from the resolution as passed by the Legislature and as given by Elliott, attested by the proper State officers ('Debates on the Constitution,' iv., 540). Mr. Welling has given the words of the original *draft* as found in Jefferson's works (vol. ix., 464). This makes unnecessary any further answer to the statement that the resolutions have often been garbled to make them sound like secessionism. No doubt they will be found in forms of varying inaccuracy, but unless the archives of State are searched anew, we know of no test of authenticity stronger than the copy with State officers' names attached, which Elliott gives.

Second. If the resolution had been passed in the form it had in the draft, we should only say, So much the worse for the resolution. A similar difference is found in comparing the draft of the Virginia resolutions with the adopted form. In the former "the States *alone*" had been declared to be the parties to the compact. This was opposed on the ground that it ignored the national existence and denied that the United States Government had any part in the Constitution as an agreement. The supporters of the resolution were obliged to yield, and the "alone" was struck out. So with the draft of the Kentucky resolutions, as quoted by our correspondent: it was a bolder and more explicit avowal of the same doctrine. It said that as to each State, its co-States formed "*the* other party," not *another*: there is no room for a third. The very existence of the Union as a real and corporate entity was thus denied, and the continuing consent of each State is made the immanent cause of the continuing life of the Union, for any purpose, as certain philosophers hold that the will of God is the immanent cause of the continuing existence of the universe. Neither Virginia nor Kentucky was prepared to go quite so far: hence the difference between the drafts and the adopted resolutions.

Third. The interpretation Mr. Welling argues for is the opposite of that which a logical analysis would demand if the form of the resolution had been as he assumes. If *each* party is judge of infractions, etc., and each State is one party, while the other States form the "party of the second part," it is too plain for argument that each State *may* judge "irrespective of the judgment and control of the other States." We suspect that our correspondent has confused this with another point sometimes made on the use of the plural word "States" in the Virginia resolutions. In connection with this we will say, in answer to another verbal criticism, that we certainly understand "every State" and "the several States" to mean the same thing. The word *several* is evidently used in its legal sense of "taken separately." The connection requires this, as is shown by what we have above noted in reference to "each party."

Fourth. Mr. Welling appeals to contemporaneous interpretation of the resolutions. We will refer to this in a moment, but must first say that the approved canon of interpretation is, that extraneous matter ought not to be used when the language of the instrument is unambiguous. Here is no ambiguity. The resolutions of Kentucky place no limit to the authority of each State to judge either of the infractions or of the proper redress. If the State shall regard secession as the proper mode or measure of redress, the resolutions declare the full authority to secede. Secession or nullification is thus made a question of expediency alone.

Fifth. Declarations of the constitutionality of what is done or intended do not change the character of any act. Calhoun declared his theory of nullification strictly constitutional, and Davis and his followers said the same of their acts in 1860.

Sixth. As to contemporaneous interpretation of the Kentucky resolutions in regard to secession, no authority is so conclusive as that of their author, and we will furnish it. In his letter to Wilson C. Nicholas, of September 8, 1799, Jefferson, after advising moderate present action, reserving the right "of doing in future whatever we might now rightfully do, should repetitions of these and other violations of the compact render it expedient," goes on to say that their attitude should be "that, not at all disposed to make *every* measure of error or of wrong *a cause of scission*, we are willing to look on with indulgence and to wait with patience," etc. (Jefferson's 'Works,' iv., 305). A trained logician, like our correspondent, will hardly deny that the "scission," or secession, which is refrained from as a matter of indulgence and an exercise of patience, is claimed as a right. We will add to this the opinion of a still greater man, the great leader of patriots and of the moderate men of his time. Washington, writing to Patrick Henry on January 15, 1799, said ('Works,' xi., 388) that the leaders of the Opposition were not only opposed to the General Government, but by the tendency of their measures would destroy the Union. It was therefore that he urged Henry to return to public life, saying: "At such a crisis, . . . when measures are systematically and pertinaciously pursued which must eventually *dissolve the Union, or produce coercion*, . . . ought characters who are best able to rescue their country from the pending evil to remain at home?" He closed the letter with these words: "My fear that the tranquillity of the Union, and of this State in particular, is hastening to an awful crisis, has extorted this from me." We find it difficult to see how Mr. Lincoln could have used much plainer language in 1860. If it be desired to see how the charges of secession and nullification were "formulated" by the leader of the party then in a majority in the United States, we will refer to Alexander Hamilton's works, vi., 348, and, could we afford the space, there is no dearth of material in many other quarters.

Seventh. We cannot retract our assertion that the answering resolutions of the other States give the same meaning to the declarations we are considering. New York declared them "sentiments and doctrines no less repugnant to the Constitution of the United States and the principles of their union, than *destructive to the Federal Government.*" Rhode Island said it was not only "hazarding an interruption of the peace of the States by civil discord," but leaving to a State "no resort for vindicating its opinions *but the strength of its own arm.*" Massachusetts declared that "should the respectable State of Virginia persist in the assumption of the right to declare the acts of the Government unconstitutional, and *should she oppose successfuly her force and will to those of the nation*, the Constitution would be reduced to a mere cipher." When these are read in the light of the history of the time there is but one interpretation for them, and Washington's phrase, "awful crisis," was none too strong.

Eighth. What we have said ought, as it seems to us, to be enough to make the defenders, even of the Virginia resolutions, feel that this is a fit matter for the application of the homely proverb, "Least said, soonest mended." But we again call attention to the fact that we waived discussion as to the Virginia resolutions, and explicitly directed our original remarks to those of Kentucky. The indefensible character of these last is in no other way more plainly shown than in the manner in which they were treated by Benton in his discussion of nullification in his 'Thirty Years' View.' In the resolutions introduced by Calhoun into the Senate in the winter of 1832–33, and which brought on the crisis at that time, the apostle of disunion made the Kentucky resolution which we quoted in full in our last article the doctrinal foundation of the set brought forward by him, copying its most essential phrases verbatim. But Benton, in his answering argument, says that "the *Virginia* resolutions of '98–'99 were the assumed source of the power" of nullification, and that from them Calhoun "obtained the seminal idea." He then devotes his strength to the attempt to explain away the obnoxious doctrine from the Virginia series, quoting them alone, and making no reference whatever to those of Kentucky, except when he attempts to show that Jefferson had nothing to do with the nullification resolve of '99—an attempt which came to lamentable grief when Jefferson's works were published and were found to contain the original draft of this also, and in a form which Mr. Welling thinks much worse than that in which it was adopted, though we confess we can see no substantial difference. Such a treatment of the subject as Benton's, whatever we may think of its shrewdness, is a pretty plain confession that he, at least, could find no way of defending the Kentucky resolutions. Fortunately the time has at last come when the nationality of the United States can never again be questioned, and the Union could not now be endangered, as Benton evidently thought in his time it would be, if Jefferson and Madison both are brought to bear the responsibility of their conduct in 1798 before a public opinion enlightened by impartial historical criticism.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Harper & Bros. have in press 'God and the Future Life: the Reasonableness of Christianity,' by Charles Nordhoff.

The first number of *Shakespeariana* (Leonard Scott Publishing Co., 41 Barclay Street) bears date of November, and is a fair beginning. The contributors are apparently wholly American. We think the typographical aspect less attractive than it might have been made. The special departments are Notes and Queries, the Drama, Shakespearian Societies, Reviews, Miscellany. A bibliographical sketch of the late John Payne Collier is furnished by Mr. J. Parker Norris. Six Shakspere societies or clubs are named—one in Cambridge, Mass., one in New York, two in Philadelphia, one in Atlanta, Georgia, and one in Montreal.

Some notice might fitly have been taken, in this number of *Shakespeariana*, of the Parchment Library Shakspere, already in its tenth volume, which contains "Macbeth," "Hamlet," and "Lear" (D. Appleton & Co.).

The same publishers have printed William Cobbett's English Grammar, edited by Alfred Ayres. It is but a short time ago that we noticed a life of Cobbett, also published in this city, to which the Grammar was appended. The present edition has some advantages in being apart from any life, and it is also a very pretty book, albeit in rather fine print. Mr. Ayres, in his preface, lays great stress on an "improvement" which he advocates (following, we believe, Mr. E. A. Abbott, author of the 'Shakspearian Grammar'), and which is an attempt to fix the usage of the relative *that*, so as to avoid ambiguity. The ambiguity, however, is in most cases avoided by a simple rule of punctuation, while the writer's choice (especially if he be a poet) between *that*, *which*, and *who* will always be primarily determined by euphony. Mr. Ayres has supplied a convenient index.

It is a crucial test of a modern lantern lecture to be committed to print. This has been done in the case of Mr. John L. Stoddard's lectures ('Red-Letter Days Abroad.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.), and nobody would mistake the result for a genuine book. The pointer is constantly felt, if not seen. Mr. Stoddard talks fluently of Spain, Ober-Ammergau in 1880, St. Petersburg and Moscow, and the volume is freely supplied with engravings after the slides which the stereopticon puts upon the screen in Mr. Stoddard's courses. These illustrations are fresh and well executed.

Mr. William Still, 244 South Twelfth Street, Philadelphia, has brought out a new edition of his singularly interesting work, 'Underground Railroad Records.' It will be long before the story of the systematic aid given to fugitive slaves at the North loses its romance, or fails to arouse wonder and pity in the breast of the reader. Mr. Still's narrative covers the Middle State section of the "Underground Railroad," as Levi Coffin's autobiography does the Ohio Valley section, while the Eastern operations have yet to find a chronicler. The book has an enduring place among the sources of American history during the nineteenth century. Its biographical sketches of leading abolitionists distinctly enhance its value.

A "Calendar of American History," with ornamented card and block of daily leaflets, has been compiled by Delia W. Lyman, edited by the competent hand of Mr. Henry P. Johnston, and published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. A box accompanies the block, for the preservation of the leaves as used, but one may doubt whether many will be so prudent and wisdom-loving.

In the November number of the *Magazine of American History* Mr. Alfred M. Williams's paper on "General Houston's Life among the Indians" is at least as interesting and as valuable as any in the table of contents.

Mr. Josiah Emery begins, in the *Granite Monthly* (Concord, N. H.) for October, a list of earthquakes in New England, Canada, and the Provinces, from 1638 to 1883, which was well worth making. It is not a mere record of dates, but has a certain readability.

The volume of the Washington Astronomical and Meteorological Observations for the year 1879 has just appeared. It contains, as usual, the observations made with the transit circle and the two equatorials; but, in accordance with the plan adopted a few years ago at Greenwich, and more recently at Washington, the observations are given in a much more condensed form than in the earlier volumes. In the meteorological section, also, the same plan has been adopted for the first time, and only the results of the observations are given. That these changes are for the better will be acknowledged by every one who has been accustomed to consult the Washington observations frequently. The volume has two appendices, the first of which, by Prof. Asaph Hall, contains a very interesting discussion of the extensive series of observations which Professor Hall made on α Lyræ and its companion, and sixty-one Cygni and a small star near it, to determine the relative parallaxes of each pair. Professor Hall's results substantially confirm the results of preceding investigations on these stars. The second appendix contains a determination of the semi-diameter of the moon from two occultations of the Pleiades in 1877 and 1879, by Prof. H. M. Paul, sometime assistant astronomer at the Naval Observatory, and late Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy in the University of Tokio, Japan. These occultations have been very skilfully discussed by Professor Paul, and the paper may be regarded as a valuable contribution to the literature of the most puzzling and baffling problem of physical astronomy, the lunar theory.

The October Bulletin of the Mercantile Library of Philadelphia gives a timely list of references to works on Luther and the Restoration, by the librarian, Mr. John Edmands. Though limited to works accessible to the patrons of the Library, it is, of course, of general utility.

The unusually low proportion of fiction to other classes of literature issued by the Mitchell Library, Glasgow, which we lately commented upon, seems to find its explanation in the fact that the library has only a small number of works of fiction. The managers, without excluding fiction altogether, seek to supply the public with works of utility rather than of mere entertainment. There is considerable demand for fiction among the frequenters of the library. In 1882 the "turnover," or number of times the whole of the works belonging to the class fiction was issued, was 97.93, while the turnover of the class history and biography was 19.51.

There has recently been published in London the second edition of a tiny little volume by Mr. C. T. Buckland, called 'Whist for Beginners' (London: W. H. Allen & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford), which may be highly recommended to all who desire to learn the art and mystery of the modern game, and who may have been deterred from the more elaborate treatises of Cavendish and Clay by the preliminary experience and knowledge of the game which these works demand. Mr. Buckland begins at the beginning, and shows the novice how he ought to play at each stage of the game, and why he ought to play thus and not otherwise. His instructions are plain and simple, and easy to understand. The player who has mastered his thirty-two paragraphs—for the book is brief enough to be read through in ten minutes—ought to be able to play whist fairly well, and he certainly is ready for the higher mathematics of Cavendish and J. C.

—Dodd, Mead & Co. have published an exceptionally fine edition, in three volumes, of 'The Dramatic Works of Richard Brinsley Sheridan,' with an introduction by Mr. Richard Grant White. The printing has been done by Theodore L. De Vinne & Co., who sign and number every one of the 30 copies on Japanese paper, and of the 318 on Dutch paper. The books are sent out with uncut tops and rough edges, and cased in neat boards with paper labels, much as books were always sent out before the invention of cloth binding. There is an etching in each volume, by way of frontispiece, by Mr. G. W. H. Ritchie; but of these the least said the better. That to the first volume reproduces the famous portrait by Sir Joshua Reynolds, now in the possession of Lord Kennaird, and that to the third volume is a copy of the scarce engraving after Corbould. The text is an exact reprint of

the Murray edition of 1821, which bore Moore's name, although he disclaimed having had anything to do with it, and therefore we find in the first volume the worthless farce of "The Camp," long attributed to Sheridan, although it was really the work of his wife's sister's husband, Tickell. Mr. White's introduction fills some forty pages, and is, of course, lively and entertaining, but cannot be relied upon implicitly. For instance, Sheridan's early friend, Halhed, who lived to be a distinguished Orientalist, figures here as "Haled." And now and again we feel compelled to dissent from Mr. White's judgments —the assertion, for example, that Sheridan had no humor, and the declaration that the "Critic," which divides with the Garrick-Townley "High Life Below Stairs" the honor of being the best farce in the English language, does not rise "to the plane of literature." But in general Mr. White is more generous to Sheridan than he has been to Shakspere, and some of his criticisms are not without value. He shows, for one thing, how slight was Sheridan's share in the alteration of the "Relapse," acted as the "Trip to Scarborough," and he has a pertinent passage on the want of permanent value in Sheridan's orations. But we should like to have chapter and verse for some of the highly apocryphal anecdotes with which Mr. White has freely enlivened his essay.

—We confess our capacity to welcome without a blush, and to admire freely, the uniform edition of Matthew Arnold's prose works manufactured abroad by Messrs. Macmillan exclusively for the American market. We pity only the English public which is denied it. For the intrinsic worth of its contents as well as for the example which it sets of handsome yet cheap bookmaking—for its example as well as for its contents—we welcome it with both hands. If there is any political maxim or policy which hinders our getting such works in abundance, we are opposed to it. If the republic has suffered any harm by reason of this happy thought of the English publishers, we cannot calculate it. In an essay in one of these seven volumes, on Copyright, Mr. Arnold even gives in his adhesion to an American idea that international copyright should be accompanied by the condition of manufacturing in the country which protects. He concludes by saying: "The Americans ought not to submit to our absurd system of dear books. I am sure they will not; and, as a lover of civilization, I should be sorry, though I am an author, if they did. I hope the Americans will give us copyright. But I hope, also, that they will stick to Michel Lévy's excellent doctrine: 'Cheap books are a necessity, and a necessity which need bring, moreover, no loss to either authors or publishers.'" One more quotation from this same essay will perhaps still further conciliate purchasers: "I have never received, from first to last, a hundred pounds from America, though my books have been, I believe, much reprinted there." As we said in announcing this edition, the Poems are wanting, though American admirers of them are not. The handy form, clear print, and comely binding in wine-colored cloth make the present series equally fit for ornament and for daily use.

—Our readers know of the wars of the boarder and the cottager, and of the complaints of the lover of nature that so little nature is left accessible to him. It is slight satisfaction to see that the French are as badly off as we, in a different way. The success of Trouville has led to the establishment of similar watering-places, with gigantic hotels, fine villas, casino, and all that this implies in the way of balls, and concerts, and plays, and fairs, and juggling, to say nothing of races and pigeon-shooting and the like. This is not what we want, says the lover of nature; we go to the seaside for the sea. We can hear Mme. Judic and Mme. Théo and Mlle. Garnier in Paris all winter long. Why should we travel a great distance, at considerable expense, to hear them all summer under less favorable circumstances? No sooner have we found a quiet nook with a little beach, where one can bathe and the children can dig to their heart's content, where fashion is unknown, where the boys can go barefoot and madame wear a *peignoir* all day, where meat is still fourteen sous a pound, and butter twenty-four, and the primitive inn charges only four francs a day, with no extras—no sooner have we discovered this paradise than some indiscreet person lets out the secret in the hearing of a speculator, and straightway a company is formed which replaces the humble *auberge* with a palace of three hundred rooms, and prices in proportion, and manners to correspond. No more bare feet, no more *peignoirs*. The picturesque basalt and the colored granite are blasted to build the walls; the undulating ground is laid out in regular terraces, the woods are cut down to supply funds. Oaks and elms, willows and poplars, give place to wretched plantations of sycamores which will not grow. Straight boulevards bordered by pretentious houses take the place of winding country ways, with their charming cottages with moss-covered roofs. Even if the speculation fails, and the great hotel is left empty—which the lover of nature may be pardoned for hoping it will—the place is ruined for ever. If the venture succeeds, a new evil follows which does not generally accompany our watering-places. The pretty brook that flows through the neighboring valley is seen by some visitor to be just the place for a factory and the foundation of a philanthropic *cité ouvrière*. The reeds and the ferns and all the rustic beauty are gone, and the lover of nature as well as the man with a slender purse must move on to some yet uncorrupted fishing village, which it is becoming difficult to find. The very churches yield to this incursion of Parisian civilization. The ancient Gothic church of the village, sheltered by venerable trees, and filled with curious inscriptions, no longer suits the curé; he gets up a subscription among the fashionable visitors and rebuilds it. What little is left of old French costume disappears at the same time. "Formerly," says the writer from whose long jeremiad we have condensed this statement of evils—"formerly, when one came back from England, one was refreshed by the sight of those pretty little headdresses, white as snow, which gave so neat and attractive an air to the faces they enclosed, and made one forget the feeling of sadness and disgust inspired by the shabby clothes and bonnets adorned with hideous artificial flowers that one had seen on the drunken women in the London streets. But now the peasant wears the old bonnets and last year's dresses left behind by the summer visitors. You may see them going from house to house to collect food for the pig, which is the only being that has not yet been metamorphosed."

—Detailed descriptions of the funeral of Ivan Turgeneff make it clear that the organs of the Russian Government did their best to render the national celebration a pedantically stiff and lifeless affair, and turn it as much as possible into a pageant with which the Church was mostly concerned. The demeanor of the public, however—and all Russia, from the Vistula to the Amoor, was represented by delegations—was all that could be expected under the aggravating circumstances. The whole nation paid silent, dignified, worshipful homage to its most illustrious representative before the world, and scrupulously abstained from anything calculated to provoke the least collision with the gendarmerie or the troops, who covered the capital, and to mar the honors bestowed upon the memory of the dead by converting his coffin into a signal for a political demonstration. All unofficial Russia bore emblems of mourning, except—among things visible on the surface—Katkoff's Moscow *News* and his friend Ivan Aksakoff's *Russ*'. Aksakoff, the fanatical Slavophil, acted no doubt from principle, deeming it sinful to express admiration for the career of a Russian whose sentiments and political convictions were so much in harmony with those of the west of Europe, and who preferred the banks of the Seine to those of the Moskva for his permanent abode. Katkoff's rigid coldness on the occasion is generally ascribed to a personal grudge; for, years ago, when Turgeneff appeared at St. Petersburg to participate in the celebration of the unveiling of the poet Pushkin's statue, the reactionary journalist suffered the affront of the novelist's refusing at a banquet to drink with him to the reconciliation of all parties. Katkoff, who, twenty years ago, succeeded in destroying the extraordinary prestige which surrounded Alexander Hertzen, evidently now deems himself strong enough to stem the powerful current of affection for Turgeneff which all Europe shares with Russia.

—Strong in his standing in governmental and court circles, he was not satisfied with ostentatiously abstaining from partaking in the national demonstrations of grief and mourning, but had the boldness to assail directly the memory of the idolized liberal novelist, while his dead body was being conveyed homeward to be buried, as he had wished it, between the remains of Bielinski and Dobroliuboff. The weapon for attack was eminently well chosen. Turgeneff's fame rests in part on his pictures of Nihilism, intended both to reveal and combat that shadowy monster. Now, Katkoff published in the Moscow *News* a letter of Peter Lavroff, the editor of the Nihilistic journal *Vpered* (*Forward*), published in London, in which the startling revelation was made that Turgeneff had for years contributed an annual subsidy of 500 francs for the maintenance of that organ. Lavroff probably revealed this secret in order to make capital for his sect, and also to induce the Russian Government to prohibit the solemn celebration of Turgeneff's funeral—a prohibition which might have led to seditious outbreaks. The truth of the statement Lavroff's known character made it hard to impugn. Its force, however, was blunted by explanations of two intimate friends of the deceased, men of high standing, to the effect that the subsidy was paid to Lavroff as an old personal acquaintance of Turgeneff, and paid only because the latter was afraid of the suspicion of avarice and hypocrisy if he refused help to the struggling exile under the pretext of a vital difference in their political opinions. The Government was wise enough to show its forbearance by ignoring Lavroff's communication, and the public was more shocked by his indiscretion than by the surprising evidence of Turgeneff's lack of firmness in standing by his well-known principles. Katkoff himself eventually came out with another explanation, according to which Turgeneff's contribution to the funds of the *Vpered* was paid as a kind of yearly ransom, insuring his personal safety from attacks at the hands of fanatical antagonists.

—Heine's much-talked-of memoirs are at last to be published, though their authenticity is still a matter of discussion in German and French newspapers. The owner of the manuscript, M. Henri Julia, it seems, has received several offers

from prominent Leipzig and Berlin publishers, and, among others who have expressed their faith in the authenticity of the memoirs, M. "Paul d'Abrest" has written a long article in *L'Événement*, in which he relates their early history. He says that Alfred Meissner, one of Heine's most intimate friends, who always expressed himself as convinced that the memoirs existed, used to refer to M. Julia as a witness to the fact. On the other hand, the Paris correspondent of the *Schlesische Zeitung* throws strong doubts on the genuineness of M. Julia's manuscript, which, he asserts, has been vainly offered to more than one German publisher; and Baron Gustav Heine, in Vienna, maintains, as before, that he alone is in possession of his brother's memoirs, that he has no intention of publishing them, and that M. Julia's manuscript is a forgery. Furthermore, a niece of Heine living in Berlin writes to the *Börsen Courier* that M. Julia was never very intimate with the poet, that he is not, as stated, the executor of his widow, and that he simply bought of Mathilde's heiress whatever manuscripts had been in the possession of the former. They consisted, she asserts, solely of matter which has already appeared in print, and of letters from Heine's friends. Still other opinions are heard. It will be remembered (see *Nation*, No. 930) that, immediately after the death of Mathilde Heine, Herr Gustav Karpeles, a competent authority, expressed in the Berlin *Gegenwart* his conviction of the authenticity of a small manuscript in Mathilde's possession, entitled "Meine Memoiren," while pronouncing it, however, of slight literary value, since it was merely a rough draft of the work in Baron Gustav Heine's hands. In a few weeks light will be thrown on this curious matter, for a counterfeit of Heine, if attempted, is not likely to be successful.

—The first important concert of the season was given on Saturday evening in the Brooklyn Academy of Music. Until within a year or two our orchestral concerts were generally preceded by a dozen or more semi-private concerts, given by music teachers and others, chiefly for the sake of the publicity gained thereby. These entertainments have fortunately disappeared, so that concert-goers may now enjoy the privilege of receiving their first impressions after the vacation from the superb body of instrumentalists composing the Philharmonic Society. So thoroughly have these artists been trained by Mr. Theodore Thomas that they were able to play at the Friday afternoon public rehearsal with a precision, rhythmic swing, and delicacy which make the statement appear almost incredible that they have not been playing together for several months; and at the evening concert there was added the warmth of feeling and the poetic glamour which can seldom be conjured in the day-time. The opening piece was the Eroica Symphony, in which an interesting and, as the result proved, justifiable experiment was tried. Our modern orchestras are larger than they were in the days of Beethoven, the addition of complemental brass instruments rendering it necessary to increase the number of violins. If all these strings are retained in the performance of a classical symphony—and it is desirable that they should be retained—it is necessary to increase the number of wood-wind instruments so as not to disturb the proper balance of parts. This was done in the Eroica, and the result was a richness and sonority very agreeable to the ear. When a conductor takes liberties with a score in accordance with principles that would doubtless have induced the composer to do the same thing under the same circumstances, no one but a petrified pedant would object to them; and such pedants fortunately do not seem to exist in this country, although there are plenty of them in the Old World. The Eroica was followed by an air from Handel's "Theodora," sung by Mme. Trebelli. It was not a happy selection, for Mme. Trebelli is not an oratorio singer, and Handel's arias have less individuality, as a rule, than a number of leaves picked from the same tree. But when she subsequently sang "Che farò," from Gluck's "Orpheus," all the beauty of her voice and her powers of dramatic expression were made manifest. The audience applauded with unusual enthusiasm. Between these two vocal pieces came the novelty of the occasion, the Scotch Rhapsody "Burns," by Mr. A. C. Mackenzie. It contains three connected movements, Molto maestoso, Andante, and Vivace, and is based on three poems of Burns: "Scots, wha hae wi' Wallace bled," "She's fair and fause that causes me smart," "I cott a stane o' haslock woo'." As the name indicates, it is an instrumental fantasia in which a few melodies are joined together so as to form a mosaic colored with a few national peculiarities, including a short phrase suggesting a bagpipe, without which, of course, no piece of the kind would be acceptable. The rhapsody is interesting, and shows that the composer is a master of the art of instrumentation, as might be expected of one who wrote an opera in conjunction with Mr. Hueffer, the ablest exponent in England of the principles of the modern music drama. This opera, "Colomba," was produced in London last winter with success, and is now being performed by Mr. Carl Rosa in various English cities. Mr. Thomas has shown on various occasions that he is not unduly partial to German music, but is anxious to secure interesting novelties from every available source. In this respect he is like his great Viennese colleague, Hans Richter, who has also repeatedly given Cowen, D'Albert, and other English composers an opportunity to be heard outside of London. It is evident that there is much greater promise in the works of these younger composers than there ever was in the Mendelssohn echoes collated by the older English composers, Bennett, Benedict, Macfarren. They derive their inspiration from all the great masters of different countries, and base their instrumentation on the two best models, Wagner and Berlioz. Berlioz, it should be added, was represented at the concert from which we have thus digressed by the charming ball scene from "Romeo and Juliet."

ANTHONY TROLLOPE.

An Autobiography, by Anthony Trollope. Harper & Brothers.

MR. TROLLOPE'S Autobiography takes a hold upon the reader at the beginning, and keeps it to the end. While it is, as a matter of course, not free from his marked peculiarities of style, it is exceptionally free from the faults that make some of this author's books at times so wearisome: chief among them being a tendency to prolixity and repetition. Of this tendency there are a few slight traces at the outset, but they disappear as the work progresses. There are no dull or tedious or even heavy pages, although some of the chapters are taken up with the discussion of political and social questions not rigidly within the scope of the book. The peculiar charm is owing in great measure to the consummate art displayed in telling the story. Thinking it all over, one finds that Mr. Trollope had not much more of a story to tell than Mr. Canning's knife-grinder, but what he has to tell is told with great skill. This seems a surprise, for we have never been accustomed to regard Mr. Trollope as a literary artist. It appears, however, that he has always attached great importance to style. He recurs to this point again and again. He dwells upon the necessity of writing in pellucid language, of being intelligible and harmonious. This he considers to be more essential in novels than in other works. A reader may take trouble, he says, to get at the meaning of a history or a book of science, because such books are read from a sense of duty and from motives of self-improvement; but a novel is read for pleasure only, and if it cannot be read with pleasure the reader will not go on with it.

Another quality flavors the Autobiography, which is far from abundant in the novels. It is evident that Mr. Trollope possesses a fund of humor on which he has drawn but sparingly in his fiction. He introduces a few anecdotes with telling effect, and one can readily understand his popularity in society and as a diner-out. But perhaps the great attraction of the book is its utter frankness. It is a manly, unaffected, bluff, English sort of frankness. It gives the reader the impression that he has made the acquaintance of an honest, loyal, amiable gentleman, who on his way through the world did his work faithfully and energetically, and took as much pleasure in life as he could rightfully contrive to secure. This frankness becomes a source of amusement when the author speaks of his books, which he often praises and occasionally finds fault with, in the most unreserved manner, and with all a parent's fondness for the offspring of his brain. With the usual perversity of authors, he thinks most of the books which the public has neglected and holds in comparative disesteem, the most meritorious.

Mr. Trollope's boyhood was not a pleasant one. His family surroundings were far from commonplace, and had more resemblance to fiction than to real life. His father was that familiar character of English novelists, a reduced gentleman. A chancery barrister of good abilities, he lost his practice through an ungovernable temper and lost his money through injudicious attempts at farming. He sent his boys to Harrow and to Winchester, intending that they should go to Oxford. The oldest, Thomas Adolphus, did go there, but not Anthony. The latter left Harrow at nineteen to enter the civil service. He says that during the twelve years that he had been at school no attempt had been made to teach him anything but Latin and Greek, and very little attempt to teach those languages; and that from first to last there was nothing satisfactory in his school career except the way in which he licked a boy who had to be taken home to be cured. Mr. Trollope's mother was a voluminous authoress, who is now chiefly remembered for her celebrated book on 'The Domestic Manners of the Americans.' This, her first book, was published when she was fifty years of age, and its great success encouraged her to enter upon authorship as a profession. For more than twenty years she supported her family by her writings, which filled 114 volumes. During that time she saw four of her children and her husband carried off by consumption, and nursed them through their sickness while pursuing her literary tasks with unflagging industry.

When Anthony Trollope secured an appointment in the Post-office he had never learned the multiplication table, and had no more idea of the rule of three than of conic sections. The manner in which he was examined and admitted he afterward described in 'The Three Clerks,' in the chapter relating the admission of Charley Tudor into the Internal Navigation Office. In other respects he also resembled that wild young gentleman. During the seven years that he remained in his first position he was regarded as a worthless scapegrace who was habitually un-

punctual, always in debt, and always getting into trouble of some sort. One comical scene in 'The Three Clerks' is based on an incident that actually befell him. A young woman in the country had got it into her head that he ought to marry her, and this idea culminated in the incident referred to.

"At last the mother appeared at the Post-office. My hair almost stands on my head now as I remember the figure of the woman walking into the big room in which I sat, with six or seven other clerks, having a large basket on her arm and an immense bonnet on her head. The messenger had vainly endeavored to persuade her to remain in the ante-room. She followed the man in, and, walking up the centre of the room, addressed me in a loud voice: 'Anthony Trollope, when are you going to marry my daughter?' We have all had our worst moments, and that was one of my worst. I lived through it, however, and did not marry the young lady."

Up to his twenty-sixth year there was nothing in Mr. Trollope's life to presage a distinguished or even a useful career. By a fortunate chance, however, he received at this time an appointment as clerk to one of the Post-office surveyors in Ireland. The place was looked upon as undesirable, but proved a great boon to him. His income, which had been £90 a year in London, rose at once to £400. The bad reputation which had clung to him no longer acted as a clog upon his efforts at reform, and he had an opportunity to make a fresh start. The good use he made of his opportunity shows that if we accept the French aphorism that every one has the defects of his qualities, we can temper it with the consoling reflection that every one has the qualities of his defects. In his new position Mr. Trollope displayed great energy, and made himself very useful and popular. When he had been in Ireland three years he was married, and a year after his marriage his first novel was finished. This was 'The Macdermots of Ballycloran,' which never had much success, although he says it is a good novel. It was published on half profits, but the author received nothing for it. Nevertheless, he continued writing, and his second book, 'The Kellys and the O'Kellys,' also an Irish story, appeared in 1848, when he had reached his thirty-fourth year. This was published on the same terms as the other, and with the same pecuniary result or non-result. A friend of Mr. Trollope had obtained a half promise from an influential quarter that the book should be noticed in the *Times*, and noticed it actually was, as follows:

"Of 'The Kellys and the O'Kellys' we may say what the master said to his footman when the man complained of the constant supply of legs of mutton on the kitchen table: 'Well, John, legs of mutton are good substantial food'; and we may also say what John replied: 'Substantial, sir; yes, they are substantial, but a little coarse.'"

Without waiting to ascertain the success of his second book, Mr. Trollope had gone to work on his third, 'La Vendée,' an historical novel, for which he received £20. This amount, small as it was, he admits was not earned, but only "talked out of" the publisher by the earnestness of his brother; and he records his surprise at "the ease with which publishers can occasionally be persuaded to throw away small sums of money." Earned or not earned, however, this £20 was all he ever gained by his literary work up to his forty-first year, when 'The Warden' was published, and when he had been writing books and articles for twelve years. The amount of official work he did, and by which he made his living, would have worn out a less able-bodied man. As he had a passion for fox-hunting and kept three horses, the only way he could make both ends meet was by riding on an average forty miles a day, for which the Post-office paid him sixpence a mile. It was his business to go about the country and find out whether the rural delivery of letters was satisfactory and prompt. For neither in England, nor in France, nor in Germany is the free delivery of letters confined to cities, as is our American custom.

The real start of Mr. Trollope's literary success was made with 'The Warden,' published in 1855. The remarkable thing about this book is, that although conceived in the realistic spirit which is the distinguishing trait of all that Mr. Trollope has written since, its characters were not drawn from real life, but were evolved from the depths of his own consciousness. It is a surprise to learn that this is true of the Archdeacon and of Tom Towers, of 'The *Jupiter*.' In 1857, 'Barchester Towers' was published, and was rapidly followed by 'The Three Clerks' and 'Doctor Thorne.' It is again worthy of notice that the weakest of the three is the very one which is based on actual life, being drawn in great part from the author's own early experiences, while the other two, though mainly works of pure imagination, derive their chief charm from their apparent realism. The literary reputation which Mr. Trollope had by this time acquired was out of all proportion to the small amount of pay he had received, which, however, was now beginning to rise in amount. 'The Three Clerks' he sold to Mr. Bentley for £250, and made it a practice to sell all his books for so much cash down, allowing the publishers to make all they could afterward. For 'Doctor Thorne' he received £400. Most of his readers probably look upon this as his best book, and perhaps it is for that reason that its author expresses a rather poor opinion of it.

By this time Mr. Trollope had framed for himself a rigid code of laws for the regulation of his work. When one book was finished, he at once began writing another. He prepared a diary, divided into as many weeks as he had set apart in his mind for the completion of the work. In this diary he entered each day the amount of work done, which had to average 40 pages a week, and ranged, according to circumstances, from 20 to 112 pages a week, each page containing 250 words by actual count. When he made a bargain with a publisher, he determined in his own mind how many words the book should contain. He prides himself on never having "put a book out of hand short of the number by a single word," and also "that the excess has been very small." His writing has been done in railway carriages, on steamers, at his desk at half-past 5 in the morning; and he had at last so trained himself that every day he wrote for three hours, writing 250 words every fifteen minutes as regularly as his watch went. The three hours were not actually devoted to writing; a half-hour being consumed in reading what was written the day before, so as to produce a proper continuity of tone.

In 1860 Mr. Trollope's reputation was so firmly established that he was invited to furnish a novel for the *Cornhill Magazine*, which was then about to be established, with Thackeray as editor. The first number was to come out on December 31, and, two months before, Mr. Trollope was informed that the first portion of his novel must be ready by December 12. Although the notice was short, his system of industry enabled him to respond in due time with the opening chapters of 'Framley Parsonage,' which undoubtedly added much to his fame, as it also laid the foundation of his fortune. And, strange as it may seem, it was only at this time, in his forty-sixth year, that he first became personally acquainted with the literary world of London. Henceforth his progress was rapid. He was now regularly in the receipt of from £3,000 to £3,500 for each of his longer books. At the close of his Autobiography he gives a list of all his works and of the sums received for them. The total is about £70,000, earned in about twenty-three years, and would probably have been much more if he had retained his copyrights. He thinks he has written more than any other living English author. He has undoubtedly given much innocent amusement to tens of thousands of readers who were greatly in need of it, and he has secured a respectable position in the rich English literature of our century.

ALLEN'S CHRISTIAN HISTORY.

Christian History in its Three Great Periods. First Period: Early Christianity: Second Period: The Middle Age; Third Period: Modern Phases. By J. H. Allen. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1883. 3 vols. 12mo.

THE mediæval theocracy of Rome is an historical fact, anomalous and unprecedented. So absolute an authority over the temporal and spiritual welfare of nations has existed nowhere else in the development of social institutions. It arose from the humblest beginnings, and grew imperceptibly amid surroundings that appear, externally at least, most unfavorable to its progress. The age of its culmination was one in which the moral forces seem, to modern eyes, utterly unfitted to cope with the fierce turmoil of brute strength. It offers thus an historical enigma, the solution of which is a task most attractive to the earnest student, and it is no wonder that the quest is undertaken again and again.

The primary fact which appears on the surface is this: Other religions have taught as earnestly as Christianity the terrors of the hereafter for the sinner and the final bliss of the righteous. The eschatologies of Egypt, Iran, India, Islam are as rich as, or perhaps richer than, that of Christendom, but they all place the future fate of the individual in his own hands, and he finds in the world to come the simple retribution or reward of his earthly career. Christianity alone dared not only to make its sacred class mediators between man and God, but to clothe them with such portion of the divine power that they controlled the destiny of every believing soul, which through their ministrations might hope for Paradise, or under their malediction be plunged into the endless night of torment. During the ages in which the hopes and fears of the future were realized by the average man with a vividness difficult to understand in our more critical and sceptical generation, a power such as this was transmutable into almost every other power.

It is easy thus to recognize the forces at work, but the process through which they resulted in papal absolutism is not so easy to follow. This process was not regular, but intermittent. At times it was arrested, or even forced to retrograde; at times it is lost to view in the tumultuous clash of opposing elements. Much of the material for tracing it has not come down to us, and what has reached us has passed through the hands of those who were interested, consciously or unconsciously, in suppressing or modifying all evidence that threw light on the real origin of privileges for which a divine origin was claimed. The process, therefore, can only be worked out by a patient examination of trivial incidents, each of itself unworthy a place in the pages of the historian. Yet it is thus alone that we can recognize the tendencies resulting in the revolutions which appear so conspicuously in European annals, and which, considered as isolated events, appear so causeless and so unnatural.

Without specifically undertaking the elucidation of this marvellous problem, Mr. Allen's book is unavoidably, in great part, devoted to

it; for no one can treat of "Christian history" without attempting to depict this, its most portentous feature. His treatment of it, however, is manifestly inadequate, and based upon insufficient research. He fails to grasp the fundamental fact that, in the anarchy consequent upon the breaking up of the Carolingian system, the Church succeeded in emancipating itself from the subjection in which it had always previously been held by the state, and thus obtained the vantage-ground from which it was enabled to use so successfully its spiritual artillery in its contest with its rival, Feudalism. In this period, the turning point in the history of modern civilization, Mr. Allen is conspicuously at fault. The Forged Decretals, which were the instrument whereby the Church overcame the state, he regards as merely a "counter-assertion on the part of the Church, seriously alarmed at the encroachment of the state on its spiritual domain" (ii., 17)—which is simply a confession of entire misapprehension of the whole previous course of Church history since the conversion of Constantine. Indeed, it was inevitable then, and for nearly a thousand years afterward, that the Church should be subjected to the state, or the state to the Church. Not the least important contribution of America to sociology is that happy adjustment of relations which, for the first time, renders possible Cavour's favorite formula of "libera chiesa in libero stato," which was manifestly impracticable in mediæval monarchies, where the sole religion was Latin Christianity, with its claims to regulate the whole life of man, temporal and spiritual, here and hereafter. Mr. Allen's account of the Isidorian forgeries, moreover, is wholly incomplete. No allusion is made to their precursor, the Canons of Ingilram, a comparison with which is indispensable to render intelligible their composition and reception. There is no mention of Riculfus of Mentz, their distributor and probable compiler, nor of Benedict the Levite, who so skilfully interwove them with the Capitularies. Nor is it easy to understand the assertion (ii., 16) that "it is some three hundred years since there has been any question or pretence as to their genuineness." It is true that Wicklif suspected their spuriousness, but it was not until the seventeenth century was well advanced that David Blondel vindicated his heretical views with respect to them against the earnest defence of Torrea, Malvasia, Cardinal Aguirre, and others; and even toward the close of the century the boldest of the series of forgeries, the Donation of Constantine, was still referred to as genuine by the learned Christian Wolff.

There is also some lack of accurate and definite knowledge in Mr. Allen's account of the origin of the Reformation — the other great event in Christian history. It should, indeed, be evident *à priori* that only a deep and widespread dissatisfaction among the people, as well as among their rulers, could have led so large a portion of Christendom to throw off the hereditary veneration which had become an integral part of daily life. When, therefore, our author says of the Church of the Reformation period (iii., 5), "its iniquities and oppressions were to most men a far-away and uncertain rumor," he utters a paradox from which he would have been preserved by a more intimate acquaintance with the interior life of the ecclesiastical body and its relations with the laity—the tithes which bore severely upon every peasant, the grinding taxes caused by the annates, the enormous sums raised by the sale of indulgences, the constant torment caused by the ecclesiastical courts in the rapacious chase after fees, the countless wrongs for which redress was barred by the immunity of the clergy, the hearty dislike and contempt provoked by the universal licentiousness of the clerical class. That the "iniquities and oppressions" of the Church were deeply felt by the lower strata of society is, in fact, sufficiently manifested by the thousands who, for two centuries, had gathered around any one bold enough to denounce them—Dolcino, Wicklif, Huss, Conrad Schmidt, Hans of Niklaushausen, Savonarola, and other precursors of the Reformation.

The fact is, that Mr. Allen has attempted the impossible. In the compass of three small volumes, in large type, he endeavors to convey a view of "Christian history" from the birth of Christ to the present time—that is, the history of the Church in its infinite relations with the development of society and the progress of civilization. The task is one to tax the resources of the most accomplished scholar, and to require a space many times greater than the author has assigned to it. Within this space it could only be a bald epitome of facts or a series of more or less connected fragments, and the latter is what the author has produced. It is only just to add that Mr. Allen's sympathies are always on the right side, while he is liberal almost to a fault toward the other side. The book is thus pervaded with a wholesome spirit, and, while its statements are not always to be depended on, its general influence on its readers cannot fail to be beneficial.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

Mr. Charles Nordhoff's neglect of his early production, 'Man-of-War Life: a Boy's Experience in the U. S. Navy' (Dodd, Mead & Co. will be resented by every youthful reader of this graphic picture of a bygone time. The book appeared first in 1855, when it was still true enough to the life, though the events recorded occurred some ten years earlier. It is now history, and at every succeeding decade its value will be found to have increased instead of diminished. Mr. Nordhoff had so far forgotten his bantling that it was a surprise to him when the publishers told him it was still alive, and offered to print it anew if he would select a few pictures for it. In complying, he did the best he could within the range allowed him, but the book was worthy of special engravings, of a higher grade. For the rest, Mr. Nordhoff has left the text untouched—rightly so, for the most part. But some slight revisions in style might have been expected, and a foot-note here and there would have served a useful purpose. The comparison between the Chinese and the Japanese, for example, so greatly to the disadvantage of the former, was manifestly based on very different opportunities of seeing and judging *like classes* of the two nations. In these days of anti-Chinese prejudice and hatred, would it not have been wholesome to correct youthful opinions, hastily formed by observations from a ship's deck, by the writer's mature knowledge of the people here unqualifiedly condemned? Considering, too, that this little work is an interesting fragment of autobiography, should we not have forgiven a comment on the vow never to return to California—"which *I* have kept," as we read on page 296? But enough of criticism where the main execution has a classic excellence. The book is a good antidote for an unreasoning desire to go to sea before the mast. At the same time it will gratify harmless curiosity about life afloat, describing technical matters with great clearness. It may be read with any juvenile history of the Mexican war, or of the American navy. Some glimpses are given of the shocking brutalities once legally practised on our men-of-war. Steam and the abolition of the cat have done much to improve the seaman's condition, which nevertheless still saddens and perplexes the philanthropist.

Mr. A. G. Riddle's 'Hart and his Bear' (Washington: W. H. Morrison) is a story of life in the Ohio woods sixty or seventy years ago. On first opening the book, the rough style, the sometimes abominable syntax, the vexatious interruptions to the narrative proceeding from an imaginary circle of listeners, combine to make it seem unreadable; but further examination discloses enough of interest to cause one to forget in a measure the faulty diction. The descriptions of sounds and sights in the forest are graphic, and show a genuine love of nature, with considerable poetic feeling. Accounts of hunting and trapping are numerous and in full detail. As the author alleges personal acquaintance with the place and period which he describes, his accounts of plants and animals, as well as of the life of the people, should be correct. The story awakens sympathy. Portions of it are exceedingly sad—perhaps more so than one would wish a very susceptible child to read. At any rate, the book is not adapted to any one under twelve years of age. Almost all that is said of theology and kindred matters should have been omitted, and it is easy to see how out of place in a book written for children are such things as presentiments and super-intense dreams.

The marked success of Mr. James Baldwin's 'Story of Siegfried' last year prepared us for equally good work in his 'Story of Roland' (Scribners), and we have not been disappointed. The hero, to be sure, is not always in the foreground, and, such as the legends and the poets have represented him, would not have filled out the scheme of this plump book of 400 pages. So beside him figure his brother warriors, with his king and uncle, and the book might nearly as well have been called 'Charlemagne and his Knights.' Mr. Baldwin has culled from a wide range of epics, French, Italian, and German, and has once more proved his aptitude as a story-teller for the young, while conveying information for which many of their elders will be thankful. As in the previous work, notes, grouped as an appendix, elucidate the narrative and point to its sources—among which the 'Chanson de Roland' plays an altogether subordinate part, in the final chapter. Had Mr. Baldwin been familiar with Mrs. Follen's version of Uhland's poem of the boy Roland, he might have preferred it to the prose paraphrase which supplies so much of the interest of the first chapter; and he would, we think, at least have given it in the notes. The print is large and the illustrations fairly good.

Mr. Richard Markham, with his 'Chronicle of the Cid' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), had an easier task. He has borrowed freely from Southey, interspersing metrical fragments from Frere and Ormsby and Lockhart, and adding notes in an appendix. The result will not, we apprehend, appeal to the youthful imagination as forcibly or as pleasantly as the story of Roland; but this is not the compiler's fault. The print of this volume is bold and handsome; the illustrations are inartistic.

One of the pleasant stories which *St. Nicholas* so constantly offers its readers has been Mr. W. O. Stoddard's 'Among the Lakes' (Scribners). It is a narrative of life at a delightful country home, where city cousins and country cousins are reunited during the summer. It is quiet and healthful in tone, and full of mirth and cheerfulness. Piney Hunter, the country boy, is a remarkably fine fellow. Bi, the city youth, has also points of excellence, though he does not especially rouse our admiration. Any boy or girl, from eight to fourteen, ought to enjoy the book thoroughly.

Mr. J. T. Trowbridge's 'Phil and his Friends' (Boston: Lee & Shepard) first appeared as a serial in the *Youth's Companion*. In tone and style we find it inferior to 'Among the Lakes.' The account of Phil's troubles and of his struggles out of them is decidedly interesting, but the book has the fault, so common in stories in which a boy is the hero, of putting him too much on a level with men: the real boy element is hardly visible. The liking of Sallie Bass for the boy of fifteen is made hopelessly vulgar by her jealousy, especially when we find that she has schemed to marry him. This is absurd and repulsive. Why cannot this element be omitted from children's books?

Readers of *Harper's Young People* have already enjoyed the entertaining adventures of the plucky boys who figure in Mr. W. L. Alden's 'Cruise of the Canoe Club' Cautious parents, however, will think twice before allowing their sons (that is, without a competent guide) to make real the doings which are so charming on paper. Surely the risks to their own lives and to other people's property which it is permissible to let young people take, should have some limit.

The first play in 'Alice thro' the Looking-Glass, and Other Fairy Plays,' by Kate Freiligrath-Kroeker (G.P. Putnam's Sons) is, of course, a dramatization of Lewis Carroll's amusing story, and cannot help being full of superfine, double-distilled nonsense, which will make children very gleeful to act, or see acted. The other three plays are all sprightly, though much less novel in their characteristics. In accordance with fairy-lore, they all culminate in matrimony, to which we need not repeat our objection. One of the plays is entitled, "Servantgal-ism in Fairyland," and contains some common sense for mothers as well as fun for children; but here again "servantgalism," and the ideas connected with it, are hardly fit food for infants. On the whole, while the acting of any of these plays would give much amusement, children's brains, one would think, might be put to better use than in learning them.

Sophie May has a very happy touch in picturing scenes from child-life. One feels like picking up and kissing the children she describes. Moreover, she contrives admirably to teach while entertaining, and many a little girl will read 'Flaxie's Kittyleen' (Lee & Shepard) with both profit and pleasure.

'From Do-Nothing Hall to Happy-Day House' (E. & J. B. Young & Co.) is a pretty little volume, very fully illustrated with dainty colored pictures, which are, however, somewhat monotonous. The story is a hodge-podge of allegory and reality, and aims to show how much better Do-as-you're-told is than Do-as-you-like, plain food than jam, etc. But its success is very doubtful. The solemn words at the end seem very incongruous.

Quite by itself amid works pertaining to child-life which the present season has produced, is Adrien Marie's 'Une Journée d'Enfant' (J. W. Bouton). An English preface tells us who the artist of this charming series of twenty designs is, but he speaks for himself with his pencil, and whether he has been six years married or ten, and has two children or five, we know him at once as a lover of the little ones and as a very clever and graceful draughtsman. The plates are everything, for there is no text. The table of contents gives the title of each—"Le Reveil," "Bonjour, Maman," "Le Lever," . . . "A table," "Le Coucher," "Bonsoir, Bébé." Over against the page number are set hieroglyphics appropriate to the story of the hour, and these are repeated on the title-page preceding each plate. They are as admirable in their way as the larger (folio) drawings, which are printed in heliogravure in varying brown and blue tints. In all, the spirit of the nursery is perfectly caught, and it would be hard to single out any for special excellence. The child's day is followed from beginning to end, and it is mostly a happy and altogether a well bred day. The book is beautifully made—too much so for childish handling, but not for a token of parental love or of friendly interest in a little girl not one's own.

The Middle Kingdom: a Survey of the Chinese Empire and its Inhabitants. By S. Wells Williams, LL.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 1611.

Both the book and the personal career of the venerable author of the work before us illustrate the prophecy of the Wise Man in Proverbs: "Seest thou a man diligent in his business? He shall stand before kings; he shall not stand before mean men." Graduated from the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy in 1822, at the age of twenty, Mr. Williams went out as printer to the American mission in China the same year. Quickly mastering the rudiments of the Chinese language, and hungry for all knowledge relating to the sons of Han, he became a prolific maker of handbooks and dictionaries. These practical works are still in use. Visiting the United States in 1845, his lectures upon China expanded into 'The Middle Kingdom,' an octavo work in two volumes, which became the standard work on China. Yet, despite the fulness and accuracy of the matter in the old edition (the third, in 1857), the baldness of the style repelled many readers. One good test of the literary value of works of this class is, that persons having no special interest in the subject will begin and finish the matter for the form's sake. We doubt whether many people read the old work except from a sense of duty, or from interest in the country and people of China. A good appetite is the best sauce in mental as in physical diet. The general reader has now before him a vast improvement in both the abundance and quality of the viands and the literary cookery of the caterer. To our own mind, this is really the leading merit of the new edition. Its readableness is at once apparent. We confess that we found the old work prosy and dull: Whitaker's Almanac seemed the model of the writer. It has been with the zest of surprise that we have read most of the new book in Scribner's sumptuous edition. Some future devotees of the "higher criticism" may yet declare the two books of the same name to have been composed by different authors. In one point the verdict that a redactor had touched up the original author's work would certainly be well grounded in fact, since the last three chapters have been revised by Frederick Wells Williams, a son of the author.

Of the forty-three years of Doctor Williams's life spent in China, the first half was passed in faith of better things to come, and the latter half in sight and enjoyment. Beginning his career in Canton, he was heralded as a "foreign devil," under the tutelage of a hong merchant. His time to stand before kings did not fully come until 1874. In that year the long-disputed "audience question" was settled. Then the Japanese ambassador, Soyéshima, stood erect before the unveiled face of the Chinese Emperor, instead of making the kotow, or "nine prostrations." As Secretary to the United States Minister, B. P. Avery, our author looked upon the face of the Emperor Tungchi, standing in audience before him. Having seen many and mighty changes, and, better still, a goodly number of steps of progress, Doctor Williams is assured of a great future for the sons of Han. "But the progress of pure Christianity," he believes, "will be the only adequate means to save the conflicting elements involved in such a growth from destroying each other."

Examining in detail the present edition of 'The Middle Kingdom,' we find the first volume the less changed of the two, though much larger and handsomer than its predecessor. The first four chapters, geographical in their character, are modernized and enlarged. Chapter v., on "Population and Statistics"—on which the author spent more time, labor, and logic than on any other in the old book—is substantially the same, only kept abreast of the latest researches. Chapter vi., on the "Natural History of China," has been rewritten throughout, and would bear reprinting as a text-book. Little change is noticed in the remarks on the laws, government, and administration, but the four chapters on the "Language, Literature, and Examinations" are greatly amplified, and show the facile sweep of a ripe scholar. In every branch of learning, notwithstanding Doctor Williams's personal familiarity (from actual experience and mastery) with each, generous reference is made to the multifarious literature of both natives and foreigners in many tongues.

In vol. ii., after passing the slightly altered portions on "Industrial Arts and Science among the Chinese," we find that, in treating of the "History and Chronology," the author, while not ignoring the labors of other scholars, takes conservative ground. He nowhere refers to the researches of Terrien de la Couperie and the results of Assyrian studies. He longs, however, for some Gibbon or Niebuhr to explore the inviting field of early Chinese history, and give us what is now lacking—a good history of China. A hearty believer in Christian missionary work, he devotes nearly a hundred pages to this subject, which we commend for its candor and accuracy to "hard-headed business men," as well as to Sunday-school teachers. The last five chapters describe the history of "Foreign Intercourse with China"—the wars with England, the change in China's foreign policy, and the Tai-ping rebellion. The forty-nine pages here descriptive of this fungous growth of foreign ideas give the pith of what is known concerning the Tai-pings. In the narration of events which, during the last half century, have forced the once sleepy and lazy Empire into something like her proper position before the world, Doctor Williams's chapters have all the warmth of local coloring natural to an eye-witness, and all the sustained enthusiasm of one who believes that this "cycle of Cathay" (which, by the way, Mr. Tennyson, is only sixty years) is as good as "fifty years of Europe."

In conclusion, this representative American and Nestor among our sinologues expresses his faith in the future welfare and progress of the great Empire:

"The chiefest fear must be that of going too fast in schemes of reform and correction, and demolishing the fabric before its elements are ready for reconstruction. The non-existence of caste; the weakness of the priesthood, which cannot nerve its persecuting arm with the power of the state; the scanty influence religion has over the popular mind; the simplicity of ancestral worship, the absence of the allurements of gorgeous temples, splendid ritual, seductive music, gay processions, and, above all, sanctified licentiousness to uphold and render it enticing to depraved human nature; the popular origin of all Government holidays; and, lastly, the degree of industry and loyalty and respect for life and property—these are characteristics which furnish some grounds for trusting that the regenerarion of China will be accomplished, like the operation of leaven in meal, without shattering the vessel."

For the work, as a piece of book-making, both author and publisher deserve praise. It has

large type, clean pages, and good margins; first-rate binding, abundance of bibliographical reference, copious and well-chosen illustrations, a good index (thirty-three pages), and the best map of China at present possible folded in the cover.

The Story of Nell Gwyn; and the Sayings of Charles the Second. Related and collected by Peter Cunningham, F.S.A. With a complete index to the personages mentioned, now first published. John Wiley's Sons. 1883.

THIS story is the fruit of careful and extensive antiquarian research, not only among printed books, but in manuscripts, scholars' annotations, and letters. When one considers the obscurity of many of the persons involved and the triviality of most of the incidents, it seems a wonderfully complete account of the character and career of the most popular mistress of any English King, unless the half-mythical fair Rosamond be excepted. The author follows her life circumstantially, from her hawking of oranges in the Restoration theatres to the time when she ended her days in grief for her generous master, the King, and Otway, the poor poet. He shows her to us through John Evelyn's proper and Pepys's naughty eyes, describes her on the boards in her favorite comic parts of Dryden's new plays, relates her amours with Charles Hart, the actor, and Charles Buckhurst, the genuine nobleman, before she charmed by wit and beauty her "Charles the Third," as she called him. Her frolics, her repartees, her houses and furnishings, her deeds of public and private charity—Mr. Cunningham omits nothing; and throughout his difficult task he exhibits, in addition to the accuracy and completeness of the antiquary, the taste of the gentleman. Perhaps he apologizes too much for his heroine; he is apt to indulge in exculpatory comparisons of her with others who, in the phrase of the time, "were in the same state of preferment," from Jane Shore to Mrs. Robinson. In forgiving her fault the strictest precisian would find himself, for once, in good company: Archbishop Tenison preached her funeral sermon, Queen Mary praised her, and many a veteran soldier in Chelsea Hospital must have blessed her memory, since tradition has ascribed its foundation to her influence. Pretty and witty they called her in her life; but in that corrupt court there was no more honest and loyal heart than hers, too near the throne to listen to the whispers of Monmouth and Cavendish, too near the people not to teach the King how to give as well as to spend. Her story is the first romance of our stage; it is still full of human interest, and is besides a picture of life and manners. This account of it ranks as history, and well deserves the honor of a second edition which it here receives. It is beautifully printed, contains a fine portrait, and is supplemented by valuable appendices on the De Grammont Memoirs and their author's family. One chapter in the body of the volume is an independent collection of Charles II.'s witty remarks.

Hand-book of Mexico. Information regarding the Republic of Mexico at the present day. Compiled by J. M. Robertson. Thompson & Moreau. 1883.

THIS book bears marks of having been hurried through the press to catch the market. It is printed with extreme inaccuracy, scarcely a page being faultless. So many of the mistakes are found in the Spanish of the work that one would be tempted to excuse them on the score of ignorance of that language, were it not true that even more appear in the English. The value of such a book is in proportion to its accuracy and its fulness. In general, Mr. Robertson's statements are correct, but he falls into some errors. Señor Vallarta is no longer Vice-President of the Republic and President of the Supreme Court (pp. 10, 12), having resigned last year. Congress has two sessions each year, not, as stated (p. 12), only one. The President and Vice-President are not elected by Congress (p. 12), but by the Electoral College. Congressional districts are to contain 40,000 inhabitants, not, as said (p. 11), 80,000. The whole matter of the Electoral College is sadly muddled under Mr. Robertson's treatment. A thrifty maguey plant produces far more than the 125 quarts to which our author would confine it (p. 28). The export duty on coined silver (p. 118) has been repealed.

In point of completeness the book leaves much to be desired. The "current papers of the day" are not exactly the sources a writer should, almost exclusively, consult in order to make a "hand-book." Under "Agricultural Products" we have articles on the maguey, on cotton, on rice, but are told nothing of corn, the great staple of the country, nothing of tobacco, nothing of coffee. We learn nothing of Mexico's exports, nothing, or next to nothing, of her infant manufactures. Much of the information given is valuable, but it is, after all, of a newspaper, fragmentary sort. If Mr. Robertson had taken pains to read the Governmental reports, or even such popular works as the 'Nueva Guia de Mexico' and the 'Anuario Universal,' both issuing new editions every year, the former in English, French, and Spanish, he might have had a better right to entitle his book as he did.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, T. B. Mercedes, and Later Lyrics. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Alger, W. R. The Poetry of the Orient. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 50.
Allen, Rev. J. H. Christian History in its Three Great Periods. Third Period. Modern Phases. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.
Arnold, E. Indian Idylls. From the Sanskrit of the Mahâbhârata. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Baker, G. E. The Diplomatic History of the War for the Union; being the First Volume of the Works of Wm. H. Seward. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Besant, W. All in a Garden Fair: the Simple Story of Three Boys and a Girl. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Betts, J. T. Juán de Valdés's Commentary on the First Epistle to the Corinthians. Also, the Lives of the Twin Brothers, Juán and Alfonso de Valdés, by Edward Boehmer. Trübner & Co.
Bradburn, Frances H. Memorial of George Bradburn. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Brown, H. C. Handbook of Dates. Arranged Alphabetically and Chronologically. A. Lovell & Co.
Buckham, Dr. T. S. Insanity, considered in its Medico-Legal Relations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Burnett, Frances Hodgson. Vagabondia: a Love-Story. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.
Butler, Dr. S. W. The Physician's Daily Pocket Record. 18th year. Philadelphia: *Medical and Surgical Reporter* office.
Chadwick, Rev. J. W. In Nazareth Town: a Christmas Fantasy, and Other Poems. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Church, Rev. A. J. Stories of the East from Herodotus. With illustrations. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 25.
Church, Rev. A. J. Stories from Livy. With illustrations. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 25.
Clark, T. M. Building Superintendence: a Manual for Young Architects, Students, and Others. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3.
Classic Heroic Ballads. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Cooke, G. W. George Eliot: a Critical Study of her Life, Writings, and Philosophy. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Dahn, F. Felicitas: a Romance. W. S. Gottsberger.
De Long, Mrs. E. Voyage of the *Jeannette*. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $7 50.
De Mille, J. A Castle in Spain: a Novel. Harper & Bros.
Downes, W. H. Spanish Ways and Byways. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. $1 50.
Du Bois, H. P. Historical Essay on the Art of Bookbinding. Bradstreet Press.
French, R. W. Our Boys in China. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 75.
Greey, E. The Bear-Worshippers of Yezo; or, The Adventures of the Jewett Family and their Friend Oto Namboo. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 75.
Hills, Rev. O. A. Companion Characters: a Series of Studies in Bible Biography. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 25.
Hodgdon, Josephine E. Motley: Prose Passages from his Works. For Homes, Libraries, and Schools. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.
Holmes, O. W. Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill Battle. Illustrated by McVickar. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Jefferies, R. The Story of My Heart: an Autobiography. Boston: Roberts Bros. 75 cents.
Kirkland, Miss E. S. Speech and Manners for Home and School. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1.
Knapp, W. I. Modern French Readings. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1 65.
Ladd, H. O. History of the War with Mexico. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 25.
Lawson, J. D. Leading Cases Simplified: a Collection of the Leading Cases in Equity and Constitutional Law. St. Louis: F. H. Thomas and Co.
Markham, R. The Chronicles of the Cid. Illustrated by McVickar. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.
Markham, R. A History of King Philip's War and the Indian Troubles in New England. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 25.
Marie, Adrien. Une Journée d'Enfant. J. W. Bouton. $8.
Massey, G. The Natural Genesis; or, Second Part of the Book of the Beginnings. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.
Maury, M. F. Physical Geography. Revised by Mylton Maury, D.D. University Publishing Co.
Mitchell, D. G. Wet Days at Edgewood. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Mitchell, D. G. Dream-Life. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Mueller and Blackman. School Songs. Four Books. Chicago: Geo. Sherwood & Co.
Mozoomdar, P. C. The Oriental Christ. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1 25.
Nohl, L. Life of Wagner. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1 25.
Nordhoff, C. Man-of-War Life: a Boy's Experience in the United States Navy. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 50.
Optic, Oliver. Snug Harbor; or, The Champlain Mechanics. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 25.
Outlines of Sermons to Children. With numerous Anecdotes. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1 50.
Phelps, Elizabeth Stuart. Beyond the Gates. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Prose Works of Matthew Arnold. 7 vols. Macmillan & Co. $10 50.
Pyle, H. The Merry Adventures of Robin Hood. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Reed, S. B. Cottage Houses for Village and Country Homes. Illustrated. Orange Judd Co. $1 25.

Fine Arts.

THE FALL EXHIBITIONS.

AS one mounts the stairway at the National Academy of Design he is confronted by a canvas of considerable size—No. 1, "Autumn," by Miss Rosina Emmett—upon which is depicted the standing figure of a young woman, in a dark-green gown, who is reaching up to arrange a spray of autumnal woodbine upon a folding screen. At her feet, toward the left, is a mass of asters, golden-rods, and other wild flowers, and at her right a chair. As seen from the first landing of the stairway the picture produces an effect which arrests the attention, but our interest is exhausted when we find, as we quickly do, that the first impression is produced by a clever presentation of the merely obvious qualities of the various objects represented, rather than by a refined expression of what is beautiful. We do not feel that the picture is beautiful, and hence there is nothing to awaken any deep feeling or to hold the attention. The sensation excited at a glance by an apparently forceful realization of commonplace objects, however pleasing it may for the moment be, is a transient and superficial one; and if, on more prolonged examination, no substantial elements of beauty are discovered, the first pleasurable sensation is not sustained, and we quickly pass on to something else. The want of artistic capacity and taste in choice and treatment of subject are strongly marked in this work. One may reasonably ask why it was painted at all, or at least what there is in the theme to justify its being wrought on so large a scale, and why it is hung in this conspicuous position. A true artist is impelled to design from a strong sense of the beauty of some conception, or of some natural scene or object. This sense of beauty takes possession of his feelings and leads him to portray with affection all that is lovely in the forms and colors of his subject. Is there any sign of such sense of what is beautiful, or of any affectionate work, in this ambitious canvas? We can perceive none. The figure of the young woman, though not especially uncomely, is in no way fine enough to form the central object of a large picture. The pose is ungraceful, and the head is without beauty of expression or of feature. The accessories are equally without selection, and are without expression, even, of the finer characteristics of line, form, and color which may be found in such things when taken at random. The whole subject appears made up: it has not the appearance of a spontaneous conception. The style of painting is theatrical, and the kind

of appeal which the picture makes is largely akin to that of forcible scene painting. That is to say, what characterizes it is a pungent and coarse decorative effect, joined with an illusive, rather than a refined, realism. The picture is not at all exceptional in these respects, but by its size and position in the gallery it invites these remarks, which apply equally well to a great many others.

No. 2, "Hydrangea," by Ward W. Wright, has some good rendering of color values, and clever expression of the translucence of the glass vase and other such objects represented. It does this, too, in a way that seems to indicate a real enjoyment of the beauty of color. But the branch of hydrangea itself is ill chosen: its stems are without spring, its leaves lack surface modelling, and the flowers purity of hue. The landscape, No. 4, "Southampton, L. I.," by Wm. H. Lippincott, is effective, though mannered, in tone. There is a feebleness in the group of sheep to the left arising from the want of points of emphatic shade. This closely-huddled group could hardly fail to cast some more shadow on the ground; and the legs of the sheep would, we should think, tell more distinctly dark against it. There appears to be too little shade under the foreground trees also; and the perspective of the further reaches of the awkwardly rigid fence is not correctly rendered—the distances between the posts being too nearly equal. The tree forms, too, though not unnatural, are ungraceful. Not every tree that Nature presents is fit to be introduced, without modification, into a picture. The element of grace is requisite in all forms of design. Nature offers enough that is graceful, so that the artist need never portray objects that are ungainly, for lack of good models. Following the numbers in their order, we do not come to anything more upon which to offer special remark, till we reach No. 56, "Cherokee Roses," by Elizabeth Boott, which up to the point of broadest expression of color values is very good. But this is only the beginning of painting, and there is no valid justification for systematically stopping at this point, especially when, as in this case, the broad values are not based upon a correct foundation of drawing. The fine lines of branch form, the subtle beauties of growth, poise, and surface in leaf and petal, and their countless modifications of color, are no less essential elements of character in a rose than is this mere elementary color effect as presented to the dilated eye. No tedious elaboration is necessary to render these other qualities satisfactorily. Only a complete, rather than a partial, conception of the thing to start with, and reasonable patience in execution, are requisite. The faults of this work are faults of inadequacy, rather than of vice.

No. 81, "Peonies," by the same artist, is not so good in color and tone. The flowers are foul in hue, and lack form more conspicuously than do those in the former example. But it is better to stop at the point reached in No. 56 than to proceed in the manner illustrated in No. 52, which hangs next it. This last has no just foundation of color values, and its elaboration is, therefore, thrown away. No. 68, "Marigolds," by Julia Dillon, is extravagant in the use of strong colors. The brilliancy and strength of color in such flowers cannot be reached by any pigment, of course, but a nearer approach to the effect which they have upon the eye may be reached by a temperate, than by an extravagant, use of color. The effect here produced is too much that of simply loaded paint. A subject like this is almost unpaintable, and to manage it with any success at all requires exceptional skill. The drawing of the details of the straw bonnet in which this heap of marigolds rests, invites some critical remark, which is called for in many other cases where similar objects are treated. In the braiding of such an object there is always a marked order and regularity in the short portions of the strands which can be rendered only by careful drawing. These details have not equally distinct effect upon the eye in all parts of the object, of course. It may be that they will clearly appear at only one or two salient points, as in the lighted part of the hollow to the right in this study. But in so far as they are at all seen they will be seen in their orderly arrangement, and must be so represented for right effect. There is nothing more instructive, in a minor way, in Venetian painting, which displays every excellence, than the truthful thoroughness with which things of this sort are always depicted. In drawing a basket, a coil of rope, a length of chain, or any kindred thing, a Venetian master never fails to express the true arrangement of these details, though he may do it in a sketchy manner. Attention to such orderly sequence of details is, without exception, a mark of good art. After securing the proportions of the large masses, the first thing that a good artist does is to look for what order and relationship may exist between the component parts. In our present methods of art training this matter is practically ignored, and consequently it is a rare thing now to find a complicated object correctly represented, no matter how marked may be the order in which its details are arranged. An instance of the prevailing shortsightedness and incorrectness to which we are referring may be found in the figure illustrating the pine cone in Webster's Unabridged Dictionary. The beautiful spiral curve which each series of scales, in the pine cone, follows as it ascends from the base, is certainly a leading characteristic of the object; but it finds no expression in this illustration.

No. 89, "In Newport Harbor," by James B. Sword, has some strong and effective qualities, but it contains passages of conspicuously false relation, as where the brilliant green and orange-colored grass of the middle-ground contends too powerfully with similar passages in the near foreground. There is a pretty passage to the left, where the dark rock cuts against a lighted space of water, with distant hills and boats beyond. The blue shadow which falls across this space of water appears to us, however, to be a little out of harmony in the quality of its blue. No. 91, "Autumn Afternoon," the first picture on the list in the east gallery, has some cleverness, but it is too artificially picturesque. It has not enough expression of the freshness of nature, nor has it an appearance of genuine inspiration. There are many ungrammatical passages in it, as in the red-clad figure in the central boat, the brown shadow and the scarlet light of which are inconsistent with each other. This brown does not represent what the scarlet would become when modified by shade. The forms of the water, and of the beach, with its stones and piles, are not only sketchily, they are falsely, suggested. There are several *genre* pictures in this gallery, but they present very little that is especially praiseworthy. In No. 93, "After the Hunt," by James B. Sword (which represents a man feeding a group of dogs), the dogs are, apparently, singularly inanimate, and comparatively indifferent to the meat which is being offered them.

No. 95, "Embarrassment," by William T. Smedley, is a clever piece of realism. The interest of the picture attaches, however, rather to the amusing theme than to the qualities of execution, though these are not bad as far as they go. There is a monotonous sameness of color throughout the design which impairs the general effect; for example, the carpet and the girl's dress are too nearly of the same color. No. 99, "Ripe Fruit," by C. Y. Turner, has a gracefully, though somewhat artificially, draped figure. But the subject is another of those which are too evidently made up, and there is in this, also, a painful sameness of color. Even the flesh looks as though it had been painted from the same part of the palette as the gown and the background. Mr. J. G. Brown, in No. 130, "Longing for the Sea," and in No. 226, "As Good as New," in the south gallery, remains singularly stationary as regards color values, but his work is always painstaking, and, according to his own conception of things, well finished. His sympathy with the kind of subjects which he chooses to paint is entirely genuine, and hence he rarely fails to touch the sympathies of others. But for beauty of painting, as such, we do not dwell long upon Mr. Brown's work, notwithstanding that it evinces in a marked degree an earnest aspiration for technical excellence. Nos. 107, 108, 109, 116, and 117 are "ideal" and sentimental heads, with little meaning, and without beauty or even average merits. Nor can much be said in praise of Mr. F. S. Church's fanciful picture, "The King's Flamingoes," No. 126—seemingly inspired, as regards the general color scheme, by Mr. Dewing's "Prelude," of the last exhibition of the Society of American Artists.

Mr. Henry P. Smith's "Morning at Sea," No. 128, is not less impressive than his former pictures of similar subjects, for which we have expressed our admiration. Mr. George H. Smillie has a pretty and effective landscape in this gallery, entitled "Summer Meadows"; and Mr. Harry Chase a skilful, though conventional, marine picture, No. 149. No. 150, "A Village Near the Sea," by Bruce Crane, is a refreshing and strong piece of unconventional work. There is a fine expression of clear daylight in it, though in total effect it is somewhat too patchy to be altogether pleasant. It seems to be a study rather than a picture, and as such it is uncommonly good in color and light. From the excessive clearness of our atmosphere, and the unpicturesque and rigid character of our rural domestic building, it results that our landscape offers few quite satisfactory subjects to a painter. The want of gradation in this picture, and the sharp angularity of the farm buildings, are not, therefore, to be charged to the artist.

Mr. Arthur Quartley's "Waiting for High Tide," No. 173, in the south gallery, has some suggestiveness and agreeable harmony, but there is nothing conspicuously fine in the picture: it is little more than ordinary painting of boat, sail, and wave. A strong picture, with an especially fine and effective sky, is Mr. G. H. McCord's "Sunset at Biddeford, Me.," No. 181; and No. 184, "Near Annisquam, Mass.," by H. Bolton Jones, is remarkably true and fresh in broadly rendered color and tone. Mr. Jones seems to have profited by study of the French school, without having fallen into the extravagant habits which that study is apt to induce. This picture has a delightful suggestiveness. The bright summer sky, with its white clouds, the exquisitely related tones of sunlight and of shadow on banks of earth and scattered boulders, and the wide space of broken foreground, are all rendered with a masterly hand, and with admirable effect. The only discord which we feel in the picture is that which arises from the blue shadows cast by tussocks of grass on the foreground sands. These seem a degree too light for perfect tone.

In "When the Tide is Low," No. 207, by Harry Chase, the masses are well placed, and the figures are happily graduated as they retire. There is in the picture also an admirable expression of pervading light. In parts, however, the effect is rather forced, especially in the nearer objects.

Mr. Chase paints apparently with a German ideal in his mind, and this seems to influence his own impressions of things unduly. There appears to us a great deal of excellence in Mr. Leon Moran's "Eel Fishing, Twilight," No. 219, though the influence of a school ideal is strongly manifest in him also. The common materials of this picture are well composed, and the early evening light is well suggested. We should think that the near objects—the pier and the figures—ought to be a little stronger in force of shade against the lighted water. But error on the side of temperance in the use of shade is better than the now common one of overshading. Mr. J. B. Bristol's "Saco River at Fryeburg, Maine," No. 229, is an exquisite passage of landscape, with a charming reach of intervale and fine mountain forms in hazy afternoon light. A somewhat conventional treatment, which does not admit enough freshness and variety of color, impairs the beauty of the work, however. That is to say, the atmosphere which envelops the scene too far suppresses the local colors of things. This fault is common to all mannered expression of tone, all effort to secure tone otherwise than by a true relationship of local hues. It is a fault that prevails more widely than almost any other. It was conspicuous in the works of that, in many respects, fine painter, the late S. R. Gifford, and it is one into which all artists inevitably fall who work mostly in the studio without constantly renewed recourse to nature. No. 247, "Advice," by Frederick W. Freer, presents a marked instance of that other kind of false tone upon which we have frequently remarked already, viz: that which arises from inattention to the principle that under ordinary daylight the colors of objects retain their broad effect throughout all modifications of light and shade. The principle, as clearly stated by Fromentin in 'Les Maîtres d'Autrefois' (p. 342), is more important to a colorist than any other, and yet one finds it grossly violated by modern artists with singular frequency. In this picture by Mr. Freer the flesh color is one thing in the light, and a very different thing in the shadows. The shadow color is not what the flesh color would properly become when shaded. The same want of color truth exists in all other parts—the red chair, the white gown, etc. A good colorist will follow all the modifications of color, caused by light, shade, and reflections, which any object may present to the eye, but he will so manage this as to retain the essential integrity of each color as compared with other colors in its neighborhood. Mr. J. W. Champney's "Hop Scotch," No. 264, is a better piece of work than we have seen by him before. But Mr. Champney does not seize and present with emphasis the most beautiful elements of his subjects. Their superficial characteristics occupy his attention, and that of nearly all our other *genre* painters, too largely.

There is not much to justify the exhibition of such sketches and studies as those which now fill the gallery of the Society of American Artists. There is, in hardly any of these examples, an indication of effort to do more than to knock off, at one *coup*, some vague impression the elements of which seem derived partly from nature and partly from the impressionist schools. The Whistler inspiration is unmistakable, not only in the character of the work, but also in some of the titles, as a "Sketch in Gray," a "Symphony in Gray," etc. We regret to see this, for whatever value Mr. Whistler's vagaries may be thought to possess, as expressions of his own eccentric genius, they are certainly not forms of art to be imitated by others. The sketches which appear to us the most worthy of mention are No. 165, by William C. Fitler, which is a good and unaffected study; and No. 187, by W. Merritt Post, an apparently honest effort to paint what the artist saw—which is not art, but is good as far as it goes. There is some good feeling for color in No. 221, by E. H. Blashfield; and No. 232, by William H. Lippincott, is a bright color sketch. In No. 234, Mr. Henry P. Smith has caught something of the clear green of sea water; and other bits of good color and light (there is no *drawing* in the gallery) are Nos. 116, 120, 151, 142, 165, and 234. Among the most successful in harmony and general effect we may instance the following—Nos. 134, 149, 221, and 244.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 15, 1883.

The Week.

GENEAL BUTLER denies that he has been "killed off," and explains his exact predicament in a characteristic manner. He says that he was defeated by the "freest use of money, fraud, and corruption," that Massachusetts is a Democratic State with him as a candidate, and that, with a "judicious platform and a popular nomination" next year, "we should at least keep all the Republican men and money at home to take care of Butler, instead of sending both into Ohio and Indiana to corrupt those States." There is no telling what headway he may make with that ingenious programme during the next six months, but at present all the indications are against him. The Democratic journals with one voice pronounce him out of the Presidential race, and are manifestly so glad to be rid of him that they will oppose all efforts on his part to get on his feet again. Still, the situation is undoubtedly a serious one for the Massachusetts people. They will probably feel, as long as Butler lives, very like a respectable family that has a disorderly house next door, which it cannot get rid of, owing to the connivance of the police. But it is a situation which has been long impending. The increasing mediocrity and colorlessness of the Republican politicians of the State for many years back have been for some time, as the indefatigable "G. B." intimates in another column, foreshadowing some such crisis as the Butler candidacy. The decent people of the State must contrive some mode of getting themselves led by men of heavier metal than they now have, or they will assuredly be led into captivity by the Democratic Nebuchadnezzar.

The Virginia Bourbons make it known through their leading organ that they will not attempt to repeal any of the repudiation acts of the Mahone Readjuster government, but will treat them as settled beyond recall. Some surprise is expressed by Republican journals at this announcement, but we cannot see why. The Bourbons took this position in their last State Convention, and made their campaign upon it. They were forced into it by Mahone's success, and their surrender marked the complete subjection of the State to his demoralizing influence. Before his appearance as a leader there was little repudiation sentiment in the State, and the chances are that if he had never appeared the State would have paid its debts. The Bourbons saw that their only way of getting back into power was to cease to oppose Mahone as a Readjuster and fight him simply as a Republican, and so they threw principle aside and went in for success. Before Mahone's advent the Virginia Democrats were Bourbons with a high sense of State honor. Now they are simply Bourbons. This is the sum total of Mahone's work.

The elections have had the usual effect upon the friends of Mr. Blaine. A beautiful letter has been published in one of his favorite newspapers, giving a description of the retired statesman as he appears in his Maine home. He is still writing history at the rate of four hours every day, has "put aside the mantle and temper of a partisan," has "found instead the calm, judicial quality of a commentator," and looks "back over the politics of the past twenty years as a sort of Vanity Fair" of which he was a part. He has not the slightest longing to return to political life, preferring the quiet seclusion of his "unpretentious frame house," in which there is "no display of wealth or accumulated honors." His elegant and expensive mansion in Washington, it should be remarked here, has been let till after the next campaign.

Several Stalwart leaders are credited with saying that the result of the New York election has greatly improved President Arthur's prospects for a renomination, and Governor Foster, of Ohio, seems to have a similar view. It is almost incredible that anybody who has watched the political currents in this State for the past few years could so completely misunderstand their meaning. Only a year ago Mr. Folger, a personally unexceptionable candidate, was defeated by 192,000 majority, simply because he was the Administration candidate, and was forced upon the party by methods which have been made odious in this State by the President's personal following. The change in the vote last week did not in any sense represent a change in sentiment on this point. It was the total absence of the Administration as an issue which brought the independent Republican vote back again for the party ticket. The only State in which there was a distinct Administration issue on Tuesday week was Virginia, and while the result there has undoubtedly relieved the Administration of a burden, it can scarcely be said to have added to the President's popular strength. It is perfectly apparent that the Republican candidate who will be most likely to win next year will be the one who can command the support of the independent voters not only in New York, but in other parts of the country. There has never been any evidence that President Arthur would be that kind of a candidate.

A canvass of the members of the new Legislature in Iowa, which has been made by the Chicago *Tribune*, shows unmistakably that there is little prospect for extreme prohibitory legislation this year. There is an undoubted majority against submitting again to the people the sweeping Constitutional amendment prohibiting both the manufacture and sale of liquor throughout the State. The most the prohibition advocates can hope for is a statutory enactment to the same effect, which would remain in force only until modified or repealed by a subsequent Legislature, and even this is doubtful. It is very evident that a reaction has begun in the State from the prohibition fanaticism which has carried everything before it in the past few elections, and that the majority of the people are now in favor of less radical temperance legislation. In fact, as we pointed out a few weeks ago, the Prohibitionists in Ohio as well as Iowa, have made no substantial advance by their recent crusades. They have given the political parties much trouble, but that is about all. In the Ohio Legislature there is not only an anti-prohibition majority, but an anti-temperance majority, which will remain in power for the next two years, for in Ohio, as in Iowa, the Legislature is chosen biennially. So far as legislation is concerned, therefore, the prohibition movement is practically arrested till 1885.

General Sherman, in his recent addresses, has been trying to cheer the army up by promising that, though the Indians are gone, "a bright future" still awaits the soldiers, for, he gives them to understand, there will always be fighting of some kind to be done; if there are no foreign wars, there will be civil dissensions, such as those between labor and capital, in which the army can always take a hand. We doubt much whether the future of the American soldier can, in the old military sense, be called "bright." Now that we have the continent practically to ourselves there is hardly any chance of a great foreign war. No nation on earth would dream of coming here to fight us, and it would require a very pressing invitation indeed to get an American army to go to Europe, even for a short summer war. In a military sense, too, the labor-and-capital fighting cannot be called attractive. When labor goes to war, it usually confines itself to riots; and the suppression of riots is not an agreeable or exciting military duty, though one in which the soldier is often most useful, and indeed necessary. Indeed, we are inclined to think that the American standing army will have to have its duties in some way modified or rearranged, so as to make life in it tolerable, with war so very remote a contingency. It will have to be converted into something like Mr. Ruskin's St. George's Society, which men will enter who long for non-paying labor and the asceticism of discipline.

We trust that Congress will do something this winter to remedy the absurd condition of the law on the subject of letters held for postage. The way the Post-office deals with these now is very wasteful and very inconvenient. A resident of New York, for instance, who has been off to the Adirondacks, or the Maine lakes, or Europe, finds on his return a notice that a letter is held for non-payment of two cents at the Post-office station nearest his house, and that he can have it on applying at the station with a stamp. The next day he goes to the station, and on presenting his stamp is told that letters of this description are only held there for a week, and that they are then sent to the General Post-office. Hurrying off to the General Post-office, he is there informed that the letter has been forwarded to the Dead Letter Office at Washington. Feeling sure that he must at last be on the right track, he writes to Washington for it, and receives

an answer informing him that the letter has been "opened, found to contain no valuable enclosure, and then destroyed." He has, therefore, spent a good deal of valuable time, and the Post-office has sent him two circulars through the mail, which at the lowest estimate must be worth two cents in time and clerical labor, the net result being the destruction of the letter, with the assurance from the Third Assistant Postmaster-General that it contained nothing of value. On this point he may fairly say that he prefers to judge for himself. The whole process is worthy of a European circumlocution office of the last century.

The decision of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court that the Pullman Car Company is liable for negligence which results in the robbery of passengers, is very satisfactory. The object of taking passage in such cars, the Court very justly says, is to enable the traveller to sleep. Travellers who like to sit up all night and defend themselves against thieves with bull-dog pistols, are of course at liberty to do so; but the very fact that the condition of sleep renders a man helpless makes it necessary that a company which invites a man to slumber should not make its "sleeping facilities" also thieving facilities. The Romans had a legal maxim that the law helps only the wide-awake, on which the company in this case perhaps relied. But the Romans had no Pullman palace cars. Generally speaking, the only provision a sleeping-car company makes for the safety of its customers consists in the presence of a negro bootblack, who, to judge by his treatment of the ordinary passenger, is of too violent a disposition to be trusted with firearms, though he would be easily overpowered by thieves. The conductor is no defence, as he resembles the ordinary policeman in being at the other end of his beat when wanted. With these slight precautions, the best safeguard at present is to carry as few valuables and as little money as possible. Why do not the companies provide safes, as all hotels do, or lockers?

The Chinese laborers are coming in rapidly under certificates from their own Government that they are travellers or traders, which our Custom-house is compelled to acknowledge, though from their appearance it may be as plain as possible that they are neither one nor the other. In addition to this they are smuggled in freely from British Columbia by way of Puget Sound. Another judicial decision has just declared that Chinamen who left this country before the passage of the act are entitled to come back again. So that in one way or another the supply of Chinamen cannot be said to be seriously diminished by the late restrictive legislation. This will have to be amended this winter if it is intended to be really operative, and there is only one way to make it really operative, and that is to authorize the summary slaughter of all Chinamen found within the country after a certain date, and then to offer a reward for the heads of all Chinamen caught after another still later date. In no other way can our Christianity be saved from the debasing influence of these heathen. The mere irritation, in fact, caused to certain classes of our people by the spectacle of Chinese frugality, industry, and cleanliness, is of itself a reason for their destruction of Chinamen, for nothing breaks down character more rapidly than constant irritation.

If the progress of the general business of the country may be estimated by the traffic of the railroads—and this is perhaps the best general index—it is more satisfactory than the prevalent talk of "depression" would seem to indicate. The October earnings of 59 railroads, operating 50,179 miles of road, were $29,086,800, against $26,363,566 on 45,908 miles of road in October, 1882. The gain of $2,723,234 is nearly 11 per cent. in earnings on an increase of a little more than 10 per cent. in the mileage, and that, too, consisting almost entirely of new and uncompleted branch lines, which could not be expected to earn in proportion to the older mileage. Moreover, this increase of 11 per cent. in earnings in October is by comparison with the corresponding earnings of 1882, which were 16 per cent. greater than those of 1881; so that the growth of business has clearly been continuous. The profits of general mercantile and manufacturing business this year have undoubtedly been small, in consequence of the continued decline of prices of commodities up to about a month ago, when prices for all the great staples seemed to have touched bottom. Since then there has been some general improvement in this respect. Mercantile credit has certainly improved in the last month. Failures of importance have ceased, and though money continues idle, there is more confidence in regard to all enterprises than a month ago. While the volume of our export trade is smaller than at this time a year ago, there is a very important difference between the situation now and then. In the year ending September 30 ult., our foreign trade showed a net balance in our favor of $117,326,909, whereas in the year ending September 30, 1882, there was a balance against us of $12,054,492. The effect of this great change is that specie is now beginning to move to the United States from Europe. In the week ending November 10 the imports of specie at New York were $1,819,296; on Monday, the 11th, they were $530,000, and there are now known to be between $500,000 and $700,000 more to arrive in a day or two.

The *Herald*, in speaking of the pressure for the recognition of Iglesias as the head of the new Peruvian Government, urges that there is no great hurry about it, as none of the European Powers has recognized any *de facto* government there since the abdication of Pierola. This is very true, but we are in a different position from any European government, for we have recognized Calderon as the head of the Government, and kept up the farce by recognizing his representative, Montero, after Calderon himself was actually carried off a prisoner to Chili. This puts us in a position of greater difficulty than any European government in South America, and may well make Mr. Frelinghuysen hesitate some time before he recognizes any new government; but the question is still, as it has been all along, not, as the *Herald* seems to suppose, what "the Peruvians themselves desire," but what the Government actually is. The desires of the Peruvians have nothing to do with it, except as proved by their acts. They might go on desiring Calderon back for years, and yet Iglesias might for all that establish a *de facto* government, as he seems to be doing.

The celebration of Luther's birthday on Sunday seems to have been enthusiastic through the whole Protestant world, and especially the German-speaking world, both here and in Europe. Sermons on his life and work were delivered in most of the Protestant pulpits in this country, in which he was warmly eulogized from every standpoint. Two Catholic priests appear to have taken him up, one of whom, Dr. Brann, gave a sad account of the reformer, accusing him of having led a vicious, if not criminal, life. According to this authority, Luther and Melanchthon on one occasion got drunk together at Weimar, and for fifteen years before Luther's death he spent every night in a tavern, "drinking beer and abusing the Pope," which must have been very dreary work for a man of intellectual tastes. The other, Monsignor Capel, dealt more tenderly with Luther personally, accusing him simply of breaking his vow of chastity and writing indecent letters. Monsignor, in fact, devoted himself mainly to showing that the Church was not as corrupt at the time of the Reformation as the Reformers said she was, and that, even if she were, it in no way diminished her spiritual authority. As to Protestantism it leads straight, he says, to agnosticism and communism. But then the Catholic Church, after all, led to Protestantism, so that the question of responsibility for the horrors of Protestantism can scarcely be considered finally settled. It was the Catholic Church which produced Luther, and it seems rather hard, under these circumstances, to have its clergy pass his birthday in telling Protestants what a bad man he was, and what terrible things schism and heresy are.

For any one who reads Luther's story and considers his work, the fact that the great bulk of those who have just celebrated his achievements with pride as those of one of the greatest of Germans, have no more faith in his doctrines than he put in Tetzel's, and care no more for his Bible than he cared for the Missal, is pathetic enough. In other words, to put it plainly, the birthday of the great Reformer has been honored in his own country mainly by people who never read his Bible, and who sing his hymns rather as old war songs than as expressions of religious devotion. The truth is, that there is now but little religious belief of any kind to be found among the educated classes of Protestant Germany, and that Luther's Reformation is in their eyes rather a step in the political and intellectual emancipation of the country than a phase of religious progress. Luther is to them a forerunner of Bismarck, in short, rather than the promulgator of a new creed, or the founder of a new church. They care very little about the

nature or origin of his quarrel with the Pope. What he managed to save out of the wreck of his old faith is no more valuable in their eyes than what he lost, and his Bible interests them rather as a specimen of old German than as a new spiritual lamp provided by him for the men of his time. Rome could not have wished and probably has never expected a more complete failure of Lutheranism, in the sense in which Luther would have wished the term Lutheranism to be taken, than has actually occurred. But the failure is such that the Church profits nothing by it. Not much of his constructive work is left in Germany among the class which reflects on religious problems, but the spirit of free inquiry in which he carried it on has grown stronger than ever. The process which he applied to the Papal authority is now applied to all subjects whatever. The Bible itself has to submit to the tests and questionings to which he subjected the Pope and the councils. This, were he to come on earth again, he might soon get to understand and even enjoy, but never that strong and growing disposition of his countrymen to think only of the things of this life, and to dismiss from their attention, as inscrutable and insoluble, those problems of the hereafter with which he and most thinking men of his time were mainly occupied.

It seems likely now that Lord Rossmore, who summoned the Orangemen to attack the meetings of the Home Rulers, and wrote the impudent letter to the Government requesting that such meetings should be prevented, in order to save the Orangemen the disagreeable necessity of killing the people who attended them, will be at least removed from the magistracy. His case, it is reported, has been laid before the Lords Commissioners who are executing the office of Lord Chancellor *ad interim*, and he will probably be deprived of his commission. But he ought to be tried under the Crimes Act for inciting to violence. A few months of jail would not only do him good, but produce an excellent effect on all the fighting men of both parties. Nothing more needs cherishing in Ireland than the habit of discussion without the aid of clubs and pistols, and it has no worse enemies than the Orangemen. Indeed, they seldom open their mouths in public except to threaten somebody with some kind of physical violence.

The Ulster Conservatives in Ireland seem shocked or disgusted by Orange violence, and are trying to form a constitutional organization, in which Catholic and Protestant are to be united, for resistance to home rule, and to any extension of the suffrage, or at least to household suffrage. This is better, certainly, than the Rossmore plan of killing the Home Rulers whenever they hold meetings in Ulster. The *Pall Mall Gazette* says his letter, referred to above, is the most atrocious and "impudent" demand ever "addressed to a civilized government." But it is not half as atrocious as the approval of the armed attack of the Orangemen on the procession in the streets of Londonderry the other day, on the occasion of the Lord Mayor of Dublin's lecture, by the old Tory squire who acts as the London correspondent of the *Tribune*. He is in favor of killing the Home Rulers without notice. It furnishes a striking illustration of the ignorance, even on legal and political subjects, of men of this class in England, that this correspondent actually considered the visit of a Mayor of one city to lecture in another city of different politics as an "invasion," which such of the inhabitants as did not like it were justified in repelling with fire-arms. The *Tribune* ought to get rid of him. He is not fit to write for anything but a "society paper."

According to a London despatch, the proprietor of *Judy* has been committed for criminal libel for its comments on the inflation and expansion of telegrams practised by the Central News. There seems to be no dispute about the facts. The despatches originally received were, first: "Special Cabinet meeting, Quebec. Dynamite plot Lansdowne discovered. Arrests probable. Intense excitement. Princess indisposed, inflamed eye." And second: "Plot to explode Circassian Rimouski thwarted. Lansdowne movements circuitous. Halifax dynamiters sent trial." According to the testimony of Mr. Jennings, an employee of the News (this name somehow has familiar associations), this was expanded into a very interesting narrative, which gave all the details of the "Rimouski" plot, and attributed it to the "Invincibles." The following is a good specimen of the work: "The desperadoes were to row out to the steamer in an ordinary boat, in which were to be concealed two or three powerful dynamite machines. These machines, manufactured in the 'dynamite school' in New York, and some of which there is too good reason to believe are at present actually hidden in Quebec, were to be discharged against the *Circassian* below the water line, the miscreants hoping to make their escape in the consequent panic and confusion." The expansion of cable despatches is necessary, to a certain extent, but this is pure invention, and the proprietor of a comic paper who goes to jail for criticising it must feel that he is suffering in a good cause.

The French are now engaged in the melancholy business of voting more money for the Tonquin expedition. There is an appropriation of about $2,500,000 before the Chamber. This does not seem much to us, who do not know what to do with our surpluses, but it is a great deal to people whose deficits are very large and increasing, especially as the contest is apparently only just beginning. M. Ferry tried to make the Chamber believe that no more troops would be needed, but he cannot succeed. Everybody feels in his bones that a great many more troops will be needed. There is some talk of mediation between France and China on the part of a friendly Power—probably England, which is half expecting to be asked for something of the kind; but England is in too bad odor in France just now to be accepted by the French as a mediator. Negotiations, too, are said to be about to be opened in London by M. Waddington, for the execution of a tripartite commercial treaty between France, England, and China, but this can hardly come to anything as long as the war cloud remains in the East—and there it does remain. China is still inflexible, and France has gone too far, apparently, to accept what China offers without humiliation.

A French economist, M. Neymarck, makes some calculations in the *Journal des Economistes* touching the present cost of keeping the peace in Europe generally, the bearing of which on the great problem of poverty which we discuss elsewhere, is obvious. They are startling enough for those who are uneasy—as many are—about the stability of our present social organization, and about the progress of communistic ideas. There is now spent annually in Europe on the maintenance of fleets and armies nearly $900,000,000; nearly 3,200,000 men are kept under arms, and 1,800 ships, most of them very costly, are devoted to military purposes. In this no account is taken of the loss caused by the withdrawal of these men, all in the flower of their youth, from industrial pursuits. Moreover, every European country now has an enormous debt, contracted wholly, or almost wholly, for war or preparation for war, and the annual charges on this are nearly equal in amount to the annual cost of the army and navy. For instance, England spends annually on the army and navy (about) $142,000,000; on the interest of the public debt $156,000,000. Italy spends $52,000,000 on her army and navy, and $71,000,000 on her debt. Russia spends $178,000,000 on her army and navy, and $160,000,000 on her debt. Austria spends $63,000,000 on her army and navy, and $113,000,000 on her debt. France spends $160,000,000 on her army and navy, and $150,000,000 on her debt, and so on, all through the list. The rule is that every country spends nearly the same amount on the army and navy that it has to raise for the interest on its debt. The small states, like Denmark, Holland, and Sweden, who know that they could not keep the field for a week against any great Power, run just the same rig as Germany, or France, or Russia. If the United States kept up an army on the same scale, in proportion to population, as Europe taken as a whole, we should now have 500,000 men under arms, not counting reserves of any kind. If we followed the example of the great military states, we should have more nearly a million.

The public debts of Europe, too, have nearly doubled in fifteen years; that is, they have risen from $13,200,000,000 to $21,600,000,000. The cost of government has risen in ten years 50 per cent. At the present rate of progress, in fifty years, or even in twenty-five, there must be a great social or financial catastrophe of some kind, for the simple reason that the tillers of the soil, on whom these prodigious burdens rest, will not be able to stand them. Moreover, these great fleets and armies are not maintained, as the Roman legions were, to protect the civilized world from barbarians or to clear the seas of pirates. We have no longer Goths or Huns, Turks or Tartars to fear. They are maintained by highly civilized Christian men simply as a defence against other highly civilized Christian men.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, November 7, to TUESDAY, November 13, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

A MEMBER of the Administration, as to whose knowledge on the subject there can be little doubt, said on Friday to a newspaper correspondent: "Chester A. Arthur is a candidate for the Presidential nomination. I know it, and I do not know that there is any necessity for keeping quiet about it any longer, and I think that before long the party will have no doubt that he is a candidate. The result of the election in New York has, perhaps, made it proper that the candidacy should be avowed."

Opinion is divided in Washington political circles as to the effect of the elections on the Speakership prospects. One view is that Mr. Randall's chances have been strengthened, because the result in Virginia has revived the old issue of the solid North and solid South. Mr. Randall's actions in the past will, it is thought, win him the confidence of conservative men in the North. Another view is that Mr. Randall has lost strength because of the Democratic defeat in his own State of Pennsylvania. It is believed that the strength of Mr. Cox is increasing, and that he will have a large vote on the first ballot.

Mr. Carlisle arrived in Washington on Sunday. He expresses himself as confident of success in his race for the Speakership. Other candidates are expected to arrive there during the week and the canvass will be actively begun. There are reports of a probable combination between the supporters of Messrs. Cox and Carlisle if it is necessary to defeat Mr. Randall. Ex-Senator Eaton, of Connecticut, is considered a probable "dark horse" in that event.

Mahone's defeat in Virginia has created a great deal of comment in political circles. On Thursday the Richmond *Whig*, the organ of the defeated Readjuster, asserted that Mahone had not abandoned his hold on Virginia, but would renew the debt question. Doubts have been expressed whether Riddleberger, Mahone's colleague, will act with him in the Senate. There have for months been reports of differences between him and Mahone. He has been thought disposed to resume his relations with the Democrats. The whites predominate in his part of the State. Intimate friends of Riddleberger believe that he will, for the present at least, occupy an entirely independent position. He has reaffirmed his friendship for the Readjuster "boss." Mahone attributes his defeat to the Danville negro riot, and to lack of substantial support from the Republicans, and especially from President Arthur. He has expressed himself very forcibly as to the lack of practical sympathy from the Administration. It is believed that the popular Democratic majority in Virginia is about 30,000. In the Legislature on joint ballot the Democratic majority is about 40.

It is said that a Readjuster Committee will call upon the Republican National Committee when it meets in Washington in December, and ask for recognition and friendly counsel.

A large meeting of the citizens of Danville, Va., was held on Saturday, and it was resolved to appoint a committee of forty to investigate the recent negro riot, and set the exact facts before the public.

There were rumors on Friday and Saturday of an uprising of negroes in Southampton County, Va. A drunken negro was responsible for the statement that 1,000 of his race intended to slay every white person in the county. The whites armed themselves in preparation for an outbreak, which has not yet occurred.

Butler's vote in Massachusetts was about 150,000. Robinson's plurality was more than 10,000. Governor Butler professes to be complimented by his large vote, and expresses an intention of running again for the office of Governor next fall.

By a recent modification of the civil service rules which has been made by President Arthur, a very important reform has been effected. When the names were certified by the Commissioners to the different departments it was possible for partisanship and favoritism to be exercised in the selection of the persons certified. By an amendment to rule eight that opportunity has been removed, and the President has notified all executive officers and all Federal officials under whose jurisdiction the civil-service law is put in operation, that, in the selection from the persons certified, no discrimination is to be made by reason of any political or religious opinion or affiliation.

The jury at Washington in the suit of Hallett Kilbourn against John G. Thompson, Sergeant-at-Arms of the House, for $350,000 for false imprisonment, returned, on Wednesday, a verdict of $60,000 for plaintiff. A motion for a new trial was made by the defence.

The Court of Inquiry appointed by the Secretary of War to investigate all the circumstances attending the organization, fitting out, and subsequent failure of the Greely Relief Expedition, met at the old Navy Department Building, in Washington, on Thursday morning, all the members being in attendance. Several days were occupied in examining documentary evidence.

Gen. D. B. Sackett, Inspector-General of the Army, in his annual report to the Secretary of War, states that the inspections of the accounts of all officers of the army who have disbursed public moneys show that the public funds for army purposes have generally been disbursed in a proper manner.

In his annual report, Judge-Advocate-General Swaim, of the Army, says that the number of records of trial received, revised, and recorded during the year ended September 30, 1883, was 1,985—being an increase of 131 over the preceding year.

Col. C. G. McCawley, commandant of the United States Marine Corps, in his annual report, dated October 1, 1883, states that on that date there were 1,887 enlisted men in the corps, 883 of whom were on board ships in commission, and 1,004 doing duty at the several shore stations. He invites attention to the necessity of an increase of privates.

A vote taken in Dakota on November 6 resulted in a large majority for the new Constitution.

A large majority of the members of the new Iowa Legislature are opposed to the submission to the people of the prohibitory constitutional amendment.

Part of the new wing of the Capitol of Wisconsin at Madison fell on Thursday afternoon, burying thirty workmen in the ruins. Four were killed and twenty injured. It is the general opinion that the disaster was caused by the work being rushed along too rapidly.

Statistics published on Friday show that the peach crop of Delaware last season was about 5,000,000 baskets.

Seventy-nine Chiricahuas have arrived at Silver Creek, Arizona, and have surrendered in accordance with terms made with General Crook in May last.

The usual November "cold wave" that ushers in the winter season, traversed the continent during Sunday and Monday, accompanied by snow squalls in many places. There were severe gales along the coast and on the lakes. Many disasters to vessels were reported, with some loss of life. The weather moderated on Tuesday.

A fire which broke out in Shenandoah, Pa., on Monday, in the United States Hotel, burned sixteen blocks, including many of the principal buildings in the place. Two hundred and fifty families are homeless and have lost everything. The loss is estimated at about $500,000. The Council and citizens have appealed to the public for help, either in money, provisions, or clothing.

The failure was announced on Tuesday of Tillinghast & Co., of Chicago, the oldest wool and hide house in that city, and the largest in the West. The immediate cause of the failure is ascribed to the fact that the firm advanced a large sum of money, for the purchase of furs, to its agent in Montana, who has thus far failed to make any returns.

In the trial of the Faïence Manufacturing Company, before Judge Brown in the United States District Court in this city, for the recovery of $50 penalty for a violation of the United States postal laws by the employment of Boyd's Letter Express for the distribution of letters and circulars in the city, the jury on Friday evening rendered a verdict in favor of the Government. This was a test case growing out of recent action by the Government in suppressing private letter expresses.

William E. Brockway, the noted forger and counterfeiter, and two of his associates, Nathaniel D. Foster and Lewis Martin, were arrested on Saturday afternoon, in this city, by Inspector Byrnes's detectives, on the charge of counterfeiting bonds of the Morris and Essex Division of the Delaware and Lackawanna Railroad Company, and of the Central Pacific Railway Company, worth $54,000. The arrest was the result of detective work for a period of two months.

A large and beautiful exhibition of chrysanthemums was opened at Horticultural Hall, in this city, on Wednesday, and held for several days.

The Feuardent-Cesnola libel suit still continues on trial in this city. A great mass of evidence has been introduced during the week.

Mr. Matthew Arnold lectured in Boston on Wednesday evening. He had taken advantage of the criticisms on his delivery, and could be heard in all parts of the house.

Gen. William T. Sherman received a hearty welcome from the Grand Army of the Republic in New York on Friday night at the rooms of Koltes Post. He made a speech which was enthusiastically cheered. He was serenaded by 500 veterans in St. Louis on Monday night.

Chief-Justice Noah Davis, at the opening of the Court of Oyer and Terminer in this city, on Monday, charged the Grand Jury to consider the recent coupon frauds in the Comptroller's office, the irregularities in the Department of Public Works, and in all municipal offices.

Dr. J. Marion Sims, the distinguished physician and surgeon, died very suddenly on Tuesday morning of heart disease, at his home in this city. He attended a patient on Monday evening, and when he retired to bed he was apparently in his usual health. He was seventy years of age. He was the author of a number of medical works and had a wide reputation in Europe, where he frequently lectured. He was the organizer of the Woman's Hospital in this city.

Judge E. Darwin Smith, one of the best-known lawyers of western New York, and for twenty-one years a Justice of the Supreme Court, died in Rochester on Sunday, at the age of seventy-seven.

Admiral J. B. Creighton, of the United States Navy, died at Morristown, N. J., on Tuesday.

Theodore F. Randolph, ex-United States Senator and ex-Governor of New Jersey, died suddenly of heart-disease on Wednesday morning at his home in Morristown, New Jersey. He was born June 24, 1826. He

entered public life in 1860, when he was elected to the New Jersey Assembly. In the following year he entered the State Senate. He was elected President of the Morris and Essex Railroad in 1867, Governor of New Jersey in 1868, and United States Senator in 1874.

Ex-Gov. Natt Head, of New Hampshire, died on Monday in Manchester, at the age of fifty-five. He was one of the most prominent Republicans and business men in the State. He was elected Governor in 1878.

John T. Short, late Professor of History and Philosophy in the State University at Columbus, Ohio, and author of 'The North Americans of Antiquity,' died on Sunday.

Charles A. Meigs, United States Bank Examiner in this city for the past twelve years, died at sea on November 3. He was sixty-seven years of age.

Intelligence has been received in this country of the death in Dublin of Dr. Robert D. Joyce, formerly of Boston. He was best known as a poet by his works 'Deirdré' and 'Blanid.'

Festivals in honor of the 400th anniversary of Luther's birth were held all over this country on Saturday and Sunday. Special services were held in all the Lutheran churches on Sunday, and many other denominations took note of the event. A great meeting was held in the Academy of Music, in this city, on Tuesday evening, at which addresses were made by the Rev. Phillips Brooks and others.

FOREIGN.

Like festivals were held on the same days in most of the cities and towns of Germany, and in many other places in Europe. In Berlin, 80,000 school children took part in the procession. At Erfurt, where Luther first entered the Augustine Monastery in 1501; at Eisenach, where he was confined for ten months in the castle of Wartburg; and at Nordhausen, the corner-stones of monuments to be erected in honor of the great reformer were laid on Saturday with ceremonies appropriate to the occasion. Many towns of England celebrated the day. In London, on Saturday evening, a large meeting was held in Exeter Hall, at which Lord Shaftesbury presided. Special services were held in 300 London churches on Sunday.

The Tonquin question excited a great deal of attention for part of the week. It was reported in Paris on Wednesday that Doctor Harmand, the French Civil Commissioner in China, had asked to be replaced. This has not been confirmed. It was also announced that General Fang, a distinguished Chinese general, was preparing to take command of the forces of that country. The Chinese troops were reported to be gathering in large numbers on the Tonquin frontier. Throughout the empire military preparations were being actively pushed. The Marquis Tseng said war might occur at any moment. A more pacific rumor was that M. Waddington, the French Ambassador at London, would resume negotiations with the Marquis Tseng, and both diplomats were to have the advice of Lord Granville. Marquis Tseng on Tuesday left England for Paris.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday Admiral Peyron, Minister of Marine, presented a bill providing for a supplementary grant of 11,500,000 francs to cover the expenses of military operations in Tonquin. The bill was referred to a special committee.

An interview with M. Ferry, the French Premier, was published in London on Friday, which contained the following points. With regard to China, M. Ferry entertains the opinion that the Chinese diplomatists are neither frank, honest, nor ingenuous. He utterly disbelieves in the military power of China, and is firmly convinced that there is not the remotest chance of that country going to war. Tonquin, he said, was not a Chinese possession. France had treaty rights over Tonquin, and would not retreat from her position at the dictation of China. When the French were firmly established in the Red River Delta another market would be opened, and the Chinese would then acquiesce in the *fait accompli*. He also denied that France had any intention of annexing New Guinea.

Victorin Ferdinand Barrot, a distinguished Bonapartist politician of France, died on Tuesday.

Marshal Serrano has been appointed Spanish Ambassador to France in the place of the Duc de Fernan-Nunez. The French Government, in expressing its acquiescence in the appointment, used the most flattering terms in regard to the Spanish Cabinet.

It was announced on Thursday that the Crown Prince Frederick William of Germany expected soon to pay a visit to King Alfonso of Spain. The proposed visit has created excitement in Madrid. It is feared that France may perceive in the visit a fresh element of irritation. The Berlin journals warmly approve the proposed visit. Bismarck's organ says that the visit is not aimed at France, but is made in the interests of peace.

A pamphlet published in Madrid by an ex-army officer, who is now secretary of a Spanish Republican military association, giving the history of the late military rising, asserts that forty-four regiments and 3,000 officers of the Spanish army were concerned in it. It also accuses Ruiz Zorilla of winning $75,000 on the Stock Exchange during the excitement consequent upon the rising, and asserts that if the insurrection had succeeded, Zorilla would have shot Señor Moret, now Minister of the Interior, and several generals.

In a recent circular of the Spanish Minister of Finance he asserts that Spain has arrived at a degree of prosperity unknown for many years, the budget showing a surplus.

M. de Giers, the Russian Secretary of Foreign Affairs, arrived in Berlin on Tuesday, and called upon the Emperor William. He will visit Prince Bismarck.

The Pope has informed Dr. von Schloezer, Prussian Minister to the Vatican, that the question of the removal of Cardinal Ledochowski and Archbishop Melchers, from the Archbishoprics of Posen and Cologne respectively was a matter which could not be solved until the question of the liberty of education of the clergy in Prussia was settled. A Rome despatch asserts that the disputes of the Pope with Prussia will be settled within the month, and amicable relations will be restored.

Prince Bismarck has had a return of jaundice. Continuous work has been forbidden by his physicians.

The Lord Mayor's show in London on Friday was unusually fine. Alderman Fowler, M. P., was inaugurated Lord Mayor. In the evening he gave a banquet in Guildhall. M. Waddington, the French Ambassador, replying to a toast in honor of the foreign Ministers, said there was no greater guarantee for the peace of the world than hearty, cordial, and loyal friendship between Great Britain and France. France had made great progress, and he had every confidence in her future. France wished to approach Great Britain in a spirit of good-will, and he was met with the same desire on the part of England. Mr. Gladstone, referring to M. Waddington's speech, said: "Our hearts' best wishes are with France in every career of peace, justice, and orderly government on which she may find it her interest to enter." All the great Powers of Europe, he said, had declared their attachment for the cause of peace. With regard to Ireland he said: "There is much to be done, much to be desired, much to be lamented, but there is also much to be hoped for. Peace and order must be firmly maintained." M. de Lesseps also spoke.

The Lord Mayor of London on Saturday refused to allow Doctor Stöcker, Chaplain of the Court of Germany, to lecture in the Mansion House. He said that he could not disregard the feelings of the Jewish community of London by giving prominence to a man who had excited hostility against the Jews.

The trial of Joseph Poole for the murder of John Kenny in Dublin on July 4, 1882, was begun in that city on Monday. Poole was charged with having lured Kenny to the place where he was murdered. William Lamie, the informer, testified against him. The jury, on Tuesday, after an hour's consultation, disagreed and were discharged. The prisoner was remanded for another trial.

The London police authorities offer a reward for information of the whereabouts of John McCafferty, who was convicted of treason in Dublin in 1867, and sentenced to penal servitude for life. He subsequently escaped.

It is understood in London that official papers in regard to the conduct of Lord Rossmore relative to the recent Orange demonstrations in Ireland have been laid before the Lords Commissioners of the Great Seal. The charge made is that Lord Rossmore, as Grand Master, summoned the Fermanagh Orangemen to resist the Parnellite invasion of Roslea.

A Dublin rumor is that influences are at work in certain circles with a view to making Lord Lorne the Viceroy of Ireland.

The Dublin *Freeman's Journal* has published the full text of a circular proposing wholesale emigration from Ireland which, it is alleged, the Government issued, though the authorities have disavowed any connection with the paper.

Ramsgate, England, was decorated and illuminated on Thursday in honor of the opening of the centennial year of the life of Sir Moses Montefiore, the Jewish philanthropist and baronet. He founded a Jewish college in Ramsgate in 1867. Queen Victoria sent a message of congratulation to him.

An explosion took place at the Moorefield colliery, at Accrington, Lancashire, England, on Wednesday morning, by which 110 miners were imprisoned. Sixty-three persons perished; the rest were rescued alive.

Edward C. Maddison, financial agent, of London, failed on Saturday, with liabilities estimated at about $1,000,000.

The report of the death of M. de Brazza, the French explorer, in the Congo country, Africa, was officially denied in Paris on Monday.

There is reason to believe that the Egyptian Government is not disposed to admit M. de Lesseps's monopoly in the construction of the new Suez Canal.

It was reported in Cairo on Wednesday that El Mahdi, the False Prophet of the Sudan, was dead. Another rumor was that a powerful rebel tribe near El Obeid had given its submission to the Governor of Khartum.

It was semi-officially reported in Belgrade on Monday that the insurgent bands in Servia had broken up and had surrendered to the regular army everywhere. Later reports, however, showed that the revolt was increasing in strength.

M. Nikola Christies, the Servian Prime Minister, says that the present state of affairs in the kingdom is the result of Radical intrigues. The programme of the Radicals, he asserts, is the dethronement of King Milan and the proclamation of Queen Natalie as Regent until Crown Prince Alexander becomes of age.

The whole Chilian expeditionary force is in Arequipa. The Bolivian army is concentrating near Oruro. Montero is now in Bolivia.

The Congress of Honduras recently met and promptly accepted the resignation of President Soto, and ordered the election of his successor. There are four candidates in the field.

THE ELECTIONS.

Happy as the Democrats are over the result of the election in Virginia, we doubt if they have as much real reason for thankfulness as Republicans. The defeat of Mahone and the Readjusters merely leaves Virginia a Democratic State, and that the country at large can endure this is proved by the fact that Virginia had gone Democratic in all the national and State elections from 1873 down to the appearance of Mahone, and yet the country at large survived it and even throve under it. Had Mahone, on the other hand, been successful, several consequences would have ensued which Republicans might well have dreaded. They would have had to look forward to a campaign next year with Virginia as one of the "pivots" on which the election would turn; and they would have had to carry the State with the aid of a faction pledged to sweeping repudiation of State debts, to open and defiant debauchery of the civil service, and to blackmail of office-holders. That the Republican party could shoulder such a burden as this in a national election with advantage to itself, we very much doubt. It has been very difficult for decent Republicans to stomach the support of Mahone by the Administration during the past year. They have only managed to do it because it was an "off" year, and they had been led to hope that the appearance of Mahone on the scene meant a division of the white vote and "new issues." Some Republicans even persuaded themselves that the Readjuster issue, although the most demoralizing that could have been brought forward, was a good thing on account of its novelty, and the apparent probability that a new chance of cheating their creditors would rally blacks and whites enthusiastically to the same ballot-box, who otherwise would have watched each other with suspicion and distrust. But it has been very hard work for them.

The support of Mahone by the Administration has been generally explained as the result of a desire to bring Virginia into "the Republican column" for 1884; and the idea that this could be done by "Mahoneism" is a curious sort of survival of Reconstruction politics, which could only have been seriously entertained by a President who, like Mr. Arthur, is a Stalwart at heart. Mahone's explanation of his defeat, in fact, sounds somewhat like the talk of a belated manager of one of the Returning Boards of the Hayes-Tilden period. The great importance of the election, he says, arises from "the impression" it will "make upon the people of the North." He mentions "fraud, intimidation, and the corrupt use of money" as the chief causes, and he declares that the Danville riot was a "preconcerted" Democratic outrage to keep the negroes away from the polls. But here, curiously enough, he stops. He does not go on as he would have done six or seven years ago, and predict that there is but one way to meet this. He has no remedy to propose. He says, somewhat darkly, that "when a man fires the grass he ought to know beforehand what will be in the way of the flames"; but he does not explain what he means by this. In other words, he and his friends are now brought face to face with the fact that, in their attempt to bring Virginia into the "Republican column," they have overlooked the most important point in the whole affair—that this sort of a campaign cannot be conducted successfully without the use of force, and the use of force is no longer possible.

The defeat of Mahone will probably convince the Administration that time spent in trying to revive the politics of the Reconstruction or Outrage period is time thrown away, and that the surest way to keep up a solid South and to prevent States from coming over to the "Republican column," is to try to build up a party there by means of Federal patronage. With Virginia in its present condition, it is difficult to imagine anything worse for Republicans than to have a national election turn upon their being able to carry it; and happily it now seems probable that the end of Mahoneism there means that they must carry New York or lose the country. Now, New York politics have a bad name throughout the country, owing to the condition of the city government and the great influence of the city politicians in the councils of the Democratic party. But the truth is, as has been frequently proved during the last thirty years, that no State in the Union possesses so large a body of independent voters, who can be relied on to check party excesses or punish party scandals with swiftness and vigor. Whenever the time seems to have come in this State to bring demagogues or tricksters to their senses, they are not left in any doubt as to the popular feeling about them by being beaten, if beaten at all, by small majorities after a hard struggle, as Butler has been in Massachusetts. They are literally, as the prize-fighters say, "knocked out" by a blow so tremendous that they are saved the trouble of all subsequent discussion as to what it means. No party, in fact, in this State is allowed to think itself secure in the possession of power, except from year to year. Nobody can figure out the result of next year's election from last year's returns, or flatter himself that the devices of one campaign will do equally good service in the next.

For instance, General Grant had a majority in this State over Greeley of 53,456 in 1872, which looked as if, with economy, it ought to last the party for ten years at least. But, as a matter of fact, four years of "Grantism" so disenchanted the independent voters that in 1876 Tilden had a majority over Hayes of 32,742. The Gubernatorial vote illustrates the matter still more strikingly. Dix (Rep.) had in 1872 almost the same majority over Kernan as Grant over Greeley—or, 53,451. But this was so frittered away by Republican excesses that in 1874 Tilden (Dem.) had 50,317 majority over Dix, showing a shifting of about 50,000 votes. In 1876, Robinson (Dem.) had nearly the same majority over Morgan (Rep.) as Tilden over Hayes. But three years later, in 1879, Cornell (Rep.) had 46,777 majority over Robinson. The illustration is less good, however, in this case, owing to the fact that Kelly ran as an independent Democrat, and carried off more than 60,000 votes.

Of what happened last year it is hardly necessary to speak. The Republican managers had become so blind to the signs of the times that they chose that year for a special display of contempt for everything the independents and reformers of all classes had been asking for. By way of answer to the clamor against assessments on office-holders, they collected these assessments with greater method, more publicly, and in larger amounts than perhaps ever before. By way of showing their scorn for reform talk, they spent part of the campaign funds on a scurrilous official pamphlet, filled with gross abuse of the leading persons connected with the civil-service-reform movement. The officials violated the statute against assessment with much ostentation, and the prosecution of one of them was met with a sort of mockery by a demurrer to the indictment on the ground that there was a mistake in his baptismal name. They opened an office behind the Custom-house and ordered the clerks to bring in their contributions without delay. Finally, they singled out the man of all men in the party, within this State, whom they knew to be most obnoxious to the reform sentiment and most associated with party abuses in the public eye, and made him Chairman of the State Committee. The result was that their State ticket was defeated by 192,854. The blow was so tremendous that they never said another word about the matter. The managers simply disappeared for some weeks from the public gaze. Then the Democrats began to think that their good time was coming, and that this majority of 192,000 was a sort of unexpected bequest to them from a deceased uncle, which they could do what they pleased with. It seemed this time last year inexhaustible, or, at all events, good till 1884. So they fell to denouncing the reformers in the old Republican lingo, and ridiculing the working of the Civil-Service Act, and encouraging "the boys" to get ready to come in and have "their toes warmed," or, in other words, began to promise them a great debauch in spoils after the next Presidential election. As the Republicans had started a young newspaper reporter for Congressman-at-Large last year, the Democrats determined to start a young newspaper reporter for the Mayoralty of a great city this year, by way of showing the public what sober-minded, careful, and conscientious men they would be when they got hold of the Presidency, and how needless it was to ask for any more explicit declaration of their intentions than an expression of readiness to take possession of the offices.

The Republicans, on the other hand, have shown that they have profited by last year's disaster. There have been no assessments, no notes of defiance to reformers, or of contempt for the law, no lavish expenditure at headquarters, no open parading of obnoxious workers. The result is that the Democratic majority has disappeared as in the twinkling of an eye, and all the hopes built on it about 1884 have been ruined. The lesson of it all is that neither party can count on New York, except through good behavior.

DIVORCE AND ITS INCREASE.

The State of Massachusetts has just issued a report on divorce, giving a history of the

legislation in that State and showing the present condition of the evil. The report is accompanied by some editorial remarks prepared by Dr. Frank Wells, in which he reaches the conclusion that practically little or nothing can be done by law to check the spread of divorce. He thinks that it must be left "to educators, to social scientists, to the Church, and, by no means last, to parents, to apply the relief." But even here, when he comes to details, it is evident that what he really has in view is a general improvement in the tone of the community, which, if it diminished divorces, would do so as it would diminish burglaries and murders, by operating indirectly on the causes which render them so common. Curb the "selfish individualism" which is the curse of the times, he says; cultivate the domestic affections in the young by "making home attractive"; provide amusements and instruction for the masses on all days in the week, particularly their only holiday, Sunday; check the spread of intemperance by multiplying coffee-houses and other places for cheerful recreation; encourage the promotion of "social clubs and the like" in rural communities, etc. These recommendations are evidently chiefly important as implying that, in the opinion of Dr. Wells, all direct attempts to solve the "divorce problem" may as well be given up. The sort of general social amelioration which he proposes has in fact actually been going on within the period during which the tendency to divorce has become so marked. Strenuous efforts have been made, for instance, to check the spread of intemperance, both by the force of social opinion and by law, while the multiplication of places for cheerful recreation is a marked peculiarity of our day. Music, cards, dancing, lectures, all sorts of sports, have taken the place of the hard drinking which was the chief social recreation of the New Englander in earlier times; yet as he has familiarized himself with the gospel of cheerfulness his notions about marriage have become more and more loose. So that, whichever way we look at it, the result seems to be that nothing of much importance can be done by the Legislature.

A very different view of the subject is taken by Mr. Leonard Woolsey Bacon, in an article contributed to the last number of the *Princeton Review*. He insists that the law on the subject of divorce (and the general drift of legislation has been very much alike all over the country) ought to be changed, and changed at once, very materially. In the first place, he would have a *locus penitentiæ*, or what he calls "cooling time," in all proceedings for divorce—in other words, that the divorce should not be made absolute at once. In the second place, he would have the State represented in all divorce proceedings. In the third place, he would have it obligatory upon the plaintiff, in case the application rests on a charge of crime of any kind, to have the crime punished by an ordinary prosecution. For another thing, he would have the guilty party prevented from marrying again. All these recommendations seem very good; and if they were new, we should say that they might accomplish great results. But they are not new at all. Mr. Bacon might have found them all embodied in the actual legislation of the American States in which divorce is on the increase. There is nothing in the experience of these States to show that the progress of divorce can be sensibly decreased by them, though undoubtedly they are palliatives.

But there is one thing that Mr. Bacon admits could be done. Probably "the most difficult part of divorce reform is that which relates to abuses growing out of the diverse and discordant laws of the different States." This is what makes all statistics in any one State of little value. We know from them what divorces are granted by the courts of that State, but not where the parties really came from, or how far the divorce was in fraud of obligations contracted in another State. Now, as to this, the only cure is a uniform system, and the only way to get a uniform system is through an amendment to the Constitution giving power to Congress to regulate the matter. Curiously enough, this proposal excites Mr. Bacon's utmost horror. He declares that while this would be a good thing for the family, it would be fraught with terrible results to constitutional government. He draws, in fact, from the suggestion the somewhat amusing conclusion that the existing abuses of divorce constitute at present "the most formidable danger to the perpetuity of the American Constitution." The abuses are getting so bad that unless they are reformed by the States the agitation against them will become so violent that the Constitution will be amended, and, as we understand Mr. Bacon, no amendment is practicable on this subject which does not involve the open abandonment of our system of federated national government. Mr. Bacon seems to overlook the fact that the subjects of bankruptcy, of copyright, of patents, and even (in some important respects) of contracts, have been committed to Congress already. How the power to pass a uniform divorce law would alter the nature of the Constitution we do not see; but at any rate, no one can read his article without seeing that we have got to choose between this and going on as we have been going—and, to judge by the Massachusetts statistics, this is just what we can hardly afford to do.

"COLLECTIVITY" IN ENGLAND.

POLITICS in England seem to be running in the direction of socialism with a rapidity which nobody even ten years ago appears to have in the least foreseen. The Irish Land Act is a step that way of which, even so late as 1875, probably no politician of note would have admitted the possibility. Of course there has been already in England plenty of special legislation for the protection of the landed interest. The Corn Laws were a plan for enabling the landlords to make money during hard times. There has, too, since the abolition of the Corn Laws been a great deal of state interference between employer and employed for the protection of the latter against fraud and oppression. But there has always been something sacrosanct about land in Englishmen's eyes, which has made it seem the very last thing with which the state ought to meddle to the prejudice in any degree of the owner of the fee. The proposal that the state should step in and fix rents was made many years ago with regard to Ireland, but it was regarded in the House of Commons, to say nothing of the House of Lords, as too chimerical for discussion. Its sudden embodiment in legislation, therefore, as the result of two years of Parnell's agitation, is a shock from which the laissez-faire school of economists have not yet recovered. It seems, moreover, now to have really given the Liberal party an impetus toward what the French call "collectivity," of which it is impossible to foresee the end, and which is already alarming the more timid and moderate.

"Collectivity," in the dialect of the Socialists, means the ownership of all the instruments of production by the state, and its use of them in such manner as shall seem best calculated to eradicate or diminish poverty. The English Liberals are a long way from advocating anything of this kind in terms, but they have just committed themselves to a doctrine which may bring them to it in a shorter space of time than most of them probably imagine. They have virtually proclaimed it to be the duty of the Government to see that the poor are comfortably lodged—a stupendous undertaking, as every one may see who takes the trouble to calculate how many poor there are in England, and what it costs to lodge a family decently. The London *Spectator*, which is by no means the most practical or cautious of the Liberal organs, was so alarmed by this that it warned the party solemnly against being chimerical, and probably a good many others wished after the declaration was launched that it could be recalled, and hoped that in the coming discussion over the county franchise and the redistribution of seats it might be forgotten, or put into the background.

The question has, however, been brought to the forefront with startling impressiveness by a pamphlet issued by the London Congregational Union, with the somewhat sensational title of "The Bitter Cry of the London Poor," giving an account of the appalling misery in the matter of shelter even of the wage-earning poor of the city; of the squalor, unhealthiness, and indecency of their dwellings, and this in spite of the existence of an act of Parliament of 1875 providing for a rigid official inspection of lodging-houses. It is undoubtedly a frightful picture to present to the wealthy and luxurious class at the other end of the city, who are occupying themselves with imperialism, and art, and rare editions, and old china, and the health of the grouse and deer. It has, however, apparently done its work, for it has made the responsibility of the state for the dwellings of the working classes the great question of the day. It has, it would seem, touched the conscience of a portion of the English people, whose conscience, when touched, is a tremendous force in politics. Its effect, too, has been heightened by the appearance of an article from Lord Salisbury, on "Laborers' and Artisans' Dwellings," in the *Quarterly Review*, which is generally regarded as a sort of Tory bid for working-class support, in the form of an acknowledgment that the manner in which poor men are lodged

is the concern of the state. It therefore seems at this moment as if the two parties were about to engage in a struggle, as once before about the extension of the suffrage, to see which will be first to lower the laborer's and artisan's rent, or—what amounts to the same thing—give him a better dwelling for the same money.

One does not need to be a prophet, or the son of a prophet, to see that competition of this kind, on the eve of another extension of the franchise, in fact, on the eve of what many consider the establishment of manhood suffrage, is not likely to stop short with the offer of better lodgings. It will not be possible for the Government, after providing the workingman with a good house, to refuse to do anything more, as long as he can show that he is at a disadvantage in the market compared to other classes of society. He has as much right to good food, and good clothing below the regular rates, if he cannot get them at the regular rates, as he has to good lodgings. In fact, the principle of state responsibility in this field once admitted, it is very hard to say where it ends, and whether it should not cover everything which promotes his welfare, moral and intellectual as well as material.

Lord Salisbury acknowledges that none of the attempts to furnish workingmen with good lodgings at low rates, hitherto made, including Mr. Peabody's, are of much service to those who do not earn at least $6 a week, and have more than five in a family. A vast body of the poor in London and other large towns do not earn this or anything like it. His plan, and, as far as we see, everybody's plan, is to have the Government lend money at low rates of interest to local bodies to put up lodging-houses; but in most of the discussion Government money is talked of as if it came out of some large receptacle to which the taxpayers did not contribute. It is not at all likely that such lodging-houses as would be put up by municipalities in the present temper of the public would pay even 2 per cent. The Peabody trustees only ask 3. The local taxpayers, at all events, would be pretty sure to have a deficit of some kind to meet, and to get at the full meaning of this, one has to read what Mr. Fawcett says about local expenditure in Great Britain in the last edition of his 'Manual of Political Economy.' He says that local expenditure, if it increases during the next quarter of a century as it has increased during the last, will exceed that of the Imperial Government. The local authorities now raise $200,000,000 a year for local purposes, and have an annual deficit of $100,000, which they meet by borrowing. In Liverpool, for example, rates in 1841 amounted to less than $2 per caput of the population. They now amount to more than $9 per caput. They used, in 1841, to reach about 12 per cent. on the house rent. They now reach 25 per cent. If they go on as at present they will soon reach 50 per cent. In another place near Liverpool the rates will actually amount, at the present rate of progress, in forty years, to 120 per cent.

The truth is, that neither England nor any other country in Europe can undertake any such scheme for elevating the material condition of the poor without cutting down expenses in other directions, in ways which would greatly change its relations to the rest of the world, and would involve a great modification of its political ideals. The army and navy as at present maintained, and some other highly ornamental institutions and possessions, would have to go, before any plan of collectivity could be safely entered on. He would be a wise man, too, who could tell whither, when once entered on, it would lead any modern state. Of all the tasks that fall to the lot of government or individual the task of giving people comforts which they cannot earn is the most delicate and most difficult.

A FRENCH REVIEW OF THE TONQUIN WAR.

PARIS, October 25.

As the French Government seems completely resolved to extend our Empire in Indo-China, it will not be without interest to examine the situation of French affairs in that quarter, as set forth in voluminous documents prepared for the Chambers. It is well known that our colony of Cochin China is separated by Anam from the province of Tonquin. On the 26th of May we learned in France the news of the unsuccessful sortie from Hanoi and the death of Commander Rivière. Orders were immediately sent to the Governor of Cochin China to send to Tonquin all the troops he could dispose of, and some reinforcements were despatched from France. General Bouët, the Military Commander of Cochin China, received an order to start for Tonquin and to take command of the troops. At that moment these troops occupied only three points of the great Delta, but their communications were secure. Haiphong was able to resist, with the help of a gunboat, and had become the principal centre of resistance. The Anamites occupied Namdinh, but the French Colonel Badens was still master of the citadel. On the 19th of July he made a brilliant sortie against the Anamites, took several guns, and killed 700 men. At Haiphong the French repulsed in several small affairs the Anamites and the Chinese. It was at this moment that the new Civil Commissioner, M. Harmand, arrived in Tonquin. The reinforcements sent from Toulon and New Caledonia arrived also, and on the 30th of July M. Harmand held a council of war with Admiral Courbet and General Bouët. It was decided to make the principal assault on Hanoi, the most important place in the Delta, so as to disorganize the Black Flags, which may be considered as the best Chinese troops. At Namdinh the French were to remain merely on the defensive.

A most important event had taken place: the King of Anam had died, and his successor had not been appointed without some difficulty. It had always been understood that the affair with Tonquin could not satisfactorily be settled without an insurrection in Anam, which formed the link between Tonquin and our possession of Cochin China. It was therefore necessary to establish such relations at Hué as would practically place the King in the position of a vassal. The soul of the resistance to our arms in Tonquin was at Hué; the subsidies paid to the Black Flags came from this capital. The French commanders found their opportunity in the death of the King and the confusion which followed. In a few days all was combined for a powerful action; some pieces of artillery were lent to the squadron by the land artillery, and a small landing corps was put on board the ships. The rendezvous of the squadron was Turan, where, on the 15th of August, the Tonquin squadron met the ships sent from Saigon. On the 18th the fleet approached the entrance of the river of Hué and began the bombardment of the forts, which were well manned—one of them had been constructed long ago by a European engineer. It was impossible, however, for the Anamites to resist long the powerful fire of the French fleet, and on the 21st of August the forts of Tuan-an were all in the hands of the French. The Commissioner-General Harmand went immediately to Hué, during a truce, and from the French legation sent to the Anamite Government an ultimatum, with offers of peace. On the 25th of August the treaty proposed by him was accepted and signed. This treaty had, of course, been carefully prepared in Paris: it places Anam in a new situation, under the absolute protectorate of France. It is almost a copy of the Bardo treaty which followed the Tunisian expedition, and which has placed Tunis under the French protectorate. The administration of Anam will remain in the hands of the natives, but all the diplomatic affairs of the kingdom will be in our hands. The Court of Anam engaged itself to recall immediately all the troops which had been sent to Tonquin, and to give orders to all the mandarins with a view to the reëstablishment of peace. These mandarins have great power, and some of them are practically independent. Several of them, however, obeying the orders sent from Hué, have already entered into relations with the French authorities in Tonquin. Two of the principal ministers of Hué have gone to this province, with full powers for disbanding the Anamite troops and arresting the generals and mandarins who refuse to lay down their arms. The treaty of Hué is a great triumph for the French expedition, paving the way for the end of the war in Tonquin, which has always been very unpopular in France. At the same time, it imposes new and great duties on the French Colonial Administration. Anam becomes, in fact, a French dependency in order that Tonquin may become another, and that its splendid river may be opened to French commerce and to the commerce of the world.

Thus far the occupation of Tunisia has been very successful, but we had in our Algerine colonies a school of soldiers and of administrators who were all prepared for this comparatively easy task. I have spoken on the subject with old generals, who spent a great part of their life in Algiers, and they have all declared, "We paid dearly for our experience in Africa, but now we are reaping the benefit of it; we understand the Arabs, and know how to deal with them." Will it be so in Anam? Will it be so in Tonquin? It may be. As yet we have had no trouble in Cochin China; but there is a vague feeling adverse to this extension, which brings us near the great unknown Empire of China. If the treaty of Hué had not been signed, the present Cabinet would almost certainly have fallen on the Tonquin question; now Jules Ferry has his treaty, and he has become less vulnerable.

After the conclusion of the treaty, the Civil Commissioner left a resident at the Court of Hué and returned immediately to Tonquin, where the military operations had begun. The French Government issued a circular, in which it recalled the interdict long before made in Anam against importing arms or materials of war. The operations in Tonquin were successful; two places, Haidzuong and Kuang-yen, fell into the power of the French on the 13th and on the 20th of August. Great quantities of arms and munitions were found in these two places. After the council of war at Haiphong, General Bouët had returned to Hanoi. On the 15th of August he attacked the Black Flags, but his first successes were interrupted by a sud-

den inundation. The enemy, however, left its position, and the French kept a fortified pagoda, which was the centre of it. Still, the difficulties were such that the General asked for new reinforcements, and these were sent during the month of September. Without waiting for them, he took the offensive as soon as the state of the river and of the Delta allowed, making a sortie on the 1st of September in the direction of Sontay, under the protection of a gunboat. A fortification was taken by storm by our troops, who charged through water up to their breasts. Operations were at that moment suspended, in order to wait for the effects of the treaty of Hué and for the expected reinforcements. During this period, General Bouët, who, it is said, did not easily tolerate the authority of the Civil Commissioner Harmand, came back to France, by permission of the Minister of War. He was replaced by Colonel Bichot, and Admiral Courbet took the supreme command of all the forces on land and on sea.

At the present moment, it cannot be denied that our position in Tonquin is far better than it was a few months ago. In the month of May the French only occupied three points in the Delta; they were everywhere surrounded by the Black Flags, the Anamites, and the Chinese, in the midst of hostile mandarins. At the present moment the large Delta is completely under French control, from the sea to the summit of the triangle which is inland. The mandarins are making their submission, and one after the other obeying the orders sent from Hué. The troops of Anam are on the point of being disbanded. The population, which has never played any active part in the war, and which is submissive, is completely resigned to a new rule. The Black Flags are in retreat, and desertions are taking place in their ranks. The health of the French troops is excellent.

This is undoubtedly a satisfactory state of things, and it only remains to be seen what progress the French Government has made with the Chinese negotiators. France would not accept any other basis of negotiation than the treaty of 1874, which gives her the right to prevent any foreign intervention in Tonquin. China had at first accepted this situation; she had recalled her own troops from Tonquin, and given full powers to Li Hung Chang to treat with M. Tricou. But her attitude changed after the unfortunate sortie of the 19th of May, when Commander Rivière was killed. All at once began one of those diplomatic comedies in which the Chinese excel, and which they can play interminably. China, encouraged by the opposition in the French Chambers, by the tone of the European press, became immediately very arrogant. She went so far as to ask that new reinforcements should not be sent to Tonquin, and intimated that no permanent arrangement could be made if France did not evacuate the places which she occupied in Tonquin. From the beginning, France, in order to show her good will, had offered a rectification of frontiers; afterward she consented to the constitution of a neutral zone—a point on which the Chinese negotiators constantly insist. The object of the Chinese is to prevent any direct contact between the Europeans and the populations of the Celestial Empire. How are we to reconcile this language with that of the Marquis Tseng, a few days ago, when he was solemnly received and greeted by the Corporation of Folkestone, and spoke, as Bright or Cobden would have done, on the rapidity of communications in modern times and the necessity of bringing all nations together? Chinese diplomats are Eastern diplomats; they are treated with the same forms as civilized diplomats, but they are in many respects very different from these. They have different modes of thinking; their ideal of honor, of patriotism, of international law is quite distinct. We must not judge them too severely, as many barbarians must pass a severe judgment on our own civilization. I once heard an English statesman make this just remark: "The nations which we call barbarous are ignorant of international law and its rules, and we constantly punish them with fire and sword for this ignorance." We cannot well judge the Chinese, and they cannot well judge us. The final issue is a question of brute force. China, for the present, thinks us weak, and it is for this reason that she now claims not only the nominal sovereignty over, but possession of, Tonquin.

The pretensions of China, in our eyes, have no basis: her sovereignty is purely honorary. It has the same character as the sovereignty over many other Asiatic provinces—over Cochin China, for instance—which the French now occupy, and which China has never disputed with them. The English occupy half of Burmah; and China, though she pretends to be the sovereign of Burmah, never made any opposition to the occupation of England. The French pretensions are founded on recent treaties, that of 1874 and the treaty of Hué. On the 18th of August, 1883, the Marquis Tseng sent a despatch to our Minister of Foreign Affairs, in which the Chinese Government offered six points for his acceptance, looking to the French evacuation of Tonquin, and to the opening of the Red River to foreign navigation as far as Sontay. The French Minister lost no time in answering, and asserted French rights in his despatch of the 27th of August; he did not hesitate to say that the six points presented by the Marquis Tseng could not, in his eyes, become the basis of a useful discussion. He refused to examine the Chinese propositions. On the 15th of September a memorandum was sent by our Foreign Office to the Marquis Tseng, and its conclusion embraced these two points: first, a delimitation of the neutral zone in Tonquin; second, the opening of Manh-hao, on the Red River, in the province of Yunnan, to foreign trade. The official answer of China was only sent on the 16th of October. China offered a different delimitation of the neutral zone, and refused to open the port of Manh-hao. China wants us to abandon Tonquin, and reserves to herself the right of occupying all the northern part of Anam. Such is the price she asks for our occupation of the provinces of the South. Such is, at the present moment, the situation of things. It is clear that China is waiting for the development of events. She perhaps expects ministerial changes in France; she expects, probably, the indirect support of some European Power in the vindication of her pretended rights. But it is doubtful if she will gain much by prolonging negotiations which France can prolong, in her turn, as long as she likes.

Correspondence.

THE MASSACHUSETTS ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Modesty is not generally regarded as a leading virtue of the people of Massachusetts, but they may reasonably assume that their State contest has attracted more or less of attention throughout the whole country. To outsiders it may appear to be merely a struggle between an unscrupulous demagogue and the decent portion of society. The question was, however, far deeper than that. Not since the war have more profound or more sharply defined political issues been involved, though they have no doubt been much obscured by personal considerations. In trying to make this clear I must cast a glance backward. Voices have not been wanting for many years to declare that the system of politics in Massachusetts (not to speak of other States and cities) was a farce and a fraud; that a thousand delegates from all parts of the State were assembled to set up as candidate for Governor a man of whom they knew hardly anything, nominated by a committee of whom they knew nothing at all, and who represented absolutely no policy and no principles beyond general virtue and respectability; that the people were expected to devote much time and pains to the election of such a candidate; that the Governor, when elected, might just as well be represented by a wax figure, as he had no more influence in making the laws, and little more in enforcing them, than an ordinary citizen. These critics further objected that, as all the principal executive officers were elected separately, no unity, continuity, or system of administration was possible; that the Legislature had absorbed all the powers of the Executive, thus reduced to insignificance, and carried on the government by means of anonymous boards and commissions, whose work, whatever else might be said of it, was both secret and irresponsible, and subject to the caprice and jobbery of the Legislature. The critics further said that with the mass of the people, who have to attend to their farms, and their workshops, and their merchandise, personal enthusiasm was the only element available in the long run; that sooner or later some vigorous fellow would jump over conventions and committees, and, appealing directly to the people, would make short work of impersonal government based upon abstract principles; and that as the respectable part of the community resolutely refused to give the Governor, the only representative of the whole State, any legitimate power, the man who should make this appeal to the people would come from and address himself to the worst portion.

We will now come to the facts of the case. Governor Butler has held a prominent position before the public for some thirty years. Though his character and record are of the worst, the people do not forget that he led the Fifth Massachusetts Regiment through Baltimore, and that when he returned from New Orleans a large audience of respectable citizens assembled in Faneuil Hall to acknowledge the success of his administration in that city. With that fertility of ideas which is rendered fatal by want of principle, he put his finger on the sore spot in our affairs by attacking the work of the commissions, and on this basis he was elected last year. The Tewksbury investigation did not reveal much that was bad, and it was conducted in the worst possible spirit and method, but the people were delighted at the enforcing of public responsibility on those who had appeared beyond reach of it. His greatest strength lay, however, in this, that he was the first man in the United States to declare open war against the usurpation and tyranny of the Legislature, and thus to begin a contest which will some day shake the Union to its foundation. Andrew Johnson, indeed, quarrelled with Congress, but it was a personal sulk. Governor Cleveland has vetoed many bills, but only as a question of details. Butler vetoed bills right and left, on the express ground that the Executive had not his proper share of power, and was a mere tool in the hands of the Legislature and the Council.

When the campaign opened this autumn it may be said that Butler held as good cards as ever fell to a candidate. If he had played them with any sort of skill he could have swept the

State. It was a clear case of suicide. His reckless and incendiary talk, his vulgarity and even obscenity, his offensive egotism and coarse personalities, disgusted all respectable people, and roused the most determined opposition.

What, on the other hand, were the Republicans doing? The first thing was to get a candidate. After some hesitation the choice fell, somewhat against his will, upon the Hon. George D. Robinson, member of Congress from this State. It is perhaps safe to say that not 5 per cent. of the population of this State had ever heard his name. Politically he represented the *status quo* and —opposition to Butler. He adopted the only method which offered a chance of success, in manfully taking the stump himself, and made, I believe, sixty-seven speeches. His gentlemanly bearing rapidly won him favor, as against the reckless lying of his opponent. The political antagonism is not less distinct than the personal. Mr. Robinson's position is substantially: "By our Constitution and laws the Governor has no power and should have no personality. If elected, I propose to be nobody." "The Governor has no more to do with the burden of taxation than a Hottentot." "I see nothing in Massachusetts which needs reform." The efforts of his supporters have been tremendous. Money has been poured out like water, and a house-to-house canvass conducted all over the State. Appeals have been published from leading business men, leading Democrats, and leading Germans. In a vote of 313,000, the largest ever cast in the State, Robinson had a plurality of about 9,000, a very dangerous symptom indeed if we follow the general idea that it is a mere struggle of property and conservatism against the mob, but very much less so if we include the issue of political principle. The maxim of the new government will doubtless be: "Draw the veil again over the internal working of our sacred institutions. The people are well served. What need is there of vexatious inquiry?" It is not the first and probably will not be the last time that the Republicans, in their utter weakness, have been saved by the folly and depravity of their opponents. They may go on in their superstitious dread of one-man power to reduce administration to a deadlock. But they can be sure that the path pointed out by Butler will not want occupants; that such a man, supported by the people, will sooner or later sweep away their delicately-contrived checks and balances—which work all one way; that they will have the one-man power whether they like it or not; and that the only choice open to them is whether they will have him strong, but responsible to the public intelligence and conscience, or whether they will have him strong, but responsible to nobody but himself. G. B.

BOSTON, November 7.

A SOJOURNER IN ALABAMA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is said of one Ovid Bolus, in 'Flush Times,' that he romanced "from a love of adventure and a fondness for fictitious narrative." I should be disposed to class your correspondent "Sojourner," writing from North Alabama, under this type, were it not too obvious that his romancing about our State and people was the direct outgrowth of malignant ignorance. His aspersions upon Alabama and her people would have fallen still-born from his pen, had not prominence and influence been given to them by publication in the *Nation*. That the Northern public may not be misled by the misrepresentations of "Sojourner," I respectfully ask for sufficient space in your columns to correct the errors referred to.

"Sojourner" says of Alabama: "I have at times seriously questioned its being a part of the civilized globe." He continues: "Perhaps nothing has so much contributed to bring about this lamentable state of affairs as the mortgage system." How passing strange is all this when the fact is that the mortgage system is precisely the same in Alabama that it is in all the other States of the Union. He says the crop-lien law —which he confuses with "the mortgage system"—was passed by our Legislature for one year, and was extended and amended until merchants could take the wagons and teams of unfortunate croppers. This is untrue. A crop-lien law was enacted by our Legislature to give parties who advanced to farmers the same lien and remedies which landlords previously had for rent. But this law only extends to bona-fide advances, to enable the farmer to make a crop the current year; and the contract could not be enforced unless the farmer signed a written instrument, stating that the advances were obtained bona fide to enable him to make a crop, and without such advances he would be unable to make a crop the present year. Our Supreme Court has decided, and every farmer knows the fact to be, that not one dollar outside of actual plantation supplies can be enforced under the crop-lien statute.

"Sojourner" says he once saw a merchant sell to a negro for $50 the iron pillar *supporting a building*, assuring Cuffie that it would protect his cabin from lightning. This absurd statement is too preposterous to be believed, even if "Sojourner" had not forgotten to tell his readers what became of the building which the pillar was supporting. The building, when the pillar was taken from under it by the negro, must have been supported by the same material from which "Sojourner" spun his romance from North Alabama—thin air. But he says that another merchant took a $5 bill from a negro, and, pretending that it was counterfeit, tore it up, and threatened the negro with prosecution; then he straightway gathered up the pieces and put them together again, and kept the money. No supporting pillar was taken out in this "fish story," and I must permit it to stand or fall under the old maxim, "Falsus in uno, falsus in omnibus."

"Sojourner" goes on to state that the negroes are each year growing poorer and poorer, and are now "moneyless and powerless." The negro had nothing when the war ended, and how is it possible that he is yearly growing poorer? Can "Sojourner" answer? If he can, then let him explain how it happened that he saw one negro give $50 for an iron post, and another give a merchant a $5 bill to tear up.

He says a law was enacted by the Legislature of Alabama prohibiting, under heavy penalty, any trade in cotton between the hours of sunrise and sunset. Again he is in error. The law he refers to simply prohibits, in certain counties, the buying of *seed cotton* at night. He next goes for the soulless landlords, who, he says, rent poor, worn-out land to negroes for thirty-five pounds of lint-cotton per acre; and he asserts that the land is actually so poor that it will not produce more than a bale of cotton to three acres. When we consider that a bale of cotton to every three acres is a good average crop, taking plantations as they come, in any country, and that a fourth of the lint-cotton—giving the tenant all the cotton-seed—is moderate rent all over the South, we see nothing but ignorance and malice left in this charge. The rent of three acres, at thirty-five pounds of lint per acre, would be 105 pounds; and, as the tenant would make a bale of cotton (a bale being 500 pounds of lint), he would pay but about one-fourth of his cotton for rent, and have all the cotton-seed.

After berating merchants and landlords, "Sojourner" falls foul of "saloon-keepers," and accuses them of swindling the negroes out of their crops. He has the advancing merchant on one side grabbing all the poor negro makes, the soulless landlord on the other taking all too, and the wicked saloon-keeper in the middle getting the lion's share. He winds up by saying that the negroes in North Alabama have all gone to work on the Government improvements at Muscle Shoals, and that the merchants have now tackled the landlords and have them tied up with mortgages. This is all sheer nonsense. The locality "Sojourner" wrote from is the most beautiful, fertile, well-cultivated, and prosperous section in the South—the Tennessee Valley: and if "Sojourner" did not meet with intelligence, hospitality, refinement, and prosperity there, it was not the fault of the country or the people, but because he struck that low stratum of society which is found in every country on the civilized globe.

Now a word for Alabama, in conclusion. There is no war of races or of sections here, and labor and capital work harmoniously together. The increase of cotton production speaks for the output of labor, and the general prosperity of the country exhibits the utilization of capital. We have uncultivated lands, and have ever had, for that matter, because the population has never been sufficient in Alabama to occupy and cultivate one-half of our broad expanse of fertile soil. But our waste places are rapidly being filled up, and emigrants from all over the civilized globe are coming in and finding homes among us. They say that they meet with hospitality and fellowship and material aid here which were unknown in the sections from which they came; and they are all highly delighted with our cheap and productive lands, our mineral deposits of coal and iron, our manufactures and industrial works, our educational advantages, our churches, and our mild and healthful climate. They come with trunks, and not "carpet-bags." Let "Sojourner" note this.

TUSCALOOSA (Alabama).

NOVEMBER 4, 1883.

THE "SENIOR SOCIETY" EVIL AT YALE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I ask for some portion of your space to describe an evil which threatens danger to Yale College. I am compelled to speak through the public press because the College press is closed to discussion of this subject. I select the *Nation* as my medium of communication because by it my letter will be brought to the attention of Yale graduates more widely than by any other paper.

There are two Senior societies here, "Skull and Bones" and "Scroll and Key." Yale stands alone among colleges, I think, in having a secret-society system which is entirely a class organization; and in this peculiar feature must be sought the cause of the evils of the system. These evils have grown so great as to be injurious to the College and to call for some action on the part of those who have its interests in charge. It is useless for undergraduates to appeal to the Faculty, for half the members are society men, and it would be hard to convince them of the evil, or to persuade them to act against their societies. Therefore, I am compelled to appeal to the press to publish the evils which I am about to mention.

First, the societies have suppressed the freedom of the College press. We have here a daily paper, two bi-weeklies, and a monthly magazine, and all are controlled by the societies. Not a sentence which reflects on the societies is permitted to be printed; not a joke, not an item of news, can appear in connection with their names,

excepting the solitary case in which once a year the list of new members is published. The *Yale News* was started in 1878 as an anti-secret society paper; the *Courant* about 1876–79 was non-secret society; but the society elections come after the election of editors, and the society men took care to select a sufficient number on all the papers to insure their control. This they have done ever since. The *News*, the *Record*, the *Courant*, the *Literary Magazine* are all in the hands of the societies so completely, that when a person remarked that he regarded a certain one of them as the exponent of Yale College opinion, one of the editors replied: "Yes, it is the exponent of Yale College opinion, but as modified by the secret societies." It is easy to see what a tyranny this is when the College is divided on the society question.

Again, the evil worms itself into our religious life, it introduces friction into our religious development; for the members form cliques. The class deacons who belong to the societies associate more with their fellow-members than with the rest of the class, whereas they should be *class* officers. The society deacons, moreover, lose much of their influence in the class. This is glaringly exemplified in the present Senior class. Again, the deacons who are left out must find it rather difficult to work cordially with those whose interest lies elsewhere; and the servility towards the societies which taints the lower classes must affect their deacons. Our literary societies have been destroyed by the concentration of interest in the secret societies. They became all-absorbing, and old "Linonia," whose walls echoed in days gone by to the voices of those who are now among our nation's great men, is dead beyond resurrection. It is not true that literary societies here have been killed by the increased spread of good and cheap literature, for why has not the same cause destroyed them at Amherst, Princeton, and elsewhere?

I come now to another class of evils—the injury to the College, as such. There are several rich Yale men who have determined not to give her a dollar so long as the societies exist. The Yale Y. M. C. A. building subscription list suffered, I am told, to the extent of $1,000 from a single individual who is opposed to the societies! The loyalty of the graduates is lessened. I know of some young graduates, and my friends tell me of more, who go hence saying, "Now I am through; no more Yale for me." Many, too, have resolved that they will not urge their friends to come here. In short, the College loses money, loyalty, and numbers, all from this same cause. It is the belief of some that "Yale's conservatism" keeps donations and students from her; but it is a question with many whether it be not true that they are kept away by the societies. But I will not elaborate further. I will not speak of the personal injury to the members from "spreads," late hours, and the drinking which at least one society permits; nor of the expense to the men; nor of the hard feelings engendered between students; nor of the ridiculous customs which permit the society men to violate every rule of good manners if a person happens to mention his society to him; nor of the diminished number of students here as compared with that at Harvard, caused, as some think, by the society system; nor of the deterioration in the quality of the students' college work which, according to a former professor of Yale, comes after the society elections every year; nor of any of the other evils. Those which I have mentioned in detail are the most important.

I do not pretend to play the rôle of reformer. I state facts, and those who can may refute them. The Yale Alumni should do the reforming. They have but to investigate the matter to be convinced of the truth of these charges. The present Senior class feels deeply on the society question, and the sentiments here expressed are those of a large number of its members. In the name of '84 I call upon the Yale Alumni, the Faculty, and the Corporation, to look into this matter and reform it. The undergraduates can do nothing except agitate, and they are shut off from many legitimate ways of doing even this by the power of the societies—a power which, so far as it goes, is an absolute tyranny. For the good of Yale this system should cease to exist, or be radically changed. YALE.

THE STUDY OF GREEK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: In Professor Cooke's address upon the "Study of Greek," reprinted in the November number of the *Popular Science Monthly* (1883), is a passage which seems to require special reply. It is, that "in the classical schools the aim should be, as it always has been, literary culture, and the end should be that power of clothing thought in words which awakens thought." Standing alone, this statement might be passed over as a truism, but, taken in connection with another utterance of the speaker, it involves, I think, a grave misconception of the purpose of education. Professor Cooke further says: "For myself, I believe that the old classical culture is the best culture yet known for the literary professions, and among the literary professions I include both law and divinity." I deny that the law is a literary profession, and I deny that it is a sound principle to shape the culture of children according to the real or fancied requirements of any special profession, when it is unknown what any individual's profession will be.

It is to be always kept in mind that the discussions concerning the value of the study of Greek, as a means of mental training, are primarily concerned with the question of methods of instructing *children*—that is, of teaching that portion of the human race who have yet to learn not only what there is to be known and to be thought about, but also how to study and to think at all. Hence, back of the questions of methods lies the equally important question, What are the nature and the mental capacities of the average uninstructed child?

The vast majority of adult men and women are naturally either incapable of doing thinking of the kind which, clothed in words, "awakens thoughts in others," or they are too indolent to do such thinking. They either have to be, or are, content to accept and repeat the thoughts of others; and they either can do, or only choose to do, the limited thinking essential to their respective vocations as humble bread-winners. In the same way, children, generally, are either of limited mental capacities or constitutionally indolent. In choosing the materials and instruments for culture, the organizers of any general system must choose such as are best adapted for the mental constitutions of the greatest number of pupils, as well as for attaining the end of that culture.

Now, it is not true that the end of any kind of culture is the "power of clothing thought in words which awakens thought in others." The object of all culture is to fit the future man or woman to rightly and successfully *direct individual conduct*, in whatever may be the special calling of each in after-life. There can be no doubt, then, that the true end of all culture is to teach the future man to *think* correctly. But thinking cannot be separated from thoughts about concrete things, and, therefore, all culture, as a condition of teaching to think, must furnish concurrently the material facts upon which the pupil may exercise his powers of thought.

The study of languages most completely fills the required conditions. No one can do original thinking in any department of science who is incapable of making original investigations therein. Original investigations cannot be made by children; the utmost they can do is to observe and to remember. Hence science instruction, in early years, is merely exercising the memory and storing up facts: it involves no exercise of the mind in analysis, synthesis, deduction, or expression. By means thereof the pupil accumulates a mass of information not only useful, but in fact indispensable nowadays to intelligent conduct in any walk in life; but he gets no real exercise in "thinking." When a child is set to learning a language, the case is far different. He has not only to charge his memory with the meaning of words, their various declensions and conjugations, but, in order to translate from the foreign language into his own, and vice-versa, he is forced to reflect, to compare, to analyze, and to put together again, in order to solve the problem of the meaning of the author he is translating. He is further required to clothe the ideas so extracted by him in appropriate language of his own. In other words, he is taught both to think and to express his thoughts.

Among science studies, that of geometry is the only one which can compare with linguistic study in the above-described respects. Next to geometry comes algebra, and, last of all, arithmetic, as developed in the ordinary school text-books. Against them is their inapplicability to many minds. No children are so constituted mentally that they cannot be taught languages. The study of languages is sufficiently concrete to be within the grasp of any of the powers of abstraction of any child removed above idiocy. But even the simpler problems of geometry and numbers demand of the pupil such powers of abstraction as to be beyond the reach of many minds of otherwise excellent capacities. There is this also against mathematical as compared with linguistic studies, that they require a very limited vocabulary and the use of very bald sentences. They are inferior as instruments in training the pupil how to express his thoughts, although they are valuable auxiliaries in inculcating conciseness of expression.

Languages ought, therefore, to be the chief subjects of study, hereafter as heretofore, in all preparatory schools, notwithstanding the modern development of science. Greek should retain its place by the side of Latin in the curriculum of studies. They form together the best introduction to the acquirement of the modern languages, among which I include our mother tongue. The Greek grammar supplies the deficiencies of the Latin grammar in this respect. Both, moreover, have a practical value for the scientist and professional man.

But in thus advocating the study of Greek and Latin in preparatory schools, it is not proposed to advocate the critical study of them as generally pursued in high schools. When a child has reached that point in his knowledge of those languages that he is expected to write Greek and Latin verses, or to be able to discuss intelligently dialect idioms and differences of style among writers of different periods, then the study should stop. Who thinks of making the writing of French and German verses a part of the method of teaching the French and German languages? One who should propose this would be hooted at. In what school is *writing* verses required as a part of the study of English language? Life is limited, as Professor Cooke observes, and there must be a limit to the number of things taught. To keep a child drilling at

verbal niceties and at manufacturing verses, in any language, while allowing him to grow up in ignorance of the facts of natural science, is a perversion of culture and a violation of its true end. That end is, as we have seen, to bring the pupil to that point in the acquirement of facts, and to that degree of development of powers of thinking, which will enable him in after life to know where to look for what it is essential for him to know in his particular vocation, and how most efficiently to use the material after he has found it.

Our colleges, therefore, should continue to insist upon a knowledge of Greek and Latin as a prerequisite to entrance, but should not require any more critical knowledge than they now do of the English or other modern languages for admission. The time thus saved in the preparatory schools the colleges should require to be devoted to natural history and the sciences. A knowledge of the latter is essential to every business and professional man, and of both is indispensable to all who would lay any just claim to possessing modern culture.

Before closing, I desire briefly to vindicate the denial that the law is a literary profession, best trained for by classical schools. Professor Cooke has fallen into the common error of laymen, in supposing that the space in front of the jury-box is the lawyer's principal arena of action. Such is not the fact. The most important causes in the courts are usually chancery causes, because the most complicated. Resort to a jury is very seldom had in chancery practice. Some States dispense with juries in civil causes by agreement, even in causes at law; and in all States the weightiest causes ultimately find their way into the appellate courts, in which there are no juries. The lawyer's principal practice is, therefore, before benches of judges, who are usually extremely impassible persons. Flowery speech and impassioned eloquence are of small use in such practice. For this the lawyer needs industry, broad and general knowledge, and the ability to reason closely and to express himself with conciseness and clearness. As was said by Mr. Clarkson Potter to the graduating class of the Albany Law School in 1873, "there is hardly any knowledge, whether of science, literature, or art, that may not become of use to the lawyer."

Law governs all transactions of civilized life. Disputes arise between men in every kind of profession or avocation, which are brought at last to the lawyer's consideration. The lawyer must be fitted to comprehend the technicalities of all other occupations besides his own, in order that he may advise intelligently and prosecute or defend successfully. A mere *classical* training would be but a poor preparation for such requirements of knowledge, and a profession which involves such requirements is not merely literary. The law, as a profession, can dispense with the classical school; it cannot dispense with a knowledge of the facts of nature. Nor, do I think, can divinity.

FREDERICK G. BROMBERG.

MOBILE, Nov. 6, 1883.

THE RESOLUTIONS OF '98.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the matter of the mutilated text of the Kentucky "resolutions of '98," you say as follows in the last number of the *Nation*:

"We copied from the resolution as passed by the Legislature and as given by Elliott, attested by the proper State officers ('Debates on the Constitution,' iv., 540). Mr. Welling has given the words of the original *draft* as found in Jefferson's works (vol. ix., 464). This makes unnecessary any further answer to the statement that the resolutions have often been garbled to make them sound like secessionism."

This language leaves the impression, and I must suppose was *meant* to leave the impression, that I had mistaken the original *draft* for the resolutions *as passed*. Nothing could be more erroneous, as you will see when you recall that the original draft of Mr. Jefferson was first published in 1831, whereas, of the two authorities which I cite for the unmutilated text, one was published in 1798 and the other in 1824.

When you say that you copied from the resolution as given by Elliott ('Debates on the Constitution,' iv., 540), you do not advance very far in discovering the "truth of history," for if you had quoted from the edition of 1830 ('Debates on the Constitution,' iv., 380) you would have found the text in its integrity.

JAMES C. WELLING.

WASHINGTON, Nov. 8, 1883.

[We have endeavored to gain access to the original records in the Kentucky archives. Meantime, we print the above, while repeating that we are indifferent which of the contending texts is established, so far as its bearing on the main question is concerned.—ED. NATION.]

AUTHORS AND "READERS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is the custom among publishers to send books for review, and sometimes to submit manuscripts for inspection and criticism, to specialists in the departments of literature to which the works may belong. Is there not some danger that the reviewer or critic, engaged perhaps on the same ground as that covered by the work submitted, might be led (by reason of the frailty of human nature) to endeavor to prevent anticipation of his own work by passing an unfavorable judgment upon the book or manuscript, and so keep it from publication or wide circulation? If this suggestion has not been made before, it ought to merit some slight attention from authors and publishers.

Respectfully, EDW. INGLE.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, BALTIMORE, October 30, 1883.

THE SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of Thursday, November 8, an article appeared concerning the "Society of American Artists." I am asked, as Secretary of the Society, to request you to kindly correct this reference. The exhibit referred to is the exhibition of sketches, studies, and unfinished work at the American Art Galleries, No. 6 East Twenty-third Street. The Society of American Artists has held several exhibitions in this gallery, but it has no connection whatever with the one above mentioned, and, while indebted to Mr. Sutton, the proprietor of the American Art Gallery, for many courtesies, it desires so far to correct your notice.

EDWIN HOWLAND BLASHFIELD, Secretary S. A. A.

58 W. FIFTY-SEVENTH STREET, NEW YORK, November 8.

Notes.

MISS YONGE'S 'Stories of American History' will be published in this country by D. Appleton & Co.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'Our Young Folks' Josephus,' uniform with 'Our Young Folks' Plutarch.'

J. R. Osgood & Co. publish immediately 'Guenn: a Wave on the Breton Coast,' by Miss Howard, author of 'One Summer.'

For January, Ginn, Heath & Co. announce an edition of Cædmon's 'Exodus' and 'Daniel,' by Prof. T. W. Hunt, of Princeton College.

The 'Vicar of Wakefield,' with Mulready's illustrations, is the latest addition to the "Classic Series" of Roberts Brothers, Boston.

Charles Scribner's Sons join in the Luther festival by bringing out a new edition of Prof. Geo. P. Fisher's work on 'The Reformation,' originally published ten years ago, and by issuing 'The Hymns of Martin Luther, set to their original melodies, with an English version,' the joint production of the Rev. Leonard Woolsey Bacon and Nathan H. Allen. The hymns are thirty-six in number, and four of Luther's prefaces to them are reproduced in English. The book is a comely one and should be popular.

The 'Henry Irving Birthday Book,' which George Routledge & Sons have led the season with, relies for its daily texts chiefly upon the parts which this actor has taken in upwards of forty plays. These are all enumerated in a table, together with name of author and date of Mr. Irving's first appearance in them. There are also portraits of Mr. Irving as *Hamlet*, *Richard III.*, *Romeo*, *Shylock*, *Vanderdecken*, and *Charles I.*

Miss Josephine Hodgdon has made some characteristic selections from Motley's works, in the form of 'Leaflets from Standard Authors' (Harpers). The volume will serve either for private reading or for instruction in schools.

"Standard Time," now that we are on the eve of getting it, is properly the leading topic in Mr. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* for October (F. Leypoldt). In the carefully and authoritatively prepared series on the several Federal administrations, Monroe's is in order in the present number.

Mr. John Edmands's "Reading Notes on Luther," mentioned last week, have been reprinted in pamphlet form (Philadelphia: Grant, Faires & Rodgers).

Works printed or published by Franklin, or intimately associated with him, are catalogued as fully as may be in the Autumn Bulletin of the Boston Public Library, where will also be found another section of the invaluable Index of Articles on American Local History, carried as far as Buffalo.

A double number (9-10) of the Johns Hopkins University Studies embraces Mr. Herbert B. Adams's papers on the "Village Communities of Cape Ann and Salem" which have already seen the light in the Essex Institute's Historical Collections. One more issue, we are told (on "Local Government in South Carolina"), will complete the first series, for which a full index will be prepared. The second series will consist of monthly monographs devoted to Institutions, Economics, and Politics, and will be begun in January, 1884.

An interesting paper on the "Glacial Phenomena over the New Haven Region," by Prof. J. D. Dana, may be found in the November number of the *American Journal of Science*. It seeks to demonstrate the existence of a contemporaneous southward-flowing Connecticut Valley ice-sheet and a transverse upper flow. Other questions will be considered hereafter.

Very readable, too, is Prof. John Le Conte's first paper of "Physical Studies of Lake Tahoe," in the *Overland Monthly* for November. This remarkable body of water is very deep and exceptionally transparent, and the bodies of those who are drowned in it do not rise to the surface, sinking (as the writer explains) into a stratum too cold to permit the generation of gases.

America receives not a little attention in the double number 106-7 of the *Journal* of the Berlin Geographical Society. The leading article, by Professor Gelcich, treats of the Gascon fish-

eries in connection with the discovery of Newfoundland; but the writer, in citing in support of his views a recent work printed in Boston, overlooks its origin, and styles Mr. Charles Levi Woodbury an Englishman. Gustav Niederlein gives some scientific results—chiefly botanical and agricultural—of a journey across the southeastern pampa of the Argentine Confederation to the Rio Salado in December and January last. The region was in the main found arable and eminently fit for cotton culture. Dr. Arthur Krause contributes a scholarly monograph on the Chilcat River region in Alaska, through which the whites probably first made their way to the Yukon. A map, of his compilation, exhibits this region and indicates the passes to the latter river. In the same number of the *Journal*, W. Strecker has some destructive criticism on a theory of the route of the Ten Thousand opposed to his own (now many years before the scientific world), which hinges upon the Kolat-Dagh being the height from which the Greeks saw the sea.

The October *Portfolio* has many literary as well as pictorial attractions, Mr. Hamerton's chapter on the parks of Paris being of course conspicuous. Americans, too, have some interest in the readable paper on the Clyde, by W. Chambers Lefroy, for Robert Owen and his Lanark experiment come in for sympathetic remembrance. And is it not an American who furnishes the sketches for Mr. Vernon Lee's "San Gimignano of the Many Towers"? Chief among the etchings is decidedly that after Holbein's portrait of Sir Richard Southwell, by a lady, Mme. Louveau Rouveyre.

The ports of France receive their full share of attention in the thirty-fourth volume of *L'Art* (J. W. Bouton). Marseilles, Bordeaux, Nantes, and Rouen furnish subjects for some very interesting full-page etchings, partly topographical, partly artistic. An artistic journey in the Basque country calls for quite a different set and kind of illustrations. Related topics are treated in François Lenormant's "Principles of Ancient Art in Coins"; in the account of the medal engraver, Bertrand Andrieu (1761–1822), whose portrait on skates is a curiosity; and in the paper on the medallionists of the Renaissance. Leave is finally taken of the Pergamon sculptures. There is a discussion of Byzantine art in its influence upon the West. Serial illustrated articles are devoted to Rubens at the Munich Museum and Della Robbia; and facsimiles of studies by Claude Lorraine show this artist in his workshop. Most to be prized among the largest etchings are Rubens's "Portrait of a Savant," by Daniel Mordant; Carolus Duran's portrait of his mother; a portrait of an old woman after Franz Hals; Van Dyck's "Prince William II. of Orange and Marie Stuart"; and Pourbus's Marie de Médicis and Anne of Austria. Nearly every number of the accompanying *Courrier de l'Art* for the third quarter of the year tells of one or more statues in process of erection, as, to Daguerre, to Lafayette, etc. Apropos of the Alexandre Dumas monument by Doré, some trenchant criticism on the latter artist by Charles Monselet is quoted. Doré seemed, says this critic, to make all his personages in flourishes (*en paraphes*); he put flourishes in the beard of Abraham, the locks of Roland, and the biceps of Job. His anatomy consisted of corkscrews and shavings. A statue of Henri Regnault, in uniform of the National Guard, which adorns the front of the new Hôtel de la Ville, shows him drawing with his left hand, some people have complained. The *Courrier* explains that this is true to life.

A large number of nautical terms happen to fall in the nineteenth part of Koolman's exhaustive 'Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache' (Norden: H. Braams). Several of these the English have borrowed from the Dutch, as, *snau*, the 'snôw' (a two-masted ship) of our colonial period, for which no certain etymology is offered, though Lat. *navis* is suggested as possible; *spake* (*spâk*), preserved in our 'hand-spike,' to the derivation of which nearly two pages are devoted; *sprêt*, 'sprit'; *stag*, 'stay'; *stander*, flag ('standard'); and *sparre* (*spar*), 'spar,' which furnishes a "coals to Newcastle" proverb in "sparren na Norwegen stüren." An equivalent of "in vino veritas" is given under *spreken*, 'to speak'—"drunken mund sprekt hartensgrund"; while a familiar English proverb is easily recognizable in the kindred Frisian form of "stille waters hebben de dêpste grunden." The present instalment of the Dictionary ends with *stippen*.

With Part 103 is concluded the seventh volume of the new edition of 'Brehm's Thierleben' (B. Westermann & Co.). The chapter on reptiles is thus closed, while that on insects begins, offering rich opportunities for color effects in the chromo plates. Those exhibiting the lizard tribe, however, have not been deficient in this respect, and in general execution have been truly admirable.

We have received the first number of *Scandinavia*, a monthly journal published in Chicago. According to the prospectus, it "will be an organ through which men of Northern Europe can address the civilized world, . . . calling attention to the national peculiarities which have developed themselves during the last fifteen centuries in Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, and in Iceland and Finland." It will also "gather and publish facts concerning the history of the Scandinavian settlement of America." *Scandinavia* presents a very attractive appearance, and we wish it success.

The announcement of the "Correspondence University" lies before us. The headquarters of this system of home instruction is at Ithaca, N. Y., Mr. Lucien A. Wait being Secretary. As the title implies, it directs study and tests proficiency by correspondence, with pass and honor examinations. The associated instructors embrace many first-rate names, a large proportion being connected with Cornell University, though several other leading institutions are represented.

A volume which came to us from the Cleveland Educational Bureau has for some time been awaiting mention. It is the second series, 1882–83, of 'Books for the People,' edited by Charles E. Bolton. Each of the ten "books" here bound together was distributed to members of the Bureau at its entertainments in a vast "tabernacle." A membership ticket, costing $1 50, entitled the holder to "ten first-class orchestra concerts, ten lecture preludes, ten lectures, concerts, and debates, and ten condensed and common-sense" pamphlets, which we have here bound together. That the members had a good time, there can, considering the musical part of the several programmes, be little doubt. That they were greatly edified by the discourses in the "books" is less clear. Mr. Talmage's "Thoughts on Evolution" occur in this series, and we cannot rate highly a "Bureau" which regards them as educational. The half-military, half-Sunday-school drill, again, to which the audience is subjected, may be thrilling to see, but, like the rest of the proceedings, suggests a purely mechanical idea of imparting knowledge.

The Librairie des Bibliophiles, to which we owe so many series of choice books, beautiful in the careful perfection of the type, and press-work, and paper, is now about to start a series of dainty octavos, to include only modern masterpieces, and to be called the "Bibliothèque Artistique Moderne" (New York: F. W. Christern). The first volumes will be the 'King of the Mountains,' by M. Edmond About, with seven etchings by M. Mougin after M. Delort, and a selection of M. Daudet's 'Contes,' with six etchings by M. Eugène Bertrand. These will be followed by the 'Théâtre d'Alfred de Musset,' with drawings by M. Louis Leloir, and by Stendhal's 'Chartreuse de Parme,' illustrated by M. Jean Paul Laurens.

A translation of Miss Alcott's 'Eight Cousins' is now appearing in the *Magasin d'Éducation et de Récréation*.

The November Atmospheric Wave has this year been unmistakably distinct. It passed over the Lakes on Sunday last, and reached Boston on Monday about noon. It always comes to stay six months. It drove before it the last remnants of summer's moisture in the shape of a violent snow-squall—a phenomenon which never occurs except between November 6 and May 6. The Indian summer which this cold wave terminates has also been very marked; the temperature of the past month having almost equalled that of August.

The report that Professor Rudolphsen had withdrawn from the Cincinnati College of Music, upon which we commented in a recent number of the *Nation*, proves to have been erroneous. Our authority was a Cincinnati despatch to the New York *Times*, which had every appearance of being authentic, and which was, we believe, based on this musician's disposition to withdraw. We regret that we were misled by it, and very gladly state, on competent authority, that Mr. Rudolphsen retains his position, and that the "Faculty as a whole may be safely compared with what it has at any time been."

—The "Harvard Annex," having completed its fourth year, the Executive Committee have at last been enabled to grant certificates to graduates, that each "has pursued a course of study equivalent in amount and quality to that for which the degree of Bachelor of Arts is conferred in Harvard College, and has passed in a satisfactory manner examinations on that course corresponding to the College examinations." Three young ladies were entitled to and received this certificate, while one other, it was certified, had "successfully pursued, through a period of four years, a course of liberal study given, under the supervision of this Society, by instructors in Harvard College." Still a third form of certificate is now given at the close of each year's studies. All three have a market value, and students pass without difficulty from the Annex to high and well-paid positions as teachers in all parts of the country. During the fourth year, as we learn from the Secretary's report, just issued, there were forty-one students, of whom Massachusetts furnished three-fourths. Twenty-five of these succeeded in obtaining the annual certificate for satisfactory work in stated courses. Twenty-three of them pursued Greek — the largest number devoted to any one study; Latin following with 22, English with 15, German with 14, mathematics with 11, history with 9, physics with 8, etc. The fund originally subscribed for this interesting experiment has now so far dwindled as to be insufficient to carry on the instruction another year; but an endowment has been sought, with encouraging success, and already the sum pledged is $67,000. Manifestly, however, a much larger sum must be raised, and we have little doubt that it will be. The report calls attention to the fact that 87 per cent. of Massachusetts teachers and 80 per cent. of New England teachers are women, and that the colleges of this section lend them almost no assistance in preparing them to fill the upper grades of instruction. We find also this remark, which seems to bear on the present undertaking

of Columbia College: "Present them [women seeking the higher education] a course of instruction different from that offered to men, and they do not eye it askance because they think it not so good, but because it is probably just out of the line upon which progress and improvement are to be expected. This is one of the reasons why thoughtful women have less confidence in courses of instruction especially prepared for them, than they have in that one upon which the wisdom of men has for generations been working and is still working."

—The scientific results of the voyage of the *Corwin* to the Arctic seas in 1881 have been published by order of Congress in a handsomely illustrated quarto. The most important paper is that of Mr. E. W. Nelson, on the birds of Bering Sea and vicinity, with four beautiful plates by Ridgeway. Owing to the absence and severe illness of the author, many serious typographical errors disfigure the text, notwithstanding which the paper is one that will not only be a standard of reference, but will attract the general reader by its easy style and interesting details of the habits of the birds described. Mr. John Muir gives some acceptable lists of plants from various localities visited by the *Corwin*, and makes some general remarks on the flora of the region. Dr. T. H. Bean contributes a list of the Arctic fishes known from north of Bering Strait, with plates of two interesting salmonoids collected by Captain Hooper. The first paper in the book is by Dr. Rosse, of the *Corwin*, consisting of his medical and anthropological notes, well seasoned by opinions, fancies, and quotations, many of which are as unscientific as irrelevant. Moreover, the multitude of obscure phrases and allusions in this paper make it hardly likely to please even the taste of the unscientific reader. It is well illustrated, but what a costly chromolithograph of two tattooed Japanese citizens in undress can have to do with the voyage of the *Corwin* is not clear, nor does the Doctor inform us. Neither is it evident why he has favored us with top views of the crania of "an eminent mathematician who committed suicide" and of "a prominent politician during the civil war," with several others. On the whole, such a twisting of the purpose for which this report was ordered printed is emphatically to be condemned.

— In Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Familiar Quotations,' Lincoln's "government of the people, by the people, for the people" is paralleled by similar phrases from earlier speeches by Theodore Parker and Daniel Webster. No original is suggested, however, for the equally famous passage from the Second Inaugural Address—"With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right"; nor are we aware that any has ever been suggested. The following expression, however, bears so close a resemblance as to be worth quoting: "In charity with all mankind, bearing no malice or ill-will to any human being, and even compassionating those who hold in bondage their fellow-men—not knowing what they do." It occurs at the close of a letter addressed by John Quincy Adams on July 30, 1838, to A. Bronson, of Fall River, Mass., in response to an invitation to attend a celebration on August 1 of the final abolition of slavery in the British West Indies.

—The latest of Mr. John Croumbie Brown's contributions to forest literature is devoted to 'Finland: its Forests and Forest Management' (Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd). The present volume will be found of more general interest to the American reader than its predecessors, treating as it does of forests not very dissimilar in natural features to those of the extreme northern portions of the Atlantic States and Canada. The following statement, quoted by Mr. Brown from a report of Doctor Ignatius, an officer in the Statistical Bureau of the Finnish Government, might, for example, have been written with equal truth about the forests of Michigan or Wisconsin:

"Forest products constitute more than half of the total value of exports from Finland. This shows of what importance the forests are for the country. These immense resources have been wasted recklessly for centuries. That apparent dislike to forests which has been seen among all settlers in forest lands seems to be innate in the Finns. The practice of setting fire to the trees in order to clear the ground has led to the destruction of forests upon a great scale, and the conflagrations have at times swept over a great extent of country."

Great improvements have been introduced into the management of these forests during the last twenty years. Forest fires have become less numerous with the gradual substitution of more sensible methods for the ancient and barbarous custom of *Svedanje* or *Sartage*—the name applied to an operation of agriculture consisting in burning off a portion of the forest and then planting with cereals the soil enriched by the ashes of the burned trees. Two, or at most three, crops are raised in this way; the field is then abandoned and allowed to grow up to wood again. This, the most primitive method of forest management, is always attended with immense destruction of property, owing to the impossibility of preventing the spread of fire beyond the limits intended, and the effect of fire upon the soil itself—a point rarely sufficiently insisted upon by writers upon forest economy. *Sartage* prevailed at one time or another in every country of Europe; it is still common in some portions of India, and has cost the United States millions of acres of its fairest forests. Indeed, in heavily-wooded countries there is no other way by which a scanty population can rescue sufficient land for tillage from the forest. It is only when the forests of a country are reduced below a point sufficient to supply its population that methods of forest perpetuation can be successfully introduced. This point was reached long ago in Europe; it is fast approaching, if it is not already reached, in this country. Mr. Brown devotes a considerable portion of this volume to an account of the lakes and rivers of Finland, including a rather disjointed and apparently unnecessary narrative of a journey to the Saima Lake, and to chapters upon the topography, geology, flora, fauna, and climate of Finland, which we shall not touch upon here. Several additional volumes of the same series, by the same hand, and treating of the forests of different European countries, the author tells us in his preface, are ready for the press.

—A new edition of Vincent and Dickson's 'Handbook to Modern Greek' has just been called for, and Geldart's 'Conversational Grammar of Modern Greek' has recently appeared. The demand for books like these is one of the evidences of increased interest in Modern Greece on the part of Englishmen and English-speaking people. Nor do the Greeks on their side lack the correct instinct to recognize that their warmest and truest friend, in all that concerns their best aspirations, both personal and national, is England. Hence their increasing desire to become masters of the English tongue, and the demand for books like Lascarides's 'English-(Ancient) Greek Lexicon,' which has recently been published by Trübner & Co., London. This Lexicon is in two neat volumes, containing together a total of 1350 pp. The mechanical execution of the book is good, and its type, though small, is distinct. A second, or Greek-English, part is announced as in preparation. The collection of materials for the dictionary has occupied Mr. Lascarides for fifteen years; the preparation of the work for the press has been intrusted to Mr. Myriantheus. The book seems to be designed especially for educated Greeks who wish to acquire the English language. It will meet their wants very well, and although a somewhat expensive book (the price is 30 shillings), will not lack purchasers among the class for which it was intended. The industry of the editors is deserving of more unqualified praise than their judgment. It would seem that neither of them possesses a familiar colloquial acquaintance with the English language. Only on this supposition can the laborious and useless definition of many obsolete words and words of the rarest occurrence be explained. What occasion was there, for instance, for the mention of such words as *Abacot, Abaisance, Abandum, Abaptiston, Abashment*, or, on another page, *Loggats, Lok, Loment, Lomp*? One who needs to know the meaning of such words as these would surely best resort to Webster or Worcester. It will be inferred from what has been said that this lexicon is very comprehensive. In fact, few words contained in Webster seem to be omitted. The definitions are ordinarily in ancient Greek, and in some cases the modern Greek equivalent is added so that some opportunity is afforded for a comparison of the classical with the Romaic vocabulary. Though the definitions are in ancient Greek, the words or phrases defined are often so entirely modern that the words used in defining them seem to take on a half-modern quality. Instance the following: *Fair-complexioned*, λευκός. *To call upon the Lord*, ἐπικαλεῖσθαι τὸν Κύριον. *I want this badly*, λίαν ἐφίημι τούτου. *I second the motion*, συνηγορῶ τὴν πρότασιν. One who runs through the long lists of Greek equivalents, very briefly but usually very correctly given, of common English words and phrases, will be impressed anew with the transparency of the meaning of Greek derivatives and compounds, and will perhaps find that his own Greek vocabulary is larger than he anticipated. That such a book as this has been called for is an interesting illustration of the vitality of the Greek language. The classical scholar who should write an essay in simple style upon any topic of the day, using the words which this vocabulary would supply, and should send his essay to the *Clio*, the well-known Greek newspaper of Trieste, might be assured that it would be entirely intelligible to most of the readers of that journal.

— Of semi-historical legends, no other is so poetically perfect, and none has been so favored by circumstances, as the familiar tale of the Emperor Friedrich Barbarossa lying buried in the Kyffhäuser till the time should come for the restoration of the Empire and a political millennium. Not only has it been for centuries the symbolic representation of the yearning for national order and unity in Germany, but its intrinsic beauty has made it popular in other lands, so that, in the shape of Rip van Winkle, it is as familiar to the American schoolboy as to the German peasant. Latterly, also, it has become one of the most popular illustrations of the theory of comparative mythology, and the legend has obtained additional charm from its apparent identification with the proscribed worship of Odin. This version has, we think, through the popularizations of Bayard Taylor and Karl Blind, acquired a firm foothold in English. The myths of a dead religion are known to linger for centuries after the definite faith is not only abandoned but forgotten, so that in the unusual interest which may well have been felt in Bar-

barossa, coupled with the wonderful fact that he never returned from a crusade, the transfer to him of the indestructible pagan myths is as plausible as it is interesting. But this theory was never universally accepted—Professor Hartwig, of Halle, tells us that he published a thesis against it as early as 1860—and it is probable that it will now be relegated to the limbo of other interesting but untenable theories advanced by some mythologists. In a late number of *Westermanns Monatshefte*, Professor Hartwig reviews the works on the subject published since his thesis, and maintains that they corroborate the views there expressed. These are (1) that the story, in its popular form and political significance, is not a survival from the Middle Age, but is as much a production of Uhland's genius, as, say, Rip van Winkle is of Irving's. Of the power of melody to make an allusion universally current we have an example in Tennyson's

> "... In the golden prime
> Of good Haroun-al-Raschid."

which could not have been more familiar had it come from the Bible or Shakspere. And Uhland's verses had more than the power of melody to recommend them—they struck and soothed a quivering chord in the heart of the German people. (2) That the story first appears in its crudest shape after the death of the Emperor Friedrich II., to whom it specially applies. The proof that the legend originated in Italy about 1300, and consequently has no connection with Scandinavian heathendom, we have not space even to summarize. It shows conclusively that Friedrich I. was not the hero, but does not, to our mind, disprove the intertwining of the actual legend with the unwritten tradition of Odin. So that, after all, Uhland may first have discovered a bit of real folklore, as well as given poetic expression to the unuttered sentiment of centuries.

—Of course nobody supposes that the good old times were entirely good, or that in the ages of faith every one was obedient to the heavenly voice There could have been no martyrs if there had been no persecutors; the very saints needed the misdeeds of their contemporaries to give them the occasion for the exercise of their virtues, and the background against which their excellence was shown. Still, if any one should have a romantic belief in mediæval perfection and be disposed to forget the reverse of the picture, it would be well for him to read 'Le registre de l'officialité de l'abbaye de Cerisy,' published by M. G. Dupont in the 'Mémoires de la Société des Antiquaires de Normandie.' The record extends, with breaks, from 1314 to 1458; it is the police gazette of three or four unimportant parishes in Normandy for a century and a half, with the addition of some ecclesiastical cases. The parish churches were continually out of repair, and the treasurers were ordered to get a lock and key to the fonts, to put the vessels in good condition, to see to the bells, to repair the roof which deluged the priest during service, to bind the service-books, to take the silver chalice out of pawn. From the frequent recurrence of such orders it seems that they were only perfunctorily attended to. Another serious evil was the immorality of the priests. The relations of the priest of Littry with a certain Thommassia were objected to at eight different times. Another priest is reported as having said one day, at the fireside: "'Pulcra neptis, oscula me,' et osculavit eam," and so forth. Then there are scenes of violence in the church, for such priests were not likely to be respected. People are fined for working on holydays and for eating meat on fast days, and for swearing—Jean Collet, for example, who gave his daughter "to the devil; not to one, but to all the devils." Cases of usury and sorcery and leprosy are investigated. Cases of assault and battery are numerous, some aggravated, and there are half-a-dozen cases of rape. As for all the infelicities which may accompany marriage, or the substitutes for marriage, they fill many pages. The impression left by the whole is that the turbulent population of these villages resembled very much the lower classes in a small manufacturing or a small seaport town of the present day.

—Bach is the corner-stone on which modern music rests, and it was therefore appropriate that the first Philharmonic concert should commence with one of his toccatas, arranged for orchestra by Esser. There seems to be a contradiction in the expression "orchestral toccata," because toccata means a piece for a keyed instrument; but the contradiction is only verbal, not æsthetic. A modern orchestral version of one of Bach's shorter compositions is always full of charm, because the variety of instrumental colors makes it easier to follow the course of each of the melodies that are combined into a polyphonic totality than when one instrument only is used. The toccata was followed by Beethoven's Fourth Symphony, concerning which nothing new is to be said. The performance was as near perfection as it could be in an acoustically defective hall; and the audience was so attentive and quiet that one could almost hear the ticking of his neighbor's watch. The third orchestral piece was Mr. A. C. Mackenzie's ballad, "La Belle Dame sans Merci," and the fourth, Berlioz's "Lear" overture. Mr. Mackenzie's ballad is a composition of more enduring value than his Scotch Rhapsody, which was played in Brooklyn a week ago. Even those who did not know that Mr. Mackenzie received his musical education in Germany, and who had not heard his rhapsody, must have anticipated that his ballad would present a thoroughly modern aspect, for his name came into great prominence last season when Carl Rosa successfully produced in London his opera "Colomba," the poem of which was prepared by Mr. Hueffer, author of 'The Music of the Future,' and Wagner's chief apostle in England. The broad, sensuous, and pathetic melody of the ballad rests on a rich harmonic basis, and moves on in that quiet, steady flow which characterizes the best modern music, and distinguishes it so favorably from the classical dance-forms, with their ever-recurring, useless cadences. The composition, as a piece of absolute music, would have been of sufficient charm to be able to dispense with a "programme." But when that programme takes the shape of a weird and beautiful poem by Keats, there is a distinct gain in having both of them, and allowing the auditor's imagination to be filled with the same images that stimulated the composer while at his work. Berlioz's "Lear" overture is not one of his best compositions. The instrumental combinations are often bizarre rather than beautiful, and there is too much of the peculiar unisono and unaccompanied doleful melody which seems to have so often haunted Berlioz. As a work of art it is totally inadequate to its grand subject. Miss Agnes Huntington, who sang pieces by Mozart, Brahms, and Rubinstein, would have made a better impression in a smaller hall and under less trying circumstances. Her voice lacks resonance, and is not under full control. Her conception, however, of the emotional and intellectual contents of her songs was correct and praiseworthy.

STEVENS'S GALLATIN.

Albert Gallatin. By John Austin Stevens. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

THIS is the second Life of Albert Gallatin that has lately appeared. It is a more personal biography than that by Mr. Adams, published four years ago, written with equal impartiality of party views, while following more closely in detail the public life of its subject, and only incidentally dwelling on the political changes of his time. It is more the story of Gallatin as he influenced public affairs, and less that of public affairs as they affected him. In discarding a strict chronological treatment, and preferring to present in separate sketches the aspects of Gallatin's career as a politician, a cabinet officer, and a diplomatist, Mr. Stevens falls into some repetition, to the neglect of symmetry in narrative; but the process results in an original and highly individual portrait.

Of all the great men of our first age no one enjoys so little general fame as Albert Gallatin. Students of our history trace everywhere in it the marks of his various and vigorous services; diplomatists confess him a model negotiator, and financiers walk to-day by the light he shed over the intricacies of their science. But where is the *aura popularis* that bears up weaker and less worthy names? There are few of our public men who have touched and influenced the fortunes of the republic at so many points. None of them except Gallatin was its contemporary from the day when he aided the birth of the Union out of the wreck of the Confederation, to the day when he resisted the annexation of Texas, prescient that it was "to shake the Union to its centre." He saw Washington take the first Presidency, and Scott enter Mexico, and all the wars and treaties and territorial gains between. His official services began in 1790, and ended in 1828. They were varied in range and permanent in effect beyond those of most of the men who worked with or against him. He was a sounder financier than Hamilton, though less brilliant, preferring the basis of principle to plausible theory. In negotiations with foreign Powers he was more successful than Jay—circumstances, it is true, being more in his favor—and carried through the Treaty of Ghent by the aid of patience and shrewdness that none of his colleagues displayed. In party leadership he combined such capacities, carried to such excellence, as to place him above comparison with any rival. As a member of the great Republican triumvirate, he surpassed Jefferson in practical sense and Madison in courage.

All this of course does not entitle Gallatin to the fame or rewards that followed the great organizers of the Government who had been in arms for independence. Yet the part that Gallatin took in the second era of American State history, when the idea of progress overcame tradition and republicanism gained the ascendant, was an equal part with that of any other leader. It deserved a better recognition than the nomination in 1824 to the Vice-Presidency, converted by a party intrigue into a recommendation to withdraw. But it was always objected to Gallatin that he was a foreigner, and though the fact gave force to his larger allegiance to the Union, it lost him the special attachment of a State or a section. He was not an orator, being slow and laborious in his mental habit. His bent was essentially a scientific, not a political one. He was too honest for party intrigue, perhaps too self-contained to make sufficient allowance for human passions and interests, and their play in politics. These qualities were fatal to personal popularity. Had he reached a more conspicuous place in his own day his merits and services would have won for him the wide reputation among the general public in ours which this volume is devoted to proving that he deserved.

If he was a foreigner, Gallatin was not at all the kind of foreigner that a new and free coun-

try has any reason to be afraid of. The teachings he brought from Geneva were the very ones he could make most serviceable in the land of his adoption. Geneva was then a sort of intellectual outpost of France, sharing its tastes and activities, ultra-Protestant to the degree of liberalism, expert to acuteness in money-getting and money-saving—four Jews, the French proverb says, go to make a Genevan—complete and careful in its educational system, and ruled traditionally rather than constitutionally by a bourgeois oligarchy. In spite of his cool head and aristocratic connection, Gallatin, yielding to the fermenting spirit of the time, became disgusted with the Genevese régime, and, with a few young visionaries, secretly left his home to migrate to some new region, there to embody a Rousseau's dream of perfected humanity. After three years of wild experiment in trading speculations in Maine, teaching at Cambridge, and agency business in Richmond, he at last made a settlement and a purchase of land in West Pennsylvania. His land speculations kept him poor, and "plagued him all his life," and his freak of burying himself in the woods and throwing away his advantages of education and social position hampered and retarded his career.

His first public service was in 1789 as a member of the Convention to revise the Constitution of Pennsylvania, which was followed by his election for three successive years to the State Legislature. In 1791 a report on the fiscal affairs of the State laid the foundation of his peculiar reputation. Two years later he was chosen to represent the State in the Federal Senate, and began his term by proposing inquiry into the management of the Treasury. His official existence was therefore cut short after a few weeks by a party vote, deciding, upon the letter of the Constitution, in contradiction to its spirit, that his foreign birth disqualified him for the Senatorship. During the interval of retirement occurred the Whiskey Rebellion in Western Pennsylvania against the imposition of an excise tax, which is described in interesting detail, and Gallatin's discreet and energetic action in aiding to repress it clearly brought out. "Because he represented order" he was chosen from the district which had been the scene of trouble as Representative in Congress, and, taking his seat the following session, occupied it until he became Secretary of the Treasury in 1801. In opposition during all that period, the principal questions on which he was engaged related to constitutional construction or to the finances. The debate on the British treaty of 1796 gave full scope for powerful attacks on Federal doctrines and exposition of Republican views as to the first, and he at once took unchallenged leadership as to the last, his initial step being the creation of a standing Committee of Ways and Means, and his first object the enforcement of economy by insisting on specific appropriations. He had also the credit of embodying, in an act of great national importance, the land system of the Government, which he designed to make the foundation for a magnificent plan of internal improvements.

The occasion soon came for assuming his peculiar and permanent task. Hamilton, who left public life as Gallatin entered it in Congress, had organized the financial system of the Government upon the traditions of English experience, preserving a considerable national debt as its foundation. This amounted in 1796 to about $78,000,000, the expenditure of about $7,000,000 being nearly balanced by receipts, while taxation on a population a little over 4,000,000 was already so high as to forbid any increase. Under this necessity for careful management signs of foreign aggression arose, war with either France or England seemed imminent, and the country was driven to choose between increasing its debt and neglecting its defences. The Federalists demanded an army and navy, with an indefinite increase of debt. Gallatin and his party demanded postponement of both army and navy, till they could be had without new debt. One party was charged with neglect of national dignity and authority, safe only under a strong government; and the other with seeking the control of a force to be used in crushing democracy. When Gallatin had the power, he carried out his theory thoroughly, till the war of 1812 overthrew it and his party together. Yet the country naturally returned to his system after the war, and has consistently followed it since, repeatedly discharging its debts, and protecting its commerce, not by arms, but by the interests commerce creates. Gallatin also distinguished himself in the session of 1798 by an attack, in perhaps the best of his speeches, on the system of diplomatic intercourse and commercial treaties. The purpose was, of course, to diminish the power and patronage of the Executive, which, from the adoption of the Constitution, he had jealously opposed.

The advent of the Republican party to power brought Gallatin into the Treasury Department, and gave full scope for the display of his preeminent abilities. His cardinal principles in the management of finance were the reduction of debt, the reduction of taxation, and, as indispensable for both, the maintenance of peace. He came at once into a conflict of economies with the secretaries of the military offices of Government. His plans here met with a serious and persistent check, being first thwarted by the cost of the Algerine war. The arrangement of the details of the land system employed much of his time and care. The purchase of Louisiana also required delicate management and financial skill in providing the means. Of the constitutional authority to make this acquisition of territory Gallatin had no doubt, and when the question again came up in the case of Florida the precedent he had established was readily followed. Nor was he at all less clear as to the legality and usefulness of the United States Bank, which he quietly persisted in supporting against Jefferson's unintelligent attacks. In 1807 the Coast Survey was organized, and the plan of the Cumberland Road completed. And, to crown the whole, a grand general scheme of internal improvements was resolved on, comprising systems of canals and turnpikes reaching from Maine to Georgia, and from the seaboard to the Mississippi and the lakes. An Erie canal and a Champlain canal, with a navigable waterway around Niagara Falls, were among the projected details. The whole cost was estimated at $20,000,000—enough to build one short railroad nowadays.

For seven years success and prosperity attended the administration of his office. The Government flattered itself that a political system, purely American in all its branches, was securely established, and the national debt reduced until its extinction was in full view. Politically and financially, the theories of the Secretary and his chief seemed to have triumphed in a comprehensive permanent provision for the moral and economical development of the people. Then suddenly came a change. The last years of Jefferson's rule were as disastrous as the first had been brilliant. Domestic peace and prosperity once more depended on the will and suffered from the contests of European Powers. In quick succession came the humiliation of the capture of the *Chesapeake* by the *Leopard*, the Milan decrees, the retaliatory orders in council, the Embargo and Enforcement Acts, and the Non-Intercourse Act, with all their violent and ruinous consequences, ending in the crash of Jefferson's administration, and his retirement from all but the formal duties of his office, before its term and obligations had expired. So long as peace was preserved, Gallatin so managed affairs that the revenue sufficed to pay interest on the debt and meet the ordinary expenses of government. But the hostility of his enemies in the Senate rose and strengthened with his difficulties. The struggle on the renewal of the Bank charter became the test question between them, and when in 1811 the Senate, by the casting vote of Vice-President Clinton, denied it, Gallatin recognized that he was defeated. He retained his place during the first year of the war, vainly endeavoring to bring Congress to his views as to the methods of raising money for its expenses.

Despite his protests in council, his party in Congress deliberately abandoned every principle formerly asserted, and pressed legislation that undermined the basis of national credit. "The national bank, and the system of internal taxation, which had been scorned by Jefferson and Madison as unconstitutional, were accepted actually under Madison's administration. Gallatin's success, owing to the development and application of Hamilton's plans, was a complete vindication of the theory and practice of the Federalists, which they abhorred. Jefferson's plan of a Government issue of paper money was a higher flight into the upper atmosphere of implied powers than Hamilton ever dreamed of." This statement of our author—sweeping, but not too strong—proves how rapidly the whirligig of time had brought in its revenges.

In March, 1813, an offer of mediation having been made by the Emperor of Russia, Gallatin obtained from the President the appointment of Commissioner to St. Petersburg to conduct the negotiations, retaining his post in the Treasury however, for a year longer. The Commission, consisting of James A. Bayard, Gallatin, and John Quincy Adams, then Minister at St. Petersburg, brought the two last into an association destined, by a curious combination of circumstances, to continue during the rest of Gallatin's public life. Under the embarrassments of intrigues at court, reluctance on the part of England to accept mediation, and the Emperor's absence with his army, the summer was wasted, Gallatin receiving in October the news that the Senate had refused to confirm his appointment. After much delay and perplexity, all parties seeming to act at cross purposes, an offer of direct negotiation led to the formation of a new Commission, in which Henry Clay and Jonathan Russell were added to the original members. The place of meeting was fixed at Ghent, and Gallatin superintended the preliminaries. Discussion began in August, 1814, and was protracted until December, the English envoys, far inferior in capacity to their opponents, setting out with high demands, which they moderated from month to month, as their Government grew more eager for peace. At one time the Cabinet proposed to send Wellington to America, with power of peace or war. The Duke's answer warned them that the military situation did not authorize the exaction of concessions, and the failure of the attack on Plattsburgh coming soon after gave force to the warning, and led the Cabinet to lower its tone. The peace as concluded was Gallatin's special work and peculiar triumph. Further negotiations upon subjects left unsettled by it were carried on in England almost entirely by him.

In 1816 Gallatin accepted the mission to France, which he held for seven years, conducting important negotiations on commercial affairs with that country and the Netherlands, and with England. Again in 1826 he resumed similar duties, though of a more complicated and arduous kind, as Minister at London, em-

ploying his usual tact and patience to gain substantial advantages and to establish more friendly relations. The last act of his diplomatic life was the preparation of the argument for submission to the King of the Netherlands, arbitrating on the northeastern boundary dispute. In 1828 the long sway of the Republican party came to an end, and he then withdrew from public life, recognizing in the failure of the people to elect a President the collapse of that party. For many years after he was a political power, deeply interested in public affairs, especially in questions of finance and constitutional interpretation, and consulted as an oracle in his retirement.

Gallatin lived with and outlived so many political parties, that an outline of their rise and changes is necessarily involved in the story of his public course. As seen through the perspective of almost a century, the biographer treats them clearly, frankly, with philosophic insight and fairly impartial candor. The lesson taught, as in all free states, is that our parties, beginning with principle, have borrowed bias as well as force from their strong men; have bent to circumstances, and often ended by mutual exchange of the ground first occupied. Modern situations and seemingly new conflicts find their counterparts in the early days, and always the figures move against the cloudy background of slavery, fated from the first to spread and darken into the storm of war. The succession of these changes is richly illustrated, and the personality of those who wrought them set in strong light by the letters and other documents contained in the volumes of Gallatin's writings previously published, from which much of the material for the present biography is drawn. These records fill an important place in the series of political classics, now nearly complete, formed by the correspondence of our early statesmen.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Diothas; or, A Far Look Ahead. By Ismar Thiusen. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A Great Treason. By Mary A. M. Hoppus. Macmillan & Co.

A Woman of Honor. By H. C. Bunner. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

A Struggle for Fame. By Mrs. J. H. Riddell. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Inchbracken. By Robert Cleland. Glasgow: Wilson & McCormick.

Banned and Blessed. From the German of E. Werner, by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

The Executor. By Mrs. Alexander. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

Belinda. By Rhoda Broughton. D. Appleton & Co.

A Castle in Spain. By James De Mille. Harper & Bros.

June. By Mrs. Forrester. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Felicitas. By Felix Dahn. Translated from the German by Mary J. Safford. Wm. S. Gottsberger.

A Woman's Reason: a Novel. By W. D. Howells. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

Fortune's Fool: a Novel. By Julian Hawthorne. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

Godfrey Morgan: a Californian Mystery. By Jules Verne. Translated by W. J. Gordon. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Vingt Contes Nouveaux. Par François Coppée. Paris: Lemerre; New York: F. W. Christern.

UTOPIA, in one shape or another, is a constantly recurring theme in fiction. 'The Diothas' has none of the moral interest of such a book as 'Realmah' or 'The Coming Race,' but it throws a curious light upon the conceptions of the average mind as to the future of the human race. Of moral and intellectual gain there is little said, ostensibly for the reason that it is too difficult to give distinct ideas on subjects upon which there are such wide differences of opinion. But material good, solid fleshly comforts, are the only things vividly imagined. In the world inhabited by the Diothas in the ninety-sixth century, automatic machinery will have done away with almost all work. Malleable glass, electric motors, and telephones that bring the roar of Niagara to the dinner tables of New York, are the chief blessings. There is universal cremation. The Palisades have been reduced to fertilizers, strawberries are ripe from May to October, and there are no Canada thistles. Yet it is a world not so much happier than ours, as we gather from the love-story interwoven. The "proprieties" must be more vexing than ours to ingenuous youth, for they are only whimsical. The lover is as sadly torn by jealousy as to-day, and not all the latest skill in electric motors prevents the at last united lovers from being carried over the falls of Niagara in full sight of their distracted families. Yet even this startling conclusion cannot prevent the book from being dull.

An American novel with such a title as 'A Great Treason' could only mean one thing, but the reader will find that the story of Benedict Arnold is, after all, but an episode in a long history extending from the eve of the Boston Tea Party to the end of the war. For an historical novel, it is written with unusual grace and spirit, the fortunes of a young English officer and his sister forming the thread by which the various incidents are bound together. The book may well be added to the short list we have for school-room use, of good illustrations of the Revolutionary war. Arnold is but one of many figures, though the most thrilling pages of the book could not but be the capture and death of André. The writer has a power of conception beyond her execution. She realizes the opportunity for strong and graphic painting in the portrayal of such a character as Arnold's. She can see the most critical moments of his life—"Benedict Arnold, alone and unattended, landing from the *Vulture*, and going up to the Beekman House, to tell Sir Henry Clinton that the plot had failed, and that his favorite officer was a prisoner in the hands of the enemy." But to embody in fiction such ambition, such treachery, is beyond her power. The novelists who could make of Arnold a living figure, like Scott's Claverhouse, have in our day, fortunately or unfortunately, devoted themselves to the study of their contemporaries.

'A Woman of Honor' was written from a play, or with it, in such a manner that everything leads up to two or three telling situations. Study of character, or the development of it through circumstances and incidents, is, in the nature of things, impossible, but we question if truth and even probability also have not been sacrificed to the necessities of making strong scenes. The plot turns on the old device of a lady in the wrong place. Nothing is more sure to produce a sensation upon the stage than the shutting of two utterly wrong people into the same closet. But in this story the reader has time to realize, if the audience has not, that two ladies behind the curtain, besides the old servant (whom the author apparently forgets), would make all the difference in the world when the irate husband dashes up the stairway. Hence the after-distress while the lady rests under unjust suspicion seems very useless. It is much more likely that the two ladies would have had the wit to save themselves by appearing together than that one should have kept such a dishonorable silence. Still, in that case, we admit, there would have been no part for the disinterested friend to play. The old servant, a model who gets himself up mentally as well as physically for his parts, is the only original figure in the book, which is a light affair, and, as may be inferred, very unevenly done.

Mrs. Riddell, like her own young Dawtons, "possesses the art of turning out a readable tale." Two stories, in fact, there are in 'A Struggle for Fame,' which have nothing to do with each other unless it be to serve as mutual foils. We suspect this is due to the requirements of the three-volume novel, and a pity it is, for each story suffers by the frequent interruptions. One story has a hero, the other a heroine, the corresponding figures in either case being of minor concern. Both struggle for fame in the world of literature, "that land that has no itinerary—no finger-posts—no guides. It is a lone, hapless country." Mrs. Riddell is not wont to freight her stories with an obvious moral, so that it can hardly be supposed she meant to maintain that it is harder for a woman to succeed than a man. And indeed Kelly's success is such a dubious one that women like her heroine would prefer perpetual failure. If the book is to teach any lesson, it is that no success comes speedily. The heroine's would seem to most people only one long disappointment. There is another possible phase of the matter that is worth the novelist's consideration. The women who are fortunate in their chosen pursuits are represented (we had almost said, invariably) overweighted, as in this novel, with care and sorrow; or else they give up all their personal ambitions and marry happily. We are not saying that this last is not the best of all fates, but we should like to see portrayed, what certainly sometimes exists, a woman able and successful, who is, moreover, rich in all the blessings that prosperity and love can give. Misfortune, doubtless, is a fitter subject for prose fiction, as for poetry; but we insist that the position of a woman of genius has not been fully studied till the brighter possibilities of it are shown. The story offers more than the usual number of entertaining figures. In contrast to the heroine is the lady of quality, who publishes at her own expense, or her husband's: "She can't write a bit—but she sells." And in contrast to each other are the publishers, Vassett of the old school, cautious, honest to the last fibre; and Felton, the "Cheap Jack," without a scruple: "I don't care what the — I go in for, so long as it pays."

Inchbracken itself was an estate lying near Kilrundle, a little Scotch village so far away from the world that they knew the time only from the watch of the mail-coach guard. The lady of Inchbracken, the Laird of Auchlippie, and the minister of the Free Church of Kilrundle, are all people who might have stepped out of one of Mrs. Oliphant's novels. The story is quite of her kind, not so graceful indeed, and without her power of compelling us to her illusions, but vivid in its delineations of the hard-headed, self-opinionated Scotchmen. The reader is likely to turn a second time to some of the chapters.

'Banned and Blessed' can be heartily recommended to the lovers of the old-fashioned romantic story, if any such survive. It has all the requisites, from the hereditary feud between priest and baron to the doting fidelity of the old retainer.

It is sad to see that in 'The Executor' Mrs. Alexander's hand has lost its cunning. Let us hope it is but for the moment. Her place may be only in the second rank, but she has hitherto worthily filled it. Her last book gave us the

ward as the central figure. She now reverses the situation and presents the executor. He is the blackest kind of rascal, out of that far East from which the mysterious is now drawn. It used to be Poland, then Russia. We may yet have to accept a Chinaman as the fascinating mystery of a novel. Failing to marry his ward, he proposes to dispose of her by slow poison, since he is himself the next heir. Of course she is saved by a keen-eyed and adventurous lover, for whose success the reader is not so thankful as he ought to be, simply because no amount of credulity could accept the first part of the story.

'Belinda' is an uncommonly silly story. The heroine herself is a young woman of extreme beauty, acute sensitiveness, deep emotions, and seething passions, who is nevertheless presented to the world as a monument of insensibility, with a temperature stationary at zero, and a tongue that snubs society at large, more especially ardent and charming young lovers. The difficulties which beset the path of a person so unfortunately constituted form the burden of the tale, and, though the author is guiltless of such intention, the incomparable folly of Belinda and everybody else in handling these difficulties diverts the reader amazingly. It is much more entertaining than the contemplation of Professor Forth, in whom scholarship is held up to ridicule, not with "satire keen and critical," but with an elaboration of flat pedantry and constant allusion to unpleasant personal habits. But Miss Broughton's effects are not all burlesques of her designs. She can be refreshingly funny, and the sprightly sallies of the shrewd, good-natured, coarsely-ironical Sarah almost always excite spontaneous laughter. In the range of current light literature, it would be hard to find truer sketches from nature than Sarah, her grandmother, and her dogs. Here Miss Broughton forgets to try to be wise and deep, and is genuinely trivial, genuinely worldly, almost as genuinely vulgar. And, on comparing 'Belinda' with the author's earlier productions, it will be seen that she has reached that stage of growth which recognizes self-limitations, and has confined her attempts at wisdom and profundity to occasional abstract reflections, for originating which the most spiteful of us all will not hold her responsible. She has cultivated a fine feeling for nature, too, and sets her scenes effectively. Her literary style is smoother—neither so exaggerated nor so bald as of old. Since the language offers such facilities for adverb-making, she is perhaps not to blame for seizing them, more especially as without some extraordinary specimens she would hardly recognize her work as her own.

Professor De Mille's posthumous work will neither detract from whatever reputation he may have achieved as a novelist nor add to it. It leaves him just where he has been since the publication of 'The Cryptogram,' in the position of a successful manufacturer of sensational fiction. Having chosen a division of literature which knows no law, he has escaped the unpleasant chance of being caught in the violation of the first principles of story-telling, or convicted of incapacity to follow them. The attractive title excites hopes of a delicate, fantastic romance, or of a drama of human pain and passion; but the first chapter shatters the hopes. Should the reader decide to go on, he will meet within thirty pages two extremely beautiful young women, and one perfectly so, with their charms fully catalogued. He will also make the acquaintance of their respective fiancés, and will notice that these gentlemen are prone to strong language which no false delicacy prompts them to restrain in the presence of the perfectly lovely ladies. Crowding incident upon incident, with scant ingenuity and feeble invention, the author gathers together these people with several others, in a castle, somewhere between Burgos and the French frontier. Here a grand and complete transfer of affections is accomplished, and in the end each man is married to a woman to whom, when he took the northern train from Burgos, he was not engaged. The fickleness of young love is a theme of creditable antiquity, and objection to a moderate use of it would be captious; but there is an irritating prodigality about six illustrations of faithlessness in a single novel. In the capture of a train by Carlists, the detention of foreign passengers and their final release by Don Carlos himself, Professor De Mille had the materials for a good novel. Had he given one thought to sustained plot, to development of character, or even to a desirable congruity between people and their surroundings, we might at least have had something readable.

To the literary appetite which craves strength or spice Mrs. Forrester offers as little that is palatable as Mr. De Mille. She leads the army of Englishwomen who, for money or fame, or perhaps out of pure philanthropy, depict in fiction the daily life of "society." The first half of her story narrates estrangements between June and Tom, her lover; the last half is devoted to estrangements between June and Tom, her husband. The most trivial of lovers' quarrels has a certain romantic interest, and, while we appreciate the pathos with which such episodes may be invested, we protest against almost two hundred pages of misunderstandings between a man and his wife—misunderstandings which never rise in dignity above a matrimonial squabble. In 'June,' as in most books of its class, there is a crowd of women, all pretty and all weak. There is, as usual, one man—in this instance Tom—who combines uncompromising virtue with a mental dulness amounting to intolerable stupidity. The rest of the men have a liberal desire to be wicked without the persistent will to accomplish any difficult deviltry. It is natural to suppose that some positive immorality would result from the constant association of such people in the teas and tennis, the dances and dinners, which are their only occupations in life. But the author carefully insists that this is not the case, and, to make her moral purpose clear, sows little didactic homilies plentifully throughout her narrative. The value of her very proper reflections is somewhat diminished by their isolation; the unprincipled reader soon finds out that he can skip them without losing even the thread of the dialogue. The dialogue itself is a curious exhibition of "society's" conversational talent. The scrupulous avoidance of brilliancy or depth will solace the misery of the man who has hitherto believed himself the dullest fellow in the world.

Strolling one summer evening about the suburbs of Salzburg, a student finds in a lonely wood traces of a Roman villa, and a piece of marble with the inscription,

"Hic habitat Felicit . . .
Nihil mali intret."

The stone is broken, but it is easy to make the unfinished word "Felicitas." He falls to wondering who this woman may have been whose home all evil was forbidden to enter, centuries ago, when Salzburg was the Roman city, Juvavum. Wondering, he falls asleep and dreams the story of Felicitas. She lives in the last sad days of Roman imperialism, when the chief of barbarians, Odoacer, tore the bedraggled purple from the child-emperor, Romulus Augustulus, and struck a death-blow at the Western Empire. She is the happy wife of Fulvius, the stonecutter, a young Roman colonist, who has chiselled the motto over their threshold. Her loveliness has excited the desire of a dissolute Roman tribune, Leo, whose boast is that *he* is Emperor at Juvavum. He has matured a plan for getting possession of Felicitas, and the events by which this plan is frustrated lead up to an admirably dramatic crisis. From this crisis the construction of the story is seriously defective. Almost before we have grasped the idyllic figure of Felicitas, we lose her, and not till the last chapters are we certain that the author, in his enthusiasm over the capture of Juvavum, has not forgotten her. The nature of the episodes which break the continuity of the romance shows a lapse, natural enough in this author, into the familiar field of history. Sometimes, too, he fails to sustain the delusion of the present existence of his characters—the most desirable faculty in an historical novelist, as it is the rarest. But his dramatic instinct and power are unquestionable, and his presentation of detail accurate. These qualities are certainly sufficient to command for his novels and plays more consideration than they have so far received in America. Mrs. Safford has caught Dahn's vigorous spirit, and has reproduced his simple style very fairly. Her work is, on the whole, so well done that only in occasional clumsy sentences and expressions is the foreign origin of 'Felicitas' apparent.

Mr. Howells has such a well-established reputation that every new novel of his which is published is measured by standards previously furnished by himself. Looked at in this way, 'A Woman's Reason' (the significance of the title we confess we do not understand) would fall below some of its immediate predecessors in interest and importance. It is not so striking a tale as 'A Modern Instance,' though it is in many respects pleasanter reading. It suggests the Woman question, and, like many other novels which have dealt with this knotty problem, leaves it unsolved. We say unsolved, because the matrimonial solution reached in Mr. Howells's pages is the very one barred by the question itself at the outset. An unfortunate misunderstanding, many leagues of ocean, shipwreck, and disaster effect an untoward separation of the hero and heroine; and pending the hero's return (of which the reader has throughout a comfortable prevision) the heroine, thrown upon her own resources, which soon give out, has to face the disagreeable alternative of starvation or self-support. One after another occupation she tries, beginning with art of the decorative sort, and winding up in a milliner's shop, where she earns a really feminine, if scanty, livelihood for a time. But in the end the inevitable marriage bells ring out a merry peal, and the heroine's troubles terminate in the arms of her miraculously preserved and returned lover. What new light does this throw on the Woman question? None at all, we unhesitatingly reply; and the book suffers in a certain way from appearing in the beginning to suggest a profundity of social motive which is really not to be found between its covers. The heroine is very prettily drawn, with all Mr. Howells's delicacy of appreciation. The editor is also a clever sketch, and the book is full of nice touches.

Mr. Hawthorne has shouldered his way into notice and repute as a novelist by sheer force of persistence, and may be said to constitute almost a school by himself, unless, indeed, we give "Ouida" a place in it. They resemble one another in at least one respect—they have a profound contempt for what is miscalled "realism," and a lofty enthusiasm for Romance. In fact, they hold that Romance is the only true realism, or, as Ouida neatly puts it, that the Passion-flower is not less real than the Potato. In this comparison, of course, the Potato must be taken as typifying Howells, James, Trollope, and other grovellers in and lovers of the actual, while the

blooming Passion-flower stands for the world-renowned Ouida herself. Mr. Hawthorne lately gave public notice that he, too, held to the same general views, and consequently his novels should properly be called Romances. If the secret of successful Romance writing was the concoction of improbable tales, then Mr. Hawthorne would be the greatest Romance-writer living; for his stories are improbable to a degree which baffles description. In 'Fortune's Fool' the scene is laid in England and America some forty years ago, but the characters have adventures which make the Arabian Nights seem tame. We will not spoil the reader's pleasure by describing what they are, but will merely mention the fact that for unredeemed wickedness the villain in 'Fortune's Fool' could give odds to almost any one in modern fiction, and "knock him out" in two chapters. Mr. Hawthorne has really a great deal of cleverness, but he does not write good novels, for while his aim is Romance, and while he has a good deal of ingenuity in contriving his plots, what he actually achieves is the improbable, the fantastic, the queer, and the disagreeable.

Jules Verne, in his latest story, which is rather a tale for boys than a novel, introduces his reader to strange doings on the Pacific slope and to island life on the Pacific ocean. It is hardly necessary to say that he is here thoroughly at home, for where is he not at home? He is the only living writer who describes without danger of correction the manners, customs, appearance, and peculiarities of all races and varieties of men, furnishes full descriptions of countries in which he has never been, and gains his reader's confidence by giving the impossible adventures of his heroes a theoretic basis of science, which is scientific in the sense that alchemy or astrology might be called so. When he first made his name known as a writer of fiction it was announced with a great flourish of trumpets that the singular thing about his books was that the author had never been out of France. But it would have been a much more singular thing for them to have been written if M. Verne had ever been out of France. Of his science, some Gradgrind of a critic, after a careful analysis, announced that he had discovered it not to be science at all, but an impudent farrago of mock-science, which he was palming off upon the public as facts—an exposure not in the least calculated to put M. Verne out of countenance. M. Verne's position in literature may be a doubtful one, but there can be no question that the success of his romances—consisting as they do, not merely of improbabilities, but of the impossible, the untrue, the notoriously unreal—furnishes a strong indication of the strength of the imperishable appetite of the novel-reading public for something more exciting and idealistic than the dull photography of life which, according to the cant of the day, is all the future of fiction has in store for us. Jules Verne is writing too much at present, but a great deal may be forgiven him in gratitude for the amusing extravaganzas he has turned out. He has really unusual powers as a story-teller.

The French novel does not differ more in subject and in structure from the English or American novel than the French *conte* differs from the English or American short story. There is, indeed, a far greater difference between the American short story and the English short story than there is between the American novel and the English novel. The American short story—Mr. Hale's, Mr. Cable's, Mr. Stockton's, or Mr. Bret Harte's—has at its best a certain flavor of individuality and a certain symmetry of design wholly lacking in the English short story—say Mr. James Payn's or Miss M. E. Braddon's—which more often than not impresses the reader as only a fragment or an episode of a novel. The American short story is like the French *conte* in that it is complete and perfect in itself, and in that it is difficult to imagine it as a chip from a larger work. Edgar Poe's influence is largely responsible for this, and it has been as potent in France as in this country. Of the score of *contes* which M. François Coppée has recently gathered together into a volume, perhaps half are elaborate enough in construction to be called short stories, and half are slighter, and must pass rather as sketches. But all are simple, direct, and written in a rich and noble prose, beautiful in its precision and its color. Some are touched with humor, more are tinctured with satire, many are sad and pathetic, and all are honest, healthy, manly in conception and in execution. A selection from this volume and from M. Coppée's earlier 'Contes en Prose' would make an admirable reading-book for schools.

PHILOSOPHY AND THEOLOGY.

Man as a Creative First Cause. By Rowland G. Hazard. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883. Pp. 112.

The Alternative: A Study in Psychology. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882. Pp. 387.

Conflict in Nature and Life: A Study of Antagonism in the Constitution of Things for the Elucidation of the Problem of Good and Evil, and the Reconciliation of Optimism and Pessimism. D. Appleton & Co. 1883. Pp. 488.

On Mr. Spencer's Unification of Knowledge. By Malcolm Guthrie. London: Trübner & Co. 1882. Pp. 476.

Natural Law in the Spiritual World. By Henry Drummond, F.K.S.E., F.G.S. James Pott. Pp. 414.

Philosophy and Christianity. Eight Lectures on the Ely Foundation of Union Theological Seminary. By Geo. S. Morris, Ph.D., Professor in Michigan University, and Lecturer in the Johns Hopkins University.

The Philosophical Basis of Theism. By Samuel Harris, D.D., LL.D., Professor of Theology at Yale College. Scribners. Pp. 564.

The Grounds of Theistic and Christian Belief. By Geo. P. Fisher, D.D., LL.D., Professor of Church History in Yale College. Scribners. 1883. Pp. 483.

THE first of these volumes contains two discourses, which are devoted to showing that within his own consciousness every man has a wide chaotic sphere of sensations, desires, feelings, etc., which it is the business of his life to reduce to order and beauty. The will is the only *real* faculty, and its every act is simply an effort, and its freedom is nothing more nor less than self-control. Our conception or imagination of things is an incipient creation of them, differing from the divine creation of matter only in degree. Ages of successful effort in the material world have prepared man for systematic ideal constructions, which are to counteract selfishness and materialism, and to be set in operation in the moral sphere of life, where man is a supreme and sole creative first cause. The creative construction, or the education in ideality, which Mr. Hazard commends especially for the young, though beset with dangers, may be so directed as to result not merely in mental gratification, for the sake of which all sciences are first pursued, but in increasing the efficiency of the intellect in its every sphere. Thus there is opened to the metaphysician a wide field of both material and ideal utility. To this end it is demonstrated that the poetic or intuitive method of seeking truth is superior, even in the lowest sphere of thought, to the prosaic, logical, or discursive. But in the former field man is not, according to our author's conception, a creative first cause, for he can be so only by conscious, volitional effort.

The alternative which gives title to the second book on our list is that man is "either a puppet, dupe, or victim of unconscious forces" (*i. e.*, instincts of the mind), which are purely corporeal—the encephalon, etc.—or else he must begin a long and rigid course of self-denying conduct to mortify the reign of instinct (or the unconscious), which now transacts nearly the whole business of life, and inaugurate the rule of will and wisdom, substituting a new man for the old, and, by adopting an ideal of character opposed to his automatic nature, becoming a true free agent. The greater part of the work which leads up to the exposure of this alternative, is an attempted reconstruction of psychology, wherein "error is sapped and truth is put in its place by a noiseless process of definition which tends to exclude an appearance of addition to knowledge," but which really eliminates inconsistencies, and clears up vast areas of experience ignored by those who reduce all mental operations to judgments. In choosing between rival hypotheses or principles we must prefer that which would cause least change in our beliefs, and should often will and act resolutely upon beliefs we theoretically doubt—as, *e. g.*, the belief in freedom of the soul, loss of faith in which would probably cause a degeneration of the race. Vigorous and suggestive as the volume is throughout, its terminology is nothing less than revolutionary—and rarely for the better. "Irabditive self-insufficients," "non-certive knowledge," "thesic affection," "quesits," "non-vacant entities," "vice sensations," "anti-paradoxic experience," "non-unitive," "inapparitional," "impluritive," "impero- and pulchro-moralness," are some of the terms which stand out more prominently in a style so quaint and individual that even commonplaces are hard to understand and must have been hard to state. The author has made a dashing and interesting tour up and down a very wide domain of thought, but it would be too much to say that—aside from the individual grouping and shading of his mental impression of the universe—he has really told us anything whatever that is at the same time new and important.

The author of 'Conflict in Nature and Life' has grouped the results of wide reading about the conception of a "necessary antagonism in the constitution of things, in consequence of which the notion of universal harmony, attainable perfection, and unmixed happiness is Utopian and illusory." During twenty years of meditation upon this theme new books have made sad havoc with his originalities, till he admits that originality can be claimed only of the *ensemble* of his work. History, religion, law, science, hygiene, are each made to deposit a goodly number of facts and opinions, and contrast and even difference are often mistaken for conflict. The author's mind moves with smoothness and decency through the wide field of popular science, often constructing a perfect mosaic of well-chosen quotations. The grouping of his impressions and facts must have been an admirable discipline for him, but it seems to us in several ways a good illustration of what philosophy is not, or at least should not be.

Mr. Guthrie tells us that his present work must be taken in connection with a former book, 'On Mr. Spencer's Formula of Evolution,' as a criticism of the general logical construction of the latter's system. The writer is, for the most part, in sympathy with Mr. Spencer's methods and results, but holds that there are such gaps

and inconsistencies in his thought as to make it anything but a true unitary system. Results of studies not yet made are wrongly anticipated, words are used in place of ideas, mysticism is made to complete explanation, the "double-aspect theory" is unintelligible—these are some of the negative, purely critical theses of our author, who confessedly does not aspire to the higher claim of positive achievement. As a whole, his two books contain the most thorough and searching revision which Mr. Spencer's writings have yet undergone, and must convince any but a blind disciple that these writings are only suggestive and stimulating and in no sense final.

Mr. Drummond surmises that "many of the laws of the spiritual world hitherto regarded as occupying an entirely separate province are simply the laws of the natural world." Lecturing week-days on natural science, and Sundays on moral and religious topics, the author found the partition wall between them gradually breaking away, and the form (though not the content) of Sunday work greatly changed thereby, till "spiritual law was enunciated in the exact terms of biology and physics," and the one region where chaos reigned became a sphere of law. Accordingly, biogenesis, degeneration, growth, death, mortification, eternal life, environment, conformity to type, and parasitism, are treated briefly, first in a natural and then in a spiritual sense, and in a way which rehabilitates many theological notions in a rather interesting and surprising way, quite at the expense, however, of the old boundary line between the natural and supernatural.

Professor Morris treats of religion and intelligence, the philosophical theory of knowledge, the absolute object of intelligence, the Biblical theory of knowledge, the absolute, the world, man, and the comparative philosophic content of Christianity. The author's standpoint is an austere Hegelism, and his volume is a somewhat loosely-woven but very readable statement of the great Master's philosophy of Christianity. It is greatly to be hoped that such a book will find a wide circle of readers among the clergy.

The last two books on our list are attempts to construe the universe, not from a personal, but from a venerable traditional standpoint, and are characterized by wide reading, of which a systematic account has been kept, a constant tendency to resolve every question into a psychological form, and (especially in the volume of Doctor Harris) almost exclusive reference, not to other theological writers or to Scripture, but to the current literature of science and philosophy. Pantheism is formally refuted, and yet nature is admitted to be "imbued with intelligible thought"; Feuerbach would be and indirectly is loudly disavowed, yet it is granted that "descent into our inmost being is ascent to God." Ultimates, absolutes, finalities are constantly assumed or vindicated, and yet it is admitted that the soul posits God somewhat as it does the external world. Both volumes, and especially the former, are the result of years of reading, meditation, and lecturing, and cannot fail to interest all concerned with the subjects they treat of; but they can satisfy no one, for opposing theories have manifestly made a far deeper impression on their authors than they are conscious of, while they quite fail to do justice to the deep and quickening new insights into the meaning of the religious and Christian life already stirring in fresher minds within their own and other churches, which will no doubt soon lift them far above the eclectic, apologetic standpoints, into a region of more positive religious thought and feeling.

It would be hard to illustrate better the utter chaos which now pervades all those studies that are directly concerned with the facts of conduct, feeling, and thought than by these fortuitously-gathered volumes. There is not only no consensus, but no very closely-meshed, well and widely reasoned unity in any of them. The facts are common to all; not one of them fails to give more or less prominence to the discussion of many of the more recently formulated psychic phenomena: but the chief difference is in fundamental and first principles. They all, however, illustrate the tendency, which a decade or two hence will be seen to be the chief characteristic of the present period of intellectual life, viz., the tendency to take a new and fresher look at the most common facts of soul-life, to come into closer quarters with the thoughts men oftenest think, the acts they oftenest do, and the emotions they oftenest feel; to study objectively the actual growth of our faculties from childhood to age, and to analyze down to their neural basis those instinctive automatic elements whose activity makes up so much of life, and which are somehow so closely bound up with the nature of our highest intuitions. This is the common postulate or desideratum, more or less consciously, of each one of these books, and such work takes us back of the current definitions of mental faculties and functions so commonly assumed as data.

Nights with Uncle Remus: Myths and Legends of the Old Plantation. By Joel Chandler Harris. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

Mr. Harris's reputation was made at a single stroke by his 'Uncle Remus: His Songs and his Sayings,' which appeared just three years ago in book form. It was then seen that, in spite of his disclaimer that he was simply a chronicler of negro folk-lore, he was an exquisite humorist, whose mastery of the negro dialect and skill as a story-teller placed him in the front rank of American writers. He now comes forward with a second volume, no longer a medley, but wholly given up to the "creetur" tales which made the first so enjoyable and so valuable, and thus proves the sincerity of his protest that he was a man with a mission. The mine of which he first fairly revealed the richness has, meantime, been still further opened up by his own explorations and the help of friends, until in addition to the thirty-four of the former series we have seventy-one new tales placed before us. It cannot be supposed that the vein is worked out, even if it should seem that the best ore lay on the surface. Opinions will differ as to whether there is anything in the present collection to be preferred, say, to the "Tar Baby," the explanation of Brer Possum's love of peace, or the trial of strength in which Brer Tarrypin surpasses Brer B'ar. But in all other respects, unquestionably, this work more than holds its own, and indeed, regard being had to the literary skill displayed in setting so large a number of stories, must be thought an extraordinary *tour de force*.

The ease and confidence with which Mr. Harris handles his materials are shown in various ways. There is a certain development in the two leading characters "The little boy" is felt to be getting older and more mature; Uncle Remus grows more mellow, and his finer traits are brought out by contrast with an aged "Affiky" man, Daddy Jack, from the rice plantations, and with two of the women house servants. These three new-comers all relieve Uncle Remus in telling stories, and Mr. Harris's crowning art lies in maintaining the peculiar speech and psychic quality of each. In other words, he drives a dialectic four-in-hand with unrivalled dexterity. Nothing could be better here than the way in which Daddy Jack takes a tale away from Uncle Remus and proceeds to tell it himself, but the former will not father it, and quietly resumes (p. 207): "Now, den, we er got ter go 'way back behime dish yer yallergater doin's w'at Brer Jack bin mixin' us up wid. Ef I makes no mistakes wid my 'membrence, de place wharbouts I lef' off wuz whar Brer Rabbit had so many p'intments fer ter keep out der way er de t'er creeturs dat he 'gun ter feel monst'ous humblyfied." Another striking example is a succession of three variants of one theme, told by Uncle Remus, Daddy Jack, and Aunt Tempy respectively. Space fails us, however, to quote freely from these laughable pages. How many delicate touches there are like this (p. 99): "Brer Wolf he keep on, he did, twel he done stop up de hole good, *en den he bresh de trash off'n his cloze*, en put out fer home." Or take this consummate piece of deception and anti-climax (p. 71): "Brer Rabbit say he a good frien' to Brer Fox, en he aint got no room ter talk 'bout 'im, but yit w'en he see 'im 'stroyin' King Deer goats, en chunkin' at his chickens, *en rattlin' on de palin's fer ter make de dog bark*, he bleedz ter come lay de case 'fo' de fambly."

Our author has had compassion on his Northern readers, and adds many helpful foot-notes in explanation of the obscurer terms, besides furnishing a special Daddy Jack vocabulary. His introduction gives an interesting account of the difficulties of gathering his later stories, which are still current, and he makes the acute criticism on Theal's 'Kaffir Folk-Lore' that the fact of these tales having all "undergone a thorough revision by a circle of natives" raises a fair presumption that they were more or less cooked, and that the body of Kaffir folk-lore corresponding to that of the Southern States has still to be extracted from reluctant informants. However, Theal supplies some curious parallels with the stories related by Mr. Harris; and so does Bleek, but the Kaffir hare (*hlakanyana*) has already given way to the Hottentot fox. It is also made nearly certain that the Amazonian tortoise-myths recorded by the late Professor Hartt were derived by the Indians from contact with the blacks. The same thing has happened to our American Indians. The introduction concludes with a rhymed Creole animal story lately published by Prof. James A. Harrison, of Washington and Lee University.

We cannot dismiss this work without noticing its confirmation of Mr. Harris's capacity for higher and more sustained efforts, as already evidenced in 'At Teague Poteet's.' His accurate and sympathetic observation, his poetic imagination, his strength and tenderness in character drawing, a certain dramatic instinct, moreover, show that he may yet make a name in fiction as in folk-lore. His publishers, we are glad to see, announce as in preparation 'Mingo, and Other Sketches.'

Italy. By Ugo Balzani. [Early Chroniclers of Europe.] London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co. 1 vol. 8vo.

From the title one may suppose this to be a dry book, giving an account of the Italian chroniclers of the Middle Ages; but Signor Balzani has made of it a most learned, interesting, and at times picturesque narrative of the early chroniclers of Italian history from Cassiodorus and Gregory the Great to Albertus Mussatus, Dino Compagni, and Giovanni Villani. Beginning with the fall of the Roman Empire he passes them all in review, giving, when possible, their lives and works, with translations of remarkable passages in their books, and succinct comments on their style and trustworthiness; the whole seeming an epitome of the history of that long, dark period,

yet so condensed in form as to occupy only 340 pages. The book begins with the Gothic invasion chronicled by Cassiodorus, and still more by his compiler, the Goth Jordanes, whose 'Compendium of the History of the Goths by Cassiodorus'—the original of which is lost—is the best account we have of that warlike nation. The other writers follow till the fifteenth century, when Italian history began, superficial still, but destined soon to shine in the pages of Macchiavelli and Guicciardini.

The most important chronicler to whom we are indebted for what we know about the Lombards is a Lombard himself, Paulus Warnefridus, commonly styled Paulus Diaconus, who wrote the 'Historia Longobardorum,' and of whom Signor Balzani speaks at length. After him there are only monastic books from which to make incidental historical extracts—such as the 'Liber Pontificalis,' the 'Acts' of the Neapolitan bishops, the 'Constructio' and 'Destructio' of Farfa and of Montecassino, and the polemical religious writings of the eighth and ninth centuries—till we reach Liutprand, Bishop of Cremona, in the tenth. His life and works are fully described, for he was an actor as well as a chronicler of that eventful period of the Saxon Othos, of King Berengarius and Queen Walla, of the Alberics and the famous Marozia in Rome. Among the quotations from his chronicles there is an excellent description of the deposition of Pope John XII., in which Liutprand took part as Bishop of Cremona.

In the intellectual movement of the eleventh and twelfth centuries and the revival of ecclesiastical and historical culture which succeed this period, Montecassino and its monastic students and chroniclers take a prominent place. There figure such men as Gregory of Catino, Leo Ostiensis, Petrus Diaconus, Bruno of Segni, Petrus Pisanus, Pandulph, and the Englishman Cardinal Boso, who was chamberlain to the only English Pope who ever filled the Roman See, Adrian IV. (Nicholas Breakspear), and many others. Remarkable among these are Peter Damiani, whom Dante immortalized ('Par.,' xxi., v. 106), and Bonizo, appointed by Gregory VII. Bishop of Sutri. The latter was most prominent in the political strife between the Papacy and the Empire, and a trusty counsellor both of the Pope and the famous Countess Matilda of Tuscany. He was very intimate with the principal personages in the renowned episode of Canossa (A. D. 1077), of which he was not an eyewitness, but which he chronicles just as he must have heard of it from them. Signor Balzani has translated this passage, and Bismarck's famous saying, "We will not go to Canossa," so often repeated in the late controversy between Germany and the Pope, will perhaps justify our giving a portion of the narrative:

". . . In the meantime the venerable Gregory, for the sake of peace, was journeying toward Augsburg under great difficulties, for there was then raging a most severe winter. But the King, little heeding the sacrament, entered Italy. And some say that he desired to seize on the Pope unexpectedly, which seems probable enough; for Gregory, the Bishop of Vercelli, his chancellor, who was commanded by the princes to conduct the Pope over the Alps, when he had crossed the Apennines, heard that he (Henry) had secretly entered the city of Vercelli, and told the Pope of this, who then went to Canossa, a strong fortress of the most excellent Matilda.

"Meanwhile, the King, seeing his machinations discovered, laying aside, as it seemed, all fierceness and putting on a dove-like simplicity, goes to Canossa, and for some days remaining barefoot on the snow and ice, deceives all the less cautious, and receives from the venerable Gregory the absolution which he craved in the sacrament during the celebration of the Mass, in the following manner: For he made him partake of the holy table in the presence of the bishops, abbots, monks, priests, and laity in this manner, that if he humiliated himself in spirit as in body, and believed that the Pope was the rightful one, and that he had been excommunicated on account of his imitating Photius and Dioscorus, and believed that he could be absolved by this sacrament, then might it be given him for his salvation; but if otherwise, might Satan enter into him, as into Judas, by his mouth. What else? During the celebration of the Mass they took the communion together. Then it is commanded to all who are absolved from excommunication that they should keep aloof from the society of the excommunicated. But there are some who say that he swore to the Pope by his life and limbs and honor; I, however, will affirm nothing of which I am quite ignorant.

"Then the King, after he had been absolved from the ban, seemed in appearance sufficiently devoted and obedient to the Pope; for he separated himself from the society of all those bishops, considering them to be excommunicated [those bishops who had elected the anti-pope Guibert], agreeing, however, at night in all their wicked plans, and resolving that in his mind which afterward was made clear by the result of the matter. And so he acted all the time that he remained at Piacenza, fearing especially the presence of his mother, the most religious Empress, who happened to be there.

"At the same time that Cencius, hateful to God, whom we have mentioned above, came to him, whom in the daytime he refused to see as being excommunicated, but at night gave himself wholly up to his pestilent counsels; and when he saw that the Pope could in no way be torn from the fortress of Canossa, he went to Pavia."

The book is neatly printed, and worthy of a place in all libraries.

Recollections of a Drummer-Boy. By Harry M. Kieffer, late of the 150th Regiment Pennsylvania Volunteers. Illustrated. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

It needs some genius to convey an adequate idea of a mode of life to one unaccustomed to it. Familiarity with army life seemed to take away from most actors in it the power of judging what of its features were distinctive and would be of interest to the men of peace at home. In the book before us ample space is given to the hunting of a squirrel, in no essential differing from the frolic of a boy nutting in October, and a terrier is described at length as an interesting member of the regiment. The practical jokes of the camp, and witticisms equally obsolete, are rather flat when rehearsed without their original setting of occasion and scene. When physical comforts were so few their importance was great; and among the most interesting chapters are those giving the different ingenious shifts of which necessity was the mother. The various rude kinds of huts for winter quarters which grew to be so comfortable and homelike are fully described, and recipes are given for disguising hard tack which seem equally simple and unattractive. Only a short list appears of the many tortures, more or less mild, invented for the discipline of offenders, and perhaps it is as well that it is no longer, unless some idea could be given at the same time of the danger other men were placed in by the offences, and of the irritation produced by stubbornness and insolence. Still, too little is said of the minor details of a life where a man's hope for a luxurious night's sleep lay in coming to an understanding with some comrade, and clubbing and sharing blankets with him; and where one of the perils of the night was having the camp-fire run through the grass and burn your bed and yourself. Due honor is paid to the savoriness of raw pork, which was gladly eaten with the sauce of hunger and with serene disregard of trichinæ. Words would probably fail to describe the condition when water was unbesitatingly drunk from the ruts in the road, or the luxury of fresh meat or green food after long want of them.

The book does not deal at all with strategy, and in the description of battles presents mostly the scenes at the rear, and what might naturally fall under the observation of a drummer-boy. There is little idea conveyed of a soldier's familiar experience of the eager intentness with which an advance of skirmishers is watched, the thrill that follows the first shot, the bustle and hurry of guns coming into battery, the double-quick of supports, the rapid formation of line, and the sudden breaking out of heavy musketry announcing the beginning of serious work. Some of the challenges of sentinels and answers incorporated in the text would indicate that the 150th Pennsylvania Volunteers were not over-punctilious in conforming to the army regulations on such points, but the regiment is represented as everywhere bearing itself bravely, and doing credit to the service to which it belonged.

Many memories will be revived by this narrative. The long, weary waiting to be reviewed by the President, relieved, in the instance selected, by the welcome, dashing arrival of Master Tad on a pony, calling out, "Make way, men! Make way, men! Father's a-coming! father's a-coming!"—the senseless double-quick for the tired men at the close, with the regular flop-flop of cartridge-boxes and bayonet-scabbards; picket duty when the feeling was angry, and sharpshooting constant and determined; and also when the reverse was true, and an informal truce was negotiated under the protection of a piece of white paper, and boasts of prowess were good-naturedly exchanged, and tobacco and coffee bartered, till some command or disagreement led to a tame resumption of hostilities—are all referred to. One of the latter occasions furnishes an admirably true sketch from the pencil of a Confederate soldier, the appearance of which in such a book is in itself an agreeable illustration of how thoroughly the war is over. The story of the raising of nine-months' men in a quiet town, and the war fever running through all the young men, seems taken from the life, and will probably in all its essentials be enacted over again, with little change, in the next war we may be unlucky enough to engage in.

Handbook of Dates. Arranged Alphabetically and Chronologically. Compiled by Henry Clinton Brown. A. Lovell & Co. 1883.

An "Introduction," so called, by W. W. Newton, of Pittsfield, Mass., tells us that this compilation is the work of a "young friend," engaged on it "during his college vacation." The student undertook the labor for himself, and as the fruit of a vacation (or two) it is creditable enough; but at Mr. Newton's "urgent request," he "concluded to have his labors published"—without having made the necessary studies, and probably without the necessary time for a careful revision. Haste in execution marks the whole, from beginning to end, though the author seems to have been inspired by an earnest desire to do a good piece of literary work. We read in the chronological part: "145 Antonius [*sic* for Antoninus] defeats the Moors. . . . 146. . . . Artemidorus. 147 Apuleius. 148 Justin the historian. 149 Aulus Gellius the grammarian. 151 Maximus Tirius [*sic* for Tyrius]. . . . 153 Pausanias. . . . 158 Lucian." We ask, who were Antonius, Artemidorus, Apuleius, Maximus, Pausanias, Lucian? What did Artemidorus and the rest do, or what happened to them, in the years stated? The alphabetical part totally forgets Artemidorus, Justin, Gellius, and Maximus, repeats the sentence about "Antonius," and tells us that Apuleius "lived, 147," Pausanias "lived, 153," and Lucian was "born, about 135"—that is all. We are told in what years Cain and Seth were

born; what ages Methuselah and Noah reached; when Memnon the Egyptian invented letters, and when Ogyges began to reign; but we look in vain in the whole book for such names as Spinoza, Franklin, Kant, Kossuth, or Bismarck. The chronology of the American civil war is rich in names of battles, but there is nowhere a mention of such commanders in it as Beauregard, McClellan, Jackson, Meade, Sheridan, or Farragut. Grant is not mentioned before 1864, and Lee not before 1865. We find the "battles" of Dug Spring (1861) and Nachod (1866; twice misprinted Nachos), and also a "battle of Engen, May 3, 1880" (in the alphabetical part), which we are unfortunately unable to locate; but the names Ostrolenka, Buda, Metz, Plevna, and Shipka are as little discoverable as Bem, Görgei, Bazaine, Osman Pasha, or Skobeleff. The Polish struggle of 1830-31 is told in this one sentence: "Insurrection in Poland suppressed"—under "1830," when it broke out; the Hungarian revolution in these words: "1848 . . . Revolution in Hungary," and "1849 . . . Revolution in Hungary put down"; the Franco-German war of 1870-71 in a few blundering sentences; and the late Russo-Turkish conflict in the two following: "1877 . . . Russia declares war against Turkey," and "1878 . . . Negotiations between Russia and Turkey for peace begun," the conclusion of peace in the latter year being ignored. The alphabetical part knows no Mazzini, Garibaldi, Pius IX., or Victor Emanuel; leaves Louis Napoleon unelected, uncrowned, and uncaptured, and knows William I. only as King of Prussia. The chronological order within each year is not observed, as in the following: "1871 . . . An armistice February 28; meeting of the Assembly at Bordeaux"—a meeting which took place before the armistice. All these inaccuracies and omissions are only samples, and yet the book is not beneath criticism, and the author may be expected to do much better work in future.

Examples for Elementary Practice in Delineation. Designed for the use of schools and isolated beginners. By Charles H. Moore, Instructor in Drawing and Principles of Design in Harvard University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

LAST year we had the pleasure of praising Mr. Moore's 'Facsimiles of Examples in Delineation,' for pupils somewhat advanced in drawing, and we then expressed the hope that he would publish a primary work, which is now before us. Taken together, these two volumes furnish the best course of instruction now available in the conditions which the author had in mind, namely, those of solitary students, and of classes in which it is more convenient to copy from line drawings than from natural objects. For these conditions Mr. Moore's method is as judicious as can be imagined, and his latest examples cannot fail, if mastered, to lead to that precise command of simple lines which is the prerequisite of taking up the higher work. They consist, after some preliminary geometric training, largely of leaf forms, which any competent teacher can multiply if needful; then come some architectural outlines, Grecian, Egyptian, Italian; Egyptian and Assyrian designs; ornamental letters; finally, a head after Botticelli—in all, twenty plates. The text calls attention to the notable points of beauty, character, or difficulty in them, and for the rest is well calculated to imbue the teacher with Mr. Moore's high ideal. We shall expect the best results from the wide introduction of these drawing-books. If their function were simple exclusion of the prevailing ones, it would be useful enough.

Modern French Readings. Edited by William I. Knapp, Street Professor of Modern Languages in Yale College. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 1883.

THIS neatly-printed volume of 457 pages contains only eleven selections, taken from the works of but seven authors. Mr. Knapp's reasons for giving a few long pieces in preference to a large number of short ones—to wit, that "only in that case can the full range of the writer's mind be discerned and enjoyed," and that "time and space are allowed him to overcome the awkwardness of the début, to settle comfortably in his theme, and exhibit the power he may have to draw us with him"—are certainly good, if the object of the reader be to gauge the depth of the author's mind; and in that case care should be taken that the selections be made from his best compositions, else we do him injustice. But Mr. Knapp also informs us that, his object being to furnish the student with "progressive materials for becoming acquainted with the current language of France under the influences that are giving it a new phase of development," the selections have been made principally "with reference to style and vocabulary." Would it not, then, have been more to the purpose if the 152 pages occupied by Victor Hugo's "Ruy Blas" had been filled with half-a-dozen complete short stories by prose writers such as Edmond About, Cherbuliez, Monselet, Claretie, and other living authors, whose style of writing is as modern as may be desired—withal polished, elegant, natural, and free from the taint of the "realistic" vocabulary with which Zola and his consorts have tried to give the French language "a new phase of development"? "Ruy Blas" is a very fine drama in verse—one of the *chefs-d'œuvre* of the Romantic school of 1830-40; but it is scarcely a fair specimen of the "current language" of the present time. The first piece—a touching story by that ancient "friend of childhood," Berquin—although a very good model of simplicity in style, is a singular choice, so soon followed as it is by selections from such vigorous modern writers as Guizot, Dumas, Gautier, Daudet, and Hugo. Moral tales by modern authors are not wanting from which a selection might have been made. The elder Dumas's 'Beefsteak d'Ours' is a lively story in the author's earlier manner. The "Grand Amœur," to whom the French are just now erecting a statue, has written many a better story, but the embarrassment of choosing is only the greater for this abundance.

Although we may find fault with Mr. Knapp's selections as a model of "progressive" reading, for the reasons set forth, yet we hasten to add that the pieces, in themselves, are unobjectionable, and form an entertaining course of reading, very suitable for an advanced class of students. The clear and full definitions of the French idioms and difficult constructions, which are to be found in the notes at the end of the volume, give additional value to the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arius the Libyan: An Idyl of the Primitive Church. D. Appleton & Co.
Art, L'. Vol. 34. J. W. Bouton.
Ayres, A. The English Grammar of William Cobbett. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Belot, Adolphe. The Stranglers of Paris. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.
Berthelot, M. P. E. Lectures on Explosive Materials. D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
Boot, W. H. J. Trees, and How to Paint Them in Water Colors. Cassell & Co. $2 50.
Brine, Mary D. Jingles and Joys for Wee Boys and Girls. Cassell & Co. $1 50.
Champney, Lizzie W. Three Vassar Girls in England. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1 50.
Coan, T. M. Art and Literature. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 60 cents.
Green, Anna Katherine. Hand and Ring. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 50.
Harland, Marion. Judith: a Chronicle of Old Virginia. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1 50.
Harper's Young People. 1883.
Harris, J. C. Nights with Uncle Remus: Myths and Legends of the Old Plantation. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $2.
Hart, M. C. The Amateur Printer; or, Type-setting at Home. Dick & Fitzgerald.
Hays, Mrs. W. J. A Loving Sister: a Story for Big Girls. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Herrick, Sophie Bledsoe. The Wonders of Plant Life under the Microscope. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 50.
Hoyt, Rev. W. Gleams from Paul's Prison; or, Studies for the Daily Life in the Epistle to the Philippians. Ward & Drummond. $1.
Hubbard, L. L. Woods and Lakes of Maine: a Trip from Moosehead Lake to New Brunswick in a Birch-Bark Canoe. Illustrated. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Hudson, Rev. H. N. Shakespeare's Merchant of Venice. For Use in Schools and Classes. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Janet, P. The Theory of Morals. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 50.
Lee, Margaret. The Story of a Story. Ward & Drummond. $1 25.
Little Folks: a Magazine for the Young. New and enlarged Series. Cassell & Co. $1 25.
Locker, F. Poems. White, Stokes & Allen. $1.
McCosh, Rev. J. Certitude, Providence, and Prayer. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Mitchell, Lucy M. A History of Ancient Sculpture. With numerous Illustrations. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Molinos, M. Thoughts from his Spiritual Guide. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1 25.
Moore, C. H. Examples for Elementary Practice in Delineation. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Moulton, Louise Chandler. Firelight Stories. With Illustrations. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Nordhoff, C. God and the Future Life: The Reasonableness of Christianity. Harper & Bros.
Pancoast, S. The Kabbala; or, The True Science of Light. With a Chapter on Light in the Vegetable Kingdom. R. Worthington.
Perkins, C. C. Historical Handbook of Italian Sculpture. Charles Scribner's Sons. $4.
Poe, E. A. The Raven. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1 50.
Proctor, R. A. Draw Poker. Principles and Chance Laws. Dick & Fitzgerald.
Pulpit Prayers by Eminent Preachers. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1 50.
Rein, Dr. W. The Life of Martin Luther. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.
Ridley, M. L. The Three Chums. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Ruenzler, F. German Manual: a New Method for Acquiring a Theoretical and Practical Knowledge of the German Language. 2 vols. Henry Holt & Co.
Ruskin, J. The Art of England. Oxford Lectures. John Wiley & Sons. $1.
Saunders, J. A Noble Life: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Schaff, Prof. P. A Popular Commentary on the New Testament. Illustrations and maps. In 4 vols. Vol. iv. Charles Scribner's Sons. $5.
Schaff, Prof. P. History of the Christian Church. New edition, revised and enlarged. Vol. ii. Ante-Nicene Christianity. A. D. 1-325. Charles Scribner's Sons. $4.
Schoenhof, J. The Destructive Influence of the Tariff. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Scott, Sir W. Count Robert of Paris. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.
Seeley, J. R. The Expansion of England. Two Courses of Lectures. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 75.
Shakspere's Macbeth, Hamlet, King Lear. [Parchment Library.] D. Appleton & Co. $1 25.
Sheeleigh, Rev. B. Luther: a Song Tribute. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society.
Stables, G. The Cruise of the *Snowbird*. A Story of Arctic Adventure. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1 50.
Stephens, C. A. The Knockabout Club in the Tropics. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1 50.
Sterling, Viola. The Henry Irving Birthday-Book. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $1 25.
Still, W. Underground Railroad Records. Revised ed. Philadelphia: William Still.
Stoddard, J. L. Red-Letter Days Abroad. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $5.
Story, W. W. He and She: a Poet's Portfolio. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Sunlight and Shade: being Poems and Pictures of Life and Nature. Cassell & Co. $3.
Swing, D. Sermons. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1 50.
Taylor, Rev. W. M. Contrary Winds, and Other Sermons. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1 75.
Thaxter, Celia. Poems for Children. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.
The New Testament. With engravings on wood from designs by the old masters. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $10.
Thwing, C. F. American Colleges: Their Students and Work. Second edition, revised. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 25.
Torceanu, R. A Simplified Grammar of the Roumanian Language. Trübner & Co.
Trowbridge, J. T. Phil and his Friends. Lee & Shepard. $1 25.
Truman, Maj. B. C. Tourists' Illustrated Guide to the Celebrated Summer and Winter Resorts of California. San Francisco: H. S. Crocker & Co.
Underwood, F. H. John Greenleaf Whittier: a Biography. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Vigfusson & Powell. Corpus Poeticum Boreale: The Poetry of the Old Northern Tongue, from the Earliest Times to the Thirteenth Century. 2 vols. Vol. i. Eddic Poetry. Vol. ii. Court Poetry. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Weatherly, F. E. Told in the Twilight. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Wedgwood, Prof. W. B. Civil-Service Reform. Portland: Stephen Berry.
Wheeler, D. H. Byways of Literature. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.
Wheeler, C. G. The Course of Empire: Outlines of the Chief Political Changes in the History of the World. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
White, J. S. The Boyd and Girls' Plutarch. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
White, E. E. A New Complete Arithmetic. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.
Whittier, J. G. The Bay of Seven Islands, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Willson, M. and R. P. Mosaics of Grecian History. Harper & Bros.
Williams, W. The Principles and Practice of Veterinary Medicine. First American, from the last English edition. Wm. Wood & Co.
Winks, W. E. A Daily Text-Book: Selections from Thomas à Kempis. Thomas Whittaker. $1 25.
Woodward, Major E. M. History of the Third Pennsylvania Reserve Regiment. Ellisdale, Monmouth Co., N. J.: The Author.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 22, 1883.

The Week.

***For the first time in eighteen years the *Nation* is compelled to offer its subscribers a paper of less than the stipulated size and the customary variety. A sudden and unreasonable strike in the newspaper offices of this city has temporarily involved our own journal in its crippling effects. We feel assured of the forbearance of our readers.

NOTHING has shown the "power" of the press more clearly than the success of the Washington correspondents in working up a canvass of the Speakership several weeks in advance of the meeting of Congress. With only twenty Congressmen in Washington, the correspondents have been able to publish every day for a week exhaustive canvasses of the field, giving the exact strength of each candidate and the probabilities of his success or failure. They have succeeded also in inducing the leading candidates to define their "views" and set forth their claims for election. This was skilfully brought about by first interviewing the single candidate who was in Washington, and then hunting down the other candidates in their turn to see what they had to say about the first candidate's assertions. The greatest success has been scored with Mr. Randall. He talked several columns with reporters who visited him at his Pennsylvania home on Thursday; defined his attitude on nearly all public questions, and closed with the interesting intelligence that he proposed to dine that day on a turkey that was born on his place, and to fortify the repast with vegetables which he grew himself. Mr. Cox is less talkative on the question of principles, being in fact too much annoyed by the general refusal to take his candidacy seriously, to speak calmly on few other subjects. His predicament is precisely that to which all habitual humorists are liable. Their most serious efforts are always in danger of being interpreted as their very best jokes.

The controlling issue in the speakership contest is the very simple one: "Shall the tariff question be discussed or dodged?" If a majority of the Democratic members conclude that it will be the best policy to suppress all debate on the subject, Mr. Randall will be elected. If a majority conclude that the party can take the risk of reopening the question, Mr. Carlisle or Mr. Cox will probably be chosen. Other issues are discussed by the various candidates at great length, but it is evident that they will have only an indirect influence in deciding the result. Mr. Randall's strength lies almost wholly in his attitude as an opponent of all tariff agitation. He has been from the first the one candidate who, both by disposition and experience, is best qualified to suppress impolitic debate. It is understood that if elected he will construct the committees in the interest of the no-agitation policy, and will use all the power of his position to prevent anything like a free-trade demonstration. He has taken pains to define his views at great length recently, and has advanced the grotesque idea of disposing of the tariff trouble by referring it to another commission. He has also reasserted his devotion to "tariff for revenue with incidental protection," and has taken the trouble to fortify his position with an elaborate array of citations from dead Democratic statesmen, in order to give the formula the aspect of a "time-honored" Democratic principle. He adheres to his plan, advocated by him in the Ohio campaign, of cutting down the surplus by abolishing the taxes on whiskey and tobacco. On this point he stands almost alone among Democratic statesmen.

Of the other candidates, Mr. Carlisle represents the most direct antagonism to Mr Randall. He is in favor of an unrestricted tariff discussion, with the ultimate object of reducing existing duties and preparing the way for free trade. His advocates make more or less effective efforts to disguise the purposes of his candidacy, but its real aim is undoubtedly as we have stated it. He is opposed to abolishing the whiskey and tobacco taxes, as all the Southern members are, declaring that what the country wants is not "cheaper whiskey and dearer blankets," but "cheaper blankets." Mr. Cox stands between Mr. Randall and Mr. Carlisle, and favors a judicious admixture of the policies represented by both. He says the country demands a reduction of the surplus, and that the only proper way to secure that reduction is to cut down the heavy duties. He opposes the abolition of the whiskey and tobacco taxes, which he favored in the last Congress, and opposes the policy of trying to save the party by suppressing debate. He thinks the Speaker "should be simply the modest organ of the House—to execute the rules," and that it is high time that the great commercial city of New York had a representative in the Speaker's chair. "I have not," he says modestly, "the wily reserve of the Pennsylvanian, or the wary prudence of the Kentuckian, but I have a record of a quarter of a century of parliamentary practice, of undisputed probity and democracy." For some inscrutable reason, he failed to add that he enjoyed also the devoted friendship of John Kelly. There appears to be no doubt that Mr. Randall's prospects are much the best of the three candidates.

The stories set afloat from time to time about "Arthur's chances" for 1884 do not seem to be based on any special effort yet made by the President to secure his own nomination, but to come almost altogether from a belief that he might get it if he chose to exert himself, and that there is no other candidate now before the country who seems to be "developing strength." It is contrary to all the traditions of American politics that a Vice-President who gets the Presidency by an accident should afterward become President; but then this case is a peculiar one, different from any which has occurred before. Arthur has got all the benefit from the political interregnum which has lasted ever since Garfield's death—the sort of political apathy which has made it impossible to go back to the politics of the Grant, Blaine, and Conkling period, and which has failed to raise any new issues in such a way that parties can divide upon them, and can either hate or love and admire politicians for raising them or making them plain. Nobody hates the Administration, or feels like denouncing it, so that negatively it may almost be said to be a strong Administration. But what puts it in a different position from any accidental administration that has preceded it is the curious condition of the South. There is not a single Southern State which the Republicans have any reasonable chance of carrying next year, yet there is in every one of them a Republican organization which will send a full delegation to the National Convention, whose votes would, if combined with a few Northern votes, be sufficient to control the nomination.

Those who regard Mr. Arthur as the most formidable Republican candidate for the succession, apparently count on a Republican solid South in the Convention, just as the Democrats count on a Democratic solid South in the election. Their idea is that if the President were to let it be known that he was a candidate, the instinct of self-preservation would "rally" all these rotten Southern organizations round him, because to them the preservation of the *status quo* in politics is at least far better than anything else that is likely to happen. A real reform President is probably what they most dread. That such a forecast of the future should take the fancy of Northern politicians shows strongly what a hold the rotten-borough idea has taken of their minds. Twice the President has "let it be known" who his candidate was, once in New York, once in Virginia, and with what a result! The nominations went right enough in both cases, and both were rotten-borough nominations. But it ended with the nominations. No wonder that it should be a favorite idea with the Democrats that in a little while the President will put himself forward as the Administration candidate for 1884. The difficulty is that the very notion of an Administration candidate implies the perpetuation of every abuse to the reform of which the Administration is pledged.

Mahone has issued a long explanation of his defeat. He gives a very good account of the Readjuster position with regard to the public debt, but the best point in it is that whatever the Readjuster position may be the Funder, posi

tion is no better. In fact, on this point he has the Bourbons on the hip, owing to their recent acceptance of his financial programme. Indeed, as matters now stand, it makes little difference to the public credit which of them is in power. People of the North are not interested by any means in having the Bourbons triumph. What they are interested in is having the Readjusters defeated, because their defeat means the failure to set up the boss system in the Southern States. His story of the occurrence at Danville, which he calls "a massacre," and the Bourbons call "a riot," recalls very strikingly the state of things some ten years ago in some other Southern States. There is a quarrel between a negro and a white; then a panic, real or sham, among the whites; then an armed gathering of whites; then an attack on the blacks or a panic among the blacks, who of course always get the worst of it. But nobody who remembers the outrage stories of ten years ago will take Mahone's picture of the Danville trouble at all literally. His peroration is somewhat comic; he says the Readjuster party "has enlarged with its age and growth. It originated in an issue local and to some extent unpopular. With time and the changing issues which time brings, it has widened its sphere." What this means is, that its original object was the simple one of cheating the public creditor. The plan of adding on to this work the support of "human rights, liberty, peace and manhood," is a curious attempt to embellish dishonesty.

The testimony before the *Proteus* Court of Inquiry grows worse instead of better for all persons in any way responsible for the last arctic expedition. A more wretchedly mismanaged enterprise it would be difficult to imagine. In his testimony on Monday, Commander Wildes, of the *Yantic*, brought this out more clearly than ever. Of the two ships which comprised the expedition, the *Proteus* was the only one which was at all fitted for navigating arctic seas. But the *Proteus* was a foreign ship, officered and manned by foreigners, and furnished with a crew who not only knew nothing of arctic navigation, but were not even seamen. They were made up of "longshoremen", "beach-combers" and anybody who was willing to go. The second ship, the *Yantic*, was in every way unfit for the cruise, was taken on three days' notice from the West Indies and sent to Greenland, with a supply of provisions inadequate for a crew which was unnecessarily large, and with boilers in such a condition that they had to be patched on the way. Commander Wildes says it was an "expedition of landsmen sent upon a service which required a knowledge of how to live either upon land or water, or upon the ice as well"; that it was sent without any careful consideration of the experiences of previous arctic expeditions; that, in fact, a "great and important enterprise had been undertaken with insufficent and scanty means." The inqury may result in ahowing that the Secretary of the Navy and the head of the Signal Service were not primarily responsible for all this, but the drift of all the testimony thus far has been directly against them.

The rural pulpit of Connecticut is assuming an outspoken vigor against individual shortcomings which is having a stirring influence upon the congregations. A Hebron minister preached a tremendous sermon, a few weeks ago, on the general subject of "Mormonism," but really aimed at a prominent member of the Church who had been divorced from three wives and was at that moment sitting under the droppings of the sanctuary beside the fourth. To add to the embarrassment of the situation, wife number three was also present, and was seated where she could fix a stony eye upon her former husband and see him writhe under the "rebuke." He was so incensed by the sermon that he brought suit against the minister for defamation of character, placing the damages at $5,000. He called a meeting of the church and denounced his pastor as a liar and a hypocrite, but the sentiment of the church and the community ran so strongly against him that he sold his house and land, abandoned his suit for damages, and left the town. Emboldened by this success, the pastor of another church in the same town, who had long suffered from the somnolent propensities of his congregation, denounced them roundly as "blockheads," and said they had no more expression in their faces while in church than so many wooden images. He has also had a great success, for there is an amount of animation in his church now which is far greater than he had expected or desired

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The Chippewa Indians threaten to make war upon the United States, and have presented an "ultimatum." The trouble is caused by the erection of dams at the headwaters of the Mississippi, which the Indians say will ruin their principal source of livelihood—by driving the whitefish from their usual spawning grounds. A commission has awarded them $15,000 as damages, but the Indians want $250,000 every six months, or $500,000 a year, a sum representing a capital of $10,000,000—which looks as if the Indians had been studying up the *Alabama* case and the Halifax fisheries award. They have, it is said, retained the services of a half-breed lawyer, and threaten to pull down the dams if their demand is not complied with. Captain Blakeley, who was sent to treat with them, inquired of the Indians how much rice and hay they gathered annually—treating the white-fish question as irrelevant; but they refused to go into this, and declared that they had "estimated their damages," and that was enough. The case shows an interesting progress among the Chippewas in the power to grasp legal ideas, and to get the white man's notions about property and "claims." A legal consultation among red men with their "counsel" over the probable loss of tribal income through the whitefish having to change their spawning ground, and the proper rule of damages to apply to such a case, shows that they have reached a stage of development beyond anything noticed among Indians since the days of the Six Nations.

The Supreme Court has rendered a salutary and wholesome insurance decision, which all who are fond of indulging a taste for assault and battery should study with care. The policy in the case was to be void if the insured should die "in or in consequence of the violation of the laws." The insured and his brother attacked one Berdell, and the assault seems to have been a very unfair one, for the brother held Berdell while the insured beat him on the head and face with a rawhide. In the course of the struggle which ensued Berdell drew a pistol, and, as so often happens in such cases, it "went off," the ball striking the insured in the head. He died afterward, and in the suit on his policy it was urged that under such circumstances the company was liable. Berdell, of course, swore that the discharge of the pistol was accidental, and the theory of the lawyers seems to have been that this made the death merely the result of a deplorable accident, which might happen to any gentleman. The jury below and the court above, however, took a different view of the matter.

The Nolls and Arnolds, neighbors in Clay County, Mo., had some trouble two or three days ago about a pathway through a field on Arnold's farm. Noll liked to use the pathway, and old Arnold objected, which finally made it necessary for Noll to shoot him dead. The affair would have ended here for the moment had not Noll perceived young Arnold approaching with a double-barrelled shot-gun. This made it necessary to kill him too, which he did with a well-aimed shot. The gloom in Clay County over this sad event is, however, so deep that there is talk of lynching Noll, who now lies in jail, which shows that it is much more effective than such gloom usually is.

Mayor's Edson's nominations for the police justices are not as bad as they might be, but they are pretty bad. There were, we believe, scores of men of high character and standing, members of the bar, available for the office, which in this city, as in any great city, can hardly be surpassed for importance. Instead of choosing any of them, he has taken two of the regular Tammany politicians, one a Fire Commissioner, and the other the Water Purveyor in the Department of Public Works. The testimonials which these men have received as to their fitness for the police justiceship simply affirm the goodness of their character. Nobody pretends that they have any special qualification, either moral or intellectual, for a judicial office. The sole reason for taking them out of the places they now fill, and for which their experience, if nothing else, fits them, is that Kelly wishes it. So that the Mayor has inflicted damage on the city in three several ways—first, by making his nominations for a judicial office under the dictation of a corrupt demagogue; secondly, by putting men in places for which they have neither natural nor acquired fitness, and thirdly, by taking men out of places of which they have had experience, and which they fill in a competent

manner. A mayor who had to face the public on his own responsibility would not venture to do these things, if he were a man of any character at all. Mayor Edson does them because he is able to shelter himself behind what is humorously called "the legislative branch" of the City Government—the Aldermen. He can always say, when he makes a bad nomination that it is the best he can get the Aldermen to accept.

The public indignation over the matter has been undoubtedly moderated by the prevailing general expectation that he would do something far worse, by filling one of the vacancies with the notorious Croker, commonly called "Dick" Croker, now a Coroner, one of the most disreputable of the Tammany "heelers," who was tried for an election murder in 1874, but escaped through an equal division of the jury. This plan of putting a good face on something outrageous by threatening beforehand something much more outrageous, is generally very successful, and in city politics may fairly be considered invaluable, and we advise Mayor Edson to stick to it. It must be said, in excuse for him, however, that Croker was strongly urged upon him by many reputable citizens. Among Croker's backers, in fact, to our amazement, as well as that of the community generally, we have no doubt, appears Mr. Abram S. Hewitt. A letter of his to the Mayor, written last year, which he has confirmed this year, has been published, recommending Croker for a police justiceship, mainly, if not wholly, on the ground that he (Croker) did not commit a murder in 1874, but did "confront a band of ruffians" at the polls. But then it is very odd that "coolness and courage and love of justice" displayed in a street fight should lead Mr. Hewitt to suppose that a man of Croker's antecedents would fill a judicial office "to the satisfaction of the public."

The moral influence of the special Grand Jury, which has not yet really begun its work, was felt again last week, when Judge Cowing carried consternation among the liquor dealers by announcing that he was tired of punishing violators of the excise laws with light fines, and that hereafter he should impose such penalties as would secure the enforcement of the laws. He began at once by sentencing several offenders to from 30 to 60 days' imprisonment. "Billy" McGlory's case was called, but was postponed on request of his counsel, who said he desired to prove through the testimony of a could not prove it then, because the ex-scientific expert, that the liquors which "Billy" has been selling are not intoxicating, but he pert was out of town. This testimony will be awaited with interest. How the quality of liquors which have been consumed, can be tested weeks after they have disappeared, is something of a mystery, but the court will probably be asked to take "Billy's" word for it that the liquors he has on hand are of the same brands as those which he has been selling.

The Democratic contest over the United States Senatorship in Ohio is likely to be an extremely bitter one. There are many candidates in the field now, but the divisions are likely to be mainly into "old" and "new" Democrats. The new Democrats are said to be favoring Henry B. Payne, of Cleveland, who is suspected of being Mr. Tilden's choice. The old Democrats favor Durbin Ward, and some of them, curiously enough, favor Pendleton's re-election, although his civil service reform record is directly antagonistic to their theories of government. One of these old Democrats says he and his companions distrust Mr. Payne, because when the war came on he turned a cold shoulder "to those who kept the Democratic house open." He thinks that the better men of the party are those "who endured the taunts and flings of Republicans when it took nerve to be a Democrat." This is probably as accurate a description as could be given of a genuine old Democrat.

The refusal of the Lord Mayor to let Doctor Stoecker lecture in the Mansion House appears to be a great mistake. Stoecker's performances in Germany as a Jew-baiter were undoubtedly very discreditable, but, after all, nothing helps even a disreputable agitator in our time more than refusing him the use of a "hall." One of the peculiarities of popular feeling in this democratic age is a tendency either to sympathize with a man who is compelled to "shut up," or to suspect that he has something very valuable to say. So that by merely seeming to wish to stop the mouth of the most pestilent fellow, it is easy to convert him into a martyr. Stoecker is said to have no charms whatever as a lecturer, and the lecture he has delivered in England appears to have been a failure, so that refusing him the Mansion House was really simply an advertisement. The Lord Mayor's disapproval nowadays hurts nobody.

The *Boston Advertiser* has a contributor, the author, we believe, of the curious rigmarole, in the shape of a criticism of Matthew Arnold's views of American society, which it published a year ago, and to whom Mr. Arnold is an object of special and national dislike. It allowed him some days ago to publish another very brutal attack on Mr. Arnold, which charged him with having made an engagement with Mr. D'Oyly Carte, rather than with any lecture bureaus of this country; with having followed his manager (Mr. Carte's) advice as to the subject of his lectures; with having come to this country simply to make money by exhibiting himself, and without having made any proper preparation of what he is going to say — hinting that the lecture on "Numbers" was written on the way out, and that Mr. Arnold had "managed" to write a new introduction to his lecture on "Science and Literature" since his arrival, and was now at work on a lecture of Emerson. The object of this sloppy malignity was, of course, to present Mr. Arnold to the American public in a light of a mercenary adventurer, exhibiting his contempt for his audiences by offering them hastily and carelessly produced wares. It now appears, as a matter of fact, that all these charges are false; that Mr. Arnold's lecturing is under the charge of the Redpath Lyceum Bureau; that in the arrangement between Mr. Carte and Mr. Arnold everything connected with the subjects of the lectures, and their number, is left to the discretion of Mr. Arnold; that the lecture on "Numbers" and that on "Science and Literature," were finished and in type before Mr. Arnold left England, and that the lecture on Emerson was completed some time ago.

O'Donnell's trial for the murder of Carey, the informer, begins next week, and the arrangements for getting him clear of the capital charge are said to be very good. A large amount, more, it is said, than is necessary, has been raised for the defence, among the Irish here and at home—a fact which is the most curious part of the whole affair. If O'Donnell did not kill Carey wilfully, or knowing him to be Carey, it is difficult to see why he should be an object of interest to the Irish people, any more than any other man who commits manslaughter in a quarrel on shipboard, or why a national or racial subscription should be raised for his defence. If, however, he did kill Carey wilfully, knowing him to be Carey, he is guilty of the offence with which he is charged. In fact, it is the belief that he is guilty that makes him so interesting; so that the defence is a very muddled affair. A similar muddle appears in the case of the families of the Phœnix Park murderers. Large sums have been raised for the families of those who pleaded not guilty, and it is said they are now living in greater comfort than ever before, but nothing has been done for the families of those who pleaded guilty, although they were just as good murderers as the others. This seems rather hard. It is the murder which gave all of them their claim to popular gratitude, and to punish the families of some because they acknowledged the exploit, seems the height of irrationality. Surely, on any sound principle of distributing honors or rewards, the memory of a murderer who confesses, is to be held in greater reverence than that of a murderer who is ashamed of his work, and tries to hide it.

The German Crown Prince is going to Spain to return the King's visit to Berlin, and it is reported that the French Radicals are busily making arrangements to have him insulted in Madrid and elsewhere by the Spanish Republicans, or else to get up an *émeute* of some kind, so as to show that the Spaniards can be as ill-behaved as the French, and that the cordial feeling between Germany and Spain is in reality only a court affair. They are not unlikely to succeed in bringing about something unpleasant, but the Crown Prince will take it probably much more phlegmatically than Alfonso took his insults in Paris. The worst feature in the affair now probably is the continued cultivation by the French of small spitefulness toward the Germans as a mode of expressing national hostility. Germans are again exposed to insult or violence in the streets, and have to be very unobtrusive to escape unpleasantness.

TRADE-UNION MORALITY.

THE experience of the working of the Trade Unions through which the *Evening Post* is just now passing has considerable public interest, because it furnishes, we fear, a striking illustration of the thoroughly anti-social principles on which many of these organizations are managed. Against trade unions as means of enabling labor to measure its strength fairly with capital, and protect itself against capital in case of difference of opinion either about wages or methods, we should be the last to say a word. We have always held that to talk of the laborer as a free agent in his negotiations with the capitalist, unless he had a labor organization at his back, was a mockery. In all contests between labor and capital the capitalist can bide his time; the laborer, unless in combination with other laborers, cannot do so. So that we consider the existence of well-managed trade unions as really a good sign of the times, as regards the future of the working classes. But in saying all this we assume that the management of them will be sober, rational, and business-like, that is, will respect the rules of morality which constitute the social bond in a civilized industrial community. In other words, we assume that the conscience of the best members of the Union will be the conscience of the Union itself, and that the members will not cause or permit to be done, by the organization, things which they, as individuals, would shrink from, or be ashamed of, and which, if done by men in general in the ordinary transactions of life, would reduce us to barbarism.

Now, as an illustration of our meaning, let us tell the story of our own dealings with a Trade Union during the past week, and we commend it to the attention of everybody, in whatever walk of life, who is interested in the solution of what is called the labor problem. The compositors of the *Evening Post* have been for many years a picked body of men. Some of them have been in its employment more than twenty years; one or two retired lately who had served it for a still longer period. When the *Nation* was consolidated with it, it carried to it some compositors who were not only picked men, but who would stand high in any body of carefully picked men. The whole company was one with whom, in short, it was a pleasure to deal, owing to the skill, intelligence, fidelity, and self-respect of its members, and there was every reason for believing that they were well satisfied with their position. Within a few weeks they asked for an advance of wages. The managers of the paper denied that this demand was, in the present state of the market, justifiable. The discussion which followed was everything that could be desired. It was both friendly and temperate in tone, and was conducted, on behalf of the compositors, by a committee who would be a credit to any deliberative body. When, finally, the point of irreconcilable difference of opinion was reached, the controversy was brought to an end with expressions of mutual respect and good will. A strike, the compositors said, would take place, but the managers of the paper would have seasonable notice of it, and it would be simply a friendly trial of strength.

At this point, the strikers apparently lost the control of the conflict and it passed into the hands of the Union. Now, observe what followed. The compositors did not give the employers the notice which they had promised, and which every honorable man, standing by himself, feels bound to give of any act of his which will disappoint the reasonable expectations of a fellow-man, or is likely to cause him loss or trouble, and which every employer, who is not utterly heartless and unscrupulous, feels bound to give to any one who has served him long, and has been guilty of no misconduct. On the contrary, they came to the office on Friday morning as usual, apparently prepared to do the work of the day. At half-past eight, when but four hours remained for the printing of the paper, they marched out of the composing-room without a word of warning—the best of them, as well as the worst. This hour was, of course, chosen in the expectation that the proprietors would be so much shaken by the prospect of having to suspend publication for that day that they would at once surrender without further struggle. The conduct of the operations was now in the hands of the chief of the Union—a lawyer, we believe, and not a printer at all—and his first trick had failed. The *Evening Post* strikers had vanished, and a new variety of labor-champions appeared on the scene as the agents of the Union. The *Evening Post* advertised for fresh hands, and a number appeared on Saturday and were employed. But, along with them, these agents of the Union worked their way in, on false pretences, and proceeded not only to discourage or seduce the new comers, but to intimidate them by threats of violence when they left the building in the evening. They, moreover, wasted the morning hour by sham composition, by making "pi" of the type, and creating disorder in the office. Some of them had to be expelled; others went of their own accord, but not before they had accomplished their object by seriously hindering the work of producing the paper.

On Monday the same tactics on a greater scale were resorted to. Knowing that there would probably be a large number of bona-fide applications for employment in answer to our advertisements, a band of Unionists appeared at an early hour and literally lied their way into the composing-room. They were asked many questions by way of testing their good faith, and every answer was an unblushing falsehood. By taking possession of the cases and making a display of sham diligence, they caused other applicants to be sent away. In two hours, when the morning was well advanced, on receiving a signal from a confederate who had likewise lied his way in, fourteen of them pocketed, or, strictly speaking, stole their composing-sticks and left the office, feeling sure, doubtless, that their fraud had made the issue of the paper that day impossible. In the meantime, a picket stationed on the sidewalk passed the day intimidating or trying to cajole all persons whom they saw approaching the office in search of employment, thus calling for constant watchfulness on the part of the police. We have no space for the repulsive task of describing the other devices by which they have sought to bring the *Evening Post* to terms. Suffice it to say that they were those with which the burglar or sneak-thief pursues his calling. In other words, the friendly trial of strength in the market with respectable, intelligent, and self-respecting men, which we were promised, had resolved itself into a series of tricks usually resorted to only by criminals, and for the perpetration of which a class of men was chosen by this highly skilled and unusually well educated trade, but little superior, apparently, to the roughs who make the strikes of long-shoremen or hod-carriers often so dangerous to public peace.

We have been assured that the decent men who left the service of the *Evening Post* are not responsible for these things, and are ashamed of them. Ashamed of them they may well be, but responsible for them they certainly are. Any one who voluntarily surrenders his liberty to a man or organization, and permits such man or organization to control his conduct in the ordinary business of life, is answerable, in the forum of morals, at all events, for the use his master makes of his power. The disgrace of it and guilt of it are his, as well as the master's. No majority vote can save him, or whitewash him. And workingmen may rest assured that as long as the methods of Trade Unions are criminal and anti-social they will not permanently or considerably improve their condition. These methods may now and then extort a temporary and small rise in wages, but more than this they cannot do. They cannot raise the laborer in the social scale. There is, in this world, no future for either force or fraud. If they had nothing else to fight against, they would be foiled by the social instinct of the race, which, in the long run and on the whole, reserves the good things of this life for those who tell the truth, respect their contracts, and do as they would be done by.

PARTY PROSPECTS FOR 1884.

UNLESS there is a great change of some sort during the next six months the two great parties of the country will enter upon the next presidential contest with very evenly balanced chances of success. The elections of this year, as we have had occasion to say, resulted in giving neither party any decided advantage for next year. This fact is made clearly apparent by an examination of the States in reference to their votes in the Electoral College. Under the new apportionment there will be 401 electoral votes in 1884, against 369 in 1880, and 201 will be necessary for an election. If the States were to vote next year as they did in 1880 the Republican candidate would receive 228 votes and the Democratic 173. But it is extremely doubtful if they will vote in that way. The total of 228 includes the votes of New York, Indiana and Connecticut, all of which have been carried by the Democrats since 1880, and all of which are doubtful States in every election. Indiana is more likely to go Democratic in a presidential election than Republican, and New York is as likely to go

one way as the other. Taking out the 57 electoral votes of these three States, the "sure" Republican States remaining have an aggregate of 171 votes. The Democrats, on the other hand can reckon surely upon the solid South with 153 votes, and upon New Jersey with nine, giving them as a starting force 162 votes. The division of "sure" States will stand as follows:

Republican.	*Votes.*	*Democratic.*	*Votes.*
Colorado	3	Alabama	10
Illinois	22	Arkansas	7
Iowa	13	Delaware	3
Kansas	9	Florida	4
Maine	6	Georgia	12
Massachusetts	14	Kentucky	13
Michigan	13	Louisiana	8
Minnesota	7	Maryland	8
Nebraska	5	Mississippi	9
New Hampshire	4	Missouri	16
Ohio	23	New Jersey	9
Oregon	3	North Carolina	11
Pennsylvania	30	South Carolina	9
Rhode Island	4	Tennessee	12
Vermont	4	Texas	13
Wisconsin	11	Virginia	12
		West Virginia	6
Total	171	Total	162

This leaves the Republicans 30 votes short of a majority and the Democrats 39 votes short, with the following doubtful States to fight for:

California	8	Nevada	3
Connecticut	6	New York	36
Indiana	15		
		Total	68

The important part which New York's 36 votes will play in the problem is brought out clearly by this showing. With New York the Republicans can elect their candidate and have six votes to spare. Without New York they must carry Indiana, Connecticut, California and Nevada or be defeated. The Democrats can win by carrying New York and Nevada, or New York and any one of the other doubtful States; but all the doubtful States except New York combined would leave them seven votes short of a majority. Indiana and California are more likely to go Democratic than Republican, while Connecticut and Nevada are more likely to go Republican than Democratic. The chief object of both parties will therefore be to carry New York, as the candidate who loses it will stand extremely small chance of election.

There are many obvious advantages in having this State as the deciding factor in a Presidential election. Its voters are more intelligent and fearless in their independence than those of any other State, and can be trusted more implicitly to decide a national contest on its merits than those of any other. Neither party, as we have repeatedly pointed out, can hope to carry New York unless it has a candidate and represents principles which will command the support of the independent voters. The knowledge of this fact will have an important influence upon the deliberations of both national conventions, and make them more careful in their work than they would otherwise be. Mahone's overthrow has had one good effect, at least, in removing all possibility of a contest in any Southern State next year. Nobody wants to see another Presidential election end in that way; and few of us care to see a "money campaign" in Indiana made the turning point again.

With New York as the battle-ground there would be a chance for a rational campaign in which important public questions would be discussed in a sane way. It would not need to be a campaign of money. The recent election demonstrated that money is of little real influence here. For the first time in many years no assessments were made, and only a small fund, raised by voluntary contributions, was expended. The old "workers" were very sarcastic before election about the feeble contributions, and spoke contemptuously of the "gilt-edged reformers," who were unwilling the office-holders should pay anything, and equally unwilling to pay anything themselves. Since the election, nothing of this kind has been heard. The politicians themselves have discovered that a good cause is a far more powerful influence than a big campaign fund.

STOCKHOLDERS' RIGHTS IN "CAPTURED" RAILROADS.

THE New Hampshire Supreme Court recently decided a case (Pearson v. Concord Railroad Company) of much interest to railroad directors and stockholders, and nowhere of more interest (in connection with the pending Elevated Railroad litigation) than in this city. The facts of the case, stated very briefly, were that the directors of two railroads connecting with the Concord Railroad Company purchased a majority of the stock of the latter, and made themselves directors of it, for the purpose of making contracts with the Concord company more favorable to their companies than existing contracts. They accomplished this object. There was not actual fraud in the transaction, but it was an instance of what was no doubt regarded among railroad men as a fair and lawful capture of the Concord road by roads which needed it as an outlet for the business of their own roads. However, it was effected in a very obvious way through the purchase of several thousand shares of Concord stock, at a price far in excess of its market value. By this means the directors of the connecting roads obtained control, and then made themselves directors of the Concord road, and made with themselves very favorable terms as to through-business. A stockholder of the Concord company, who had not sold out his interest, and who was not satisfied with this operation, brought a suit in equity against all the corporations and parties concerned, to have these contracts declared null and void. The court of last resort has now decided that this must be done, and, more than this, has applied a remedy which, if not novel in principle, is new and important in its relation to the protection of the minority stockholders of "captured" roads.

The judges held first, as has so often been held before, that the directors were trustees or agents for the whole body of the Concord stockholders; then, that as such they were wholly incapacitated from making contracts with themselves; that it made no difference whether such contracts were fair or unfair, fraudulent or *bona fide*, beneficial to the corporation or the reverse; that being in a position in which their duty to others and their interest had a tendency to conflict, they were absolutely debarred and incapacitated from acting. Other courts, they admitted, had reached a different conclusion. Some had permitted inquiry to be made into the good faith of such transactions; but the best authorities had laid down the simple principles as stated by the Court of Appeals of this State (Duncomb v. R. R. Co., 814, N. Y. 190.) The rule is founded in the known weakness of human nature, and the peril of permitting any sort of collision between the personal interests of the individual and his duties as trustee in his fiduciary character, or, as expressed by the Supreme Court of the United States, in a recent decision: "The two positions impose different obligations, and their union would at once raise a conflict between interest and duty, and, constituted as humanity is, in the majority of cases duty would be overborne in the struggle" (Crandle v. R. R. Co., 103, U. S., 651.)

The Court declares that the relation of the two connecting roads with the "captured" company was practically that of buyer and seller. They wanted to purchase of the Concord company the transportation of freight and passengers over that road. The latter wanted to sell the transportation over its own line of the traffic of the Connecticut roads. It was for the interest of those to procure the lowest rates, "and their directors were bound to use the knowledge they had derived from the confidence reposed in them as directors to attain that result, and the intent of the Concord road was to procure the highest rates, and its directors were bound to use their special knowledge for the advantage of that road. Their interests being conflicting, it was impossible for common directors to procure the lowest rates for one party and highest rates for the other."

In other words, the directors had placed themselves in a position in which they could not make transportation contracts between these companies. For the performance of their other duties as directors they were not incapacitated, but in this respect they were legally and morally paralyzed. The Court, therefore, announced that to protect the stockholders of the captured road, they could appoint a trustee to manage all those affairs of the Concord road which the directors had made themselves legally incapable of managing.

The capture of connecting roads by the purchase of the majority of their stock, for the purpose of benefiting concerns in which the purchasers have an interest, is a process known in other parts of the country besides New Hampshire. The process is said to be sometimes made cheaper by device of a "bear" movement leading up to the purchase. Indeed, the New Hampshire case presents what many railroad men would regard as rather an antiquated and expensive form of capture. Going into the market to buy up stock forces it up, when the very object of capture is to gain the control with the least possible expenditure. If the road can be first embarrassed by legal proceedings, causing a depression in the stock, it will be possible to get the control for less than it is worth, and, by afterwards calling the lawyers off, to restore to its original value the property thus acquired, the purchaser thus enjoying the whole

benefit of the purchase, instead of the seller, as in the New Hampshire way, by putting himself by means of his fraud into a position in which he can perpetrate as many more as he likes, through contracts with himself.

But not, it appears, with entire impunity. There is a redress for the defrauded stockholder, even against capture by such means. The New Hampshire case shows the only way in which he can be efficiently protected. Any enquiry into the good faith of such transactions would be interminable; it would amount in many cases to an inquiry into the whole business of managing the roads—an inquiry for which courts of justice are ill fitted. It is to meet a difficulty very like this that in England a statute has been passed declaring that no person interested in any contract with a corporation shall be capable of being a director in it; in all such cases, the office, by virtue of the statute, becomes vacant. The New Hampshire case, and the numerous authorities on which it rests, show that, without any statute at all, our courts have it still in their power to protect the rights of stockholders in captured, "merged," or "gobbled" roads.

THE "INVASION OF ULSTER."

DUBLIN, November 3, 1883.

WHEN, on the suppression of the Land League two years ago, there was stone-throwing in Dublin, and the streets were cleared by the police and military in a rather summary fashion, with little regard to the liberty and convenience of citizens, a cynical member of the Irish Parliamentary party remarked to me that he supposed the Government now thought it was their turn to break the law. So it is perhaps at present with the Orangemen. The Land League, for many years, and of late the National League, having carried all before them in the South and Centre of Ireland, the Orangemen may consider it is only fair they should have their turn. Sir Stafford Northcote's visit led them to take heart of grace, as a schoolboy does when he is visited by a rich relation. Then came a host of letters and pronouncements against the continued "invasion of Ulster," issued by gentlemen of position and standing in the North. Lord Rossmore declares that but for his exertions a Nationalist meeting at Rosslea "would have been carried at a run, in spite of the presence of the military and police, and the consequence would have been simply frightful." He asks "how long the Government will allow this terrible state of things to continue." He calls upon Englishmen "to put a stop to a state of affairs which is a scandal to a civilized country," and says, "I have now cleared my own conscience in the matter, and the onus of what is certain to occur—unless immediate steps be taken to obviate it—must fall upon the shoulders of those who are responsible for the peace of the country." Mr. Cavendish Butler, a Deputy Lieutenant and Magistrate, asks:

"Why are our loyal Protestants to be insulted by the authorities allowing them [National League meetings] to be held in the county of Fermanagh? The Protestant Orangemen of the North have proved themselves to be a long-suffering people; but there is a limit to all things, and it will be well if our present rulers take warning in time, and by a wise and determined interposition of authority, put a stop to gatherings that can only end in strife and possible bloodshed."

Mr. Murray Kerr, Lord Crichton, and others follow suit, crowding the columns of the *Daily Express*, the great organ of Irish landlordism and Irish Protestantism, and those of other Protestant papers through Ireland. The *Express*, commenting upon an Orange manifesto, writes:

"Let them call it a threat if they choose. There it is to be read and pondered. It is no time to quibble about words. The meaning is clear, and the men to whom it is addressed do not shrink from the avowal of their fixed determination. They plainly tell the disturbers of the peace who trade upon the credulity of the populace, and fill their pockets with the profits of a disreputable calling, that their patience is exhausted, and that they are determined to take effectual measures to put a stop to every attempt to disseminate pernicious doctrines in their midst, and to bring confusion, turmoil, and crime into their peaceful, industrious, and law-abiding province. . . . It is for the Government to say whether they will allow the North to drift rapidly into civil war, as it seems likely to do if the disturbers of its peace, the emissaries of the National League, be allowed to pursue their reckless course."

This attitude has been approved by the Recorder of Dublin, one of our judges who might any day be called upon to hold the scales of justice in a cause arising from a dispute between Orange and Green. In the Protestant Synod he spoke with approval of "the stalworth young men of the North of Ireland who recently attempted to resist the invasion of Ulster in Monaghan and elsewhere."

The meaning of all this is that no more meetings of the National League are to be permitted in Ulster. If the Government will not proclaim and disperse them, the Orangemen will. Accordingly, when a meeting is announced, proclamations are issued, and the telegrams of Orange leaders arranging for the concentration at the same place of bodies of their followers read like the despatches between chiefs of army corps in war time. A National League meeting was arranged the other day at Garrison, a purely Catholic district, whereupon a placard appears addressed to "the Loyalists of Fermanagh," headed "1688-90"—the dates between which Ireland was reconquered by William III. and the Catholics practically enslaved for a century:

"The place selected for the preaching of their seditious doctrines is Garrison, one of the most out-of-the-way places in your county. Assemble in your thousands, and show these teachers of murder, assassination, and outrage that no distance will prevent your personally protesting against such a policy. . . . Let your actions at Garrison be placed on the same roll of fame as those of your forefathers at Bundrouse and Belleek [where the Catholics were defeated in the war of 1688-90.]"

This Garrison meeting was wisely abandoned by the Catholics of the district.

"A leading Orangeman of Fermanagh" regrets that a meeting at which he and his adherents appeared was permitted to proceed:

"Several of our men were seen to steal down and sound the river between them and the Nationalists with their sticks. On the return we passed within a quarter of a mile and in full view of the rebels. Several men rushed back to me and begged leave to charge them, disperse the meeting, and seize the arch and platform . . . The one all-absorbing and overmastering idea was to disperse the Nationalist meeting. Nothing else seemed worthy of a thought. The one regret is that it was not done."

Some months ago it was arranged that the Lord Mayor of Dublin (Mr. Dawson)—a by no means violent Nationalist, who has uniformly opened his banquets with the Queen's health to the tune of "God save the Queen"—should last Thursday deliver a lecture on the "Irish Franchise" in Londonderry. The Town Hall had been granted for the occasion by the Corporation. Under the influence of the prevailing excitement, an opposition gathering of Orangemen led by Lord Ernest Hamilton, son of the Duke of Abercorn, late Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, met the same day upon the walls of Londonderry. The corporation was hastily summoned, the resolution to grant the Town Hall rescinded, and the building thereupon occupied by an armed body with banners flying, sworn at any cost to "prevent the National League entering the North through the gates of Derry." Mr. Dawson, had accordingly, to deliver his lecture in a society room. There was considerable rioting, and several persons were wounded.

The "invasion" theory is a strange one. There are nine Catholics to every ten Protestants, in Ulster. The Protestant majority is centred in four counties—Antrim, Armagh, Down, and Londonderry—where they are as two to one. In the other five Ulster counties the Catholics are more than two to one. In the remaining twenty-three counties of Ireland together they are thirty to one. Whenever a National League demonstration has been held it has been composed of the inhabitants of the district. The "invasion" has consisted of two or three Parnellite M. P.'s from Dublin or across from London. To summon opposition meetings at the same place and hour, to bring together such inflammable materials, is strange conduct on the part of men who rave about civil and religious liberty—many of them deputy-lieutenants and magistrates who profess a reverence for law and order, and a desire to preserve the peace. Their language is certainly more inflammatory and seditious than much which has within the past year sent men to pick oakum and empty slop cans, in prison dress, in company with pickpockets. It would, however, be too much to expect the Irish Government to mete out the same justice or injustice to both parties. The Lord-Lieutenant and judges, the county inspectors and crown officials, have probably often dined at the same table as these Orange leaders; they attend the same churches, and read the same newspapers; while no treatment of the Nationalists—down to hanging and quartering without judge or jury—would meet with aught but approval in the daily atmosphere which they breathe, 'at least in Ireland,' the tone of which influences all but the strongest minds, and which has the power of making our lives pleasant, or the contrary. It may be said for the Government that it is more difficult to oppose men pursuing unjust courses under loyal and constitutional banners and watchwords, than to sustain those who seek constitutional changes too often in an unwise and refractory manner. The Orangemen are striving to uphold an old system of hateful ascendancy and injustice, under the guise of legality, while the Nationalists are seeking common rights and common opportunities for advancement. But none more than the Nationalists themselves help to confuse the issue. Too often do they give occasion for the charge of the *Express* that they are "foul-mouthed spouters." What did a National M. P. mean when he said the other day, at a National gathering in the North, that such meetings were "the beginning of the reconquest of the North by the Irish people and by Irish principles"?—or another, who is reported to have declared that "when Home Rule for Ireland was carried they [the Orangemen of the North] would submit as a lot of slaves"? Perhaps the speaker no more really intends the subjection of Orangemen than the Orangemen who cheer for "Bundrouse and Belleek" intend the re-enactment of the Penal laws.

It is difficult to withhold a certain admiration for the pluckiness of the Orangemen. If the Nationalists had their determination and spirit

they would long ago have won all they claim. We can never forget how, some years ago, a speaker at an Orange meeting ostentatiously tore in pieces an obnoxious Act of Parliament against party processions, how the Act after that remained a dead letter and was shortly repealed, and the gentleman himself was appointed to a lucrative post under Government.

Much of this dissension in Ireland is due to the fact that, since the arrangement of 1800, both parties have been obliged to seek their strongest allies in external force, opinion, or prejudice, and that they are never forced together in that personal consultation from which arise toleration, concession, and mutual respect. Where is now the Protestant spirit in Ireland which caused the Protestant Volunteers at Dungannon, in Ulster, in 1782, to declare, "that as men and as Irishmen, as Christians and as Protestants, we rejoice in the relaxation of the Penal laws," or which led the Irish Protestant Parliament ten years later to enfranchise their Catholic fellow-countrymen? The present state of things is disheartening. There is, however, encouragement in the entire abandonment of late, by the Orangemen, of any profession of opposition to or hatred of the religious tenets of their opponents. Only those who recollect their former spirit in this respect can measure the advance. Further progress in toleration is certain.

The abuse so freely exchanged between Nationalists and Orangemen is a matter of passing moment, and will soon be forgotten. Irish Nationalists must show by their language and policy that the best of their adherents represent the public opinion of Ireland, when they declare their desire for Home Rule to be based upon a conviction that it would be beneficial to Protestant and Catholic alike, to land-owner and tenant; and that it would strengthen rather than weaken the Empire. D. B.

Correspondence.

THE SENIOR SOCIETIES AT YALE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The "Senior Society" evil at Yale may not be a question of general interest, but it is a question of vital interest to every lover of Yale, in which category are a great many of the readers of the *Nation*. I ask for space, therefore, as a graduate, to supplement and reinforce a recent undergraduate's communication appearing in your columns.

That the Senior Society system, as at present existing at Yale, is an evil, is scarcely denied by any one. Even those who have become members have often said as much in the time intervening between their election and initiation. The specific evils mentioned by your correspondent are well authenticated, and they are of such a nature as to threaten the future usefulness and retard the growth of this great college. Many graduates will testify that Yale is constantly deprived of donations from this cause alone. One case within the writer's personal knowledge is that of a comparatively recent graduate, who, in making his will, gave his property to Amherst, rather than give it to Yale, with this system in existence in the latter college.

If, in a class of 180, the affections of 150 are thus more or less estranged from their Alma Mater, it is obvious that unless in future years the thirty Senior Society men have more wealth than, perhaps, by the training of the societies they are likely to have, (and even then, unless they are very benevolent,) the material interests of the college are likely to suffer. Why is it to-day that Yale cries in vain for a gymnasium and dormitories? Perhaps it is because non-society graduates *won't*, and society graduates *can't*, foot the bills.

It may be said that the above is evidence of a mean and sour spirit. Ethically that may be so, but it is believed that it is only in this way that those in authority can be driven to a sense of the necessity of some reform which shall again reunite the scattered graduates of Yale into a band of men, full of college patriotism, devotion and enthusiasm. What wonder that the proverbial enthusiasm of the Yale undergradua te becomes converted into the indifference of the Yale graduate, when, from the time of elections in senior year, the class is divided into two factions, of which the non-society men, like the Butler party in Massachusetts, are said to represent the scum and leavings (with here and there an exception)? Nor is his enthusiasm for the college increased when, on his return to class reunions, he feels a certain something in the air that tells him he is out of place. The Senior Society graduate returns again and again to the college, and at the stated society reunions (such for instance as the "mid-winter bum") meets and fraternizes with distinguished society graduates and professors, and drinks to the greatness of Yale, while the non-society graduate, if he returns once, declares that he never will again. He feels out of place and glad to get away from his old college haunts! The above is doubtless an extreme case, but it represents in excess a feeling that exists in a less degree in a majority of Yale non-society graduates.

As suggested by your correspondent, the Yale Alumni can do much to reform the evil. So can the Faculty and the Corporation. But it seems to me that whatever is done, the initiative should come from the societies themselves; and I doubt not that many of the members of these societies are ready to do all they can to bring about a change in the existing state of affairs. It does not seem best or practicable to abolish these societies. Secret societies of some sort are a necessary and perhaps a desirable feature of our American college life. Let the societies increase their size at the same time that they increase the size of their buildings. Let them elect their members on grounds of good fellowship, and so form clubs, and not mongrel collections embracing in one body the wealthiest man, the most religious man, the best athlete, the best scholar, the most popular man in the class, &c., &c. Let them do away with their senseless mummeries and parade of secrecy, even if they have to go in swimming without a "Bones" pin in their mouths, or retire to rest without a "Skull and Key" pin fastened to their nightgowns; or even if they should lose opportunities of insulting ladies who speak to them about these societies. They would find that in the eyes of most people their manliness would not have suffered much by the metamorphosis. Let them try not to emphasize their superiority by word or deed. Very many are careful in this respect; and perhaps the wearing of these pins conspicuously is pardonable, though to see graduates 35 or 40 years old wearing them is discouraging, unless perhaps they are necessary as "passports into our best society." Let these or any new societies be less exclusive and less grasping, more open, liberal and fraternal. The societies themselves must move, and until they do so, we shall all note, with regret, the "conservatism" of Yale.

Graduate.

Notes.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will issue next month a three-volume edition of the "Letters and Poems of John Keats"; the poems occupying two volumes. The editor is a grand-nephew of the poet, John Gilmer Speed, who is able to furnish hitherto unpublished letters to Keats's brother George, a resident of the United States. Mr. Speed contributes also an introduction. The text of the poems is Lord Houghton's, and his notes have been retained. A novelty will be the reproduction by Bien, in color, of oil portraits by Severn of the three brothers Keats; and there will be several other illustrations. The edition will be printed from type, and limited.

Cupples, Upham & Co, Boston, will issue this month a Memoir of the Rev. Charles Lowe, by his wife, Mrs. Martha Perry Lowe.

'The World's Christmas Hymn,' by Wm. Hayes Ward and Susan Hayes Ward—described as "a chain of ancient and modern verses. . . deftly linked together"—will be published immediately, with twelve artotype illustrations, by A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

A very ornate edition of the New Testament —"Longman's," as it is called—bears for the American market the imprint of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It is printed in brown ink, and its peculiarity, in other respects, consists in the free use of marginal and other decorations, and especially in the copies on wood of designs by a great number of old masters, representing scenes in the four gospels. These are all duly indexed, and offer some very interesting comparisons. The mechanical execution of the whole work is admirable.

Messrs. Scribner have published a popular edition of Mr. Cable's 'Grandissimes' in which we are gratified to find that the revision of the dialect has not gone so far as we had feared from the announcement.

A new edition of the 'Classified and Descriptive Directory to the Charitable and Beneficent Societies and Institutions of the City of New York' (Putnams) contains some six pages of additions, changes, and corrections to September last.

The same publishers venture a second extract from the 'New Guide to the Conversation'—'English as She is Spoken: Her Seconds Part,'—with an introduction by James Millington. But the plan of reproduction entire seems much the best for a joke whose effectiveness depends so largely upon its *size*.

The third volume of the revised edition of Bancroft's 'History of the United States' has appeared in due time (D. Appleton & Co.), coming down to "The Crisis," May, 1774. This volume contains some of Mr. Bancroft's best work, in showing the workings of the English colonial system as one of the principal causes of the Revolution, and tracing the history of the successive British administrations in their relation to the colonies. This volume has, probably, a more distinct unity and character of its own than any of the others. Except for the Writs of Assistance, which came in the previous volume, it contains the entire series of English acts which led to the Revolution; and the successive phases of the controversy are so fully illustrated by extracts from speeches and other documents, that it is possible to follow the history of the argument very satisfactorily. We are sorry that Mr. Bancroft has dropped even the few references which the first edition contained. In some cases the reader is really in justice entitled to

one. For example, at the end of Chap. xv. (p. 197) it is said that James Otis, in 1766, "enforced, in a pamphlet printed in London, a scheme for a general Parliament, in which every part of the British dominions should be equitably represented." In the earlier editions this pamphlet is not attributed to James Otis, but to "the press of London." The reader — whose memory perhaps may be weak—would be glad to know what is the evidence which assigns this pamphlet to Otis.

The complacency of the editor and publisher of the 'Real-Encyclopädie,' in sanctioning the proceedings of the compilers of 'Schaff's Religious Encyclopædia' in the reproduction of its articles, is not, judging from an article in the *Theologische Litteraturzeitung*, relished by some, at least, of the 'Real-Encyclopädie's' collaborators. Prof. Harnack there denounces the American work as an offensive specimen of American enterprise, saying that, in the cutting down and revision, the treatises have lost their essential characteristics, and declares his unwillingness to subscribe to the statements for which he is there made to appear as authority.

The Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at the Montreal meeting in August, 1882, are distributed in two paper-covered parts of about 300 pages each. This bulkiness might have been considerably reduced by omitting abstracts as worthless as that on the "Future of the Balloon" (p. 318), which does not contain a single idea. Mr. Horace C. Hovey's paper on "Subterranean Map-making" (p. 345) is accompanied by a tolerably accurate plotting of the Wyandot Cave, a still better one of the Luray Cavern, and a partial but trustworthy one of the Mammoth Cave.

A conspectus of Luther portraits is given in the December number of Cassell's *Magazine of Art*.

The Catalogue of Amherst College for 1883-1884 contains the names of thirty-one members of the Faculty, of whom seventeen are professors, four associate professors, and ten instructors. A noteworthy change has been the appointment by the trustees of Mr. William I. Fletcher, well known from his labors in connection with Poole's Index, and late of the Watkinson Library of Hartford, as librarian to the College. A smaller number of students appear in the catalogue this year: eighty-one seniors, eighty-six juniors, eighty-three sophomores, and seventy-one freshmen—a total of 321. The course of instruction is substantially unchanged. The "administrative rules" contain the kernel of the "new system," and state the conditions of grade which have been adopted in the award of diplomas at graduation. The recent action of the Faculty in regard to the recommendation of college graduates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, specifies a two years' course of study in two subjects of science or literature, or one subject of each, under the direction and to the approval of the professors in the appropriate departments; likewise a satisfactory examination upon those subjects, and a thesis upon one of them, together with the customary diploma and tuition-fees. The holiday intermission is of three weeks' duration, beginning December 18.

Those who desire to know the characteristics of the German civil service will find much help in the recently published first part of Professor Georg Meyer's 'Lehrbuch des deutschen Verwaltungsrechtes.' Ever since the appearance of this author's 'Lehrbuch des deutschen Staatsrechts' he has been regarded as an authority of the first importance. The portion just published deals with general theories, and with administrative law in the individual states of Germany. The part still to be completed will have to do with the administrative methods of the Empire. The author's point of view is purely objective. He insists upon an absolute exclusion of all political considerations from the methods of administration. Attention is called to the fact that, ever since the time of Stein, political sympathies have had more or less weight in determining purely administrative questions; but, in the author's opinion, the time has come to insist that local affairs shall be administered with something like what Hegel called "the Godlike indifference of science." We doubt if any thoughtful person can read this volume without an increasing conviction that, whatever is to be thought of German imperialism, in matters of administration Germany is far in advance of all other nations.

The combined publishers' catalogues which make the 'Publishers' Trade List Annual,' have just been bound together for the eleventh time, for 1883 (F. Leypoldt). This portion forms of course the great bulk of the indispensable volume bearing the above title; but 200 pages are devoted to the Weekly Record of New Books, July 1882-3, and its index, and to the Educational Catalogue, recourse to which will often be convenient and useful to the book purchaser as well as dealer. The Record is studded with explanatory notes on the books whose form, size, and cost are so scrupulously set down.

—The biennial session of the Astronomische Gesellschaft was held this year on September 14-16, in the Academy of Sciences, Vienna. German astronomy was represented by Auwers, Foerster, Vogel, and Schoenfeld. Wagner and Hasselberg were present from Russia, Prof. G. Forbes from England, Janssen and Loewy from Paris, Gyldén from Stockholm, Thiele from Copenhagen; and America was represented by Gould, of Cordova, and Pickering, of Cambridge. The President of the Gesellschaft, Doctor Auwers, reported upon the condition of the work upon the zones of stars, showing that the observations at all the observatories in connection therewith might be deemed completed, so that next year the printing of the official catalogue might be entered upon. It also appeared that the preparations for extending this great enterprise as far into the southern heavens as the parallel 23° south of the equator—an object for several years in contemplation—had so far advanced that the scheme might now be considered as secured. Professor Bruhns read a paper on the formulæ of astronomical refractions. Gyldén referred to investigations he had made on the theory of the perturbations of the planets, and to the labors at the Stockholm Observatory toward constructing tables of the planetary motions in accordance with his theory. Professor Weiss presented the first sheets of his new edition of 'The Wonders of the Heavens,' by Littrow, and showed drawings of Jupiter and Saturn made with the great twenty-seven-inch refracting telescope of the Vienna Observatory. He also laid before the meeting photographs of the solar corona taken in full daylight by Doctor Huggins. Doctor Elkin reported parallax determinations of southern stars executed by himself and Gill at the Cape of Good Hope. Pickering called attention to photometric investigations completed at the observatory of Harvard College. Janssen discussed the observations of the solar eclipse of last May, obtained on the Caroline Islands. Foerster gave an account of observations at Berlin, which appeared to prove that the ground pillar of the observatory, on which investigations had hitherto been conducted, had for the last twenty-five years been subjected to angular movements which were connected with the eleven-year period of solar spots. Doctor Gould reported quite similar observations on the sea-coast. Oppolzer alluded to his determination of the length of the seconds pendulum at Vienna. Foli gave an account of his new researches on precession and nutation. Steinheil, of Munich, referred to new constructions of telescopes calculated by him. The next meeting of the Gesellschaft will be held in Geneva in 1885.

—A work of much more than common interest has recently been issued by the Commission appointed to superintend the publications from the State Archives of Prussia. There are certain questions connected with the relations of Prussia and Russia at the time of the treaty of Tilsit that are now for the first time made reasonably clear. Herr Hassel, in his 'Geschichte der preussischen Politik,' 1807-1815, shows that the key to a knowledge of the relations of Alexander and Frederick William lies in the despatches sent from the Czar to the Prussian King by Major von Schöler. These despatches appear never to have been examined either by Häusser or Pertz. Their importance consists in the fact that Schöler went to the Court of the Czar not as the accredited envoy of Prussia, but as the private personal representative of the King. It is easy to understand, therefore, that his letters are of the highest value for the interpretation of the relations of the monarchs between whom he was the confidential messenger. Alexander opened his heart freely to the agent of the unfortunate King, and the letters of Schöler clear up many questions that have hitherto been involved in complete obscurity. Of still greater importance, perhaps, is the new light that Hassel throws upon the circumstances attending the dismissal of Stein. The papers of Count Götzen, many of them written in cipher, and all taken to Silesia in 1808, are found, with the help of a newly-discovered key, to contain important writings by Stein himself. With this discovery the present volume of Hassel closes, but not without informing us that many of the previous opinions of the historians are seriously at fault. For example, it is held by Pertz, Seeley, and others that the dismissal of Stein, after the decree of outlawry by Napoleon, was brought about by Goltz. Hassel shows, on the contrary, that Goltz had nothing whatever to do with the matter. The moving spirits are proved to have been Von Altenstein and Nagler; and the motive of these men is pointed out to have been their belief that in the future negotiations with Napoleon it would be essential to have no one in authority who would be personally offensive to the Emperor. Hardenberg was of the same opinion, and it was in consequence of this general belief that Stein was sacrificed. The volume, made up very largely of documents, is edited with the greatest care by one who for many years has devoted himself to a study of the archives.

GREAT BRITAIN AND HER COLONIES.

Bonds of Disunion; or, English Misrule in the Colonies. By C. T. Rowe, M.A., Author of 'Questions of the Day in Victoria.' London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1883.

An involved style and an inability to marshal acts and state conclusions in a striking and attractive manner will, we fear, prevent Mr. Rowe's little book from obtaining the attention which it deserves. It deals with a subject—the relations between Great Britain and her colonies—which the occurrences of the last eight or nine years have ripened to a sudden and unforeseen maturity. Before that time, although Englishmen were willing to admit that, ultimately, the British colonies must become independent communities, the admission contained no sense of

actuality. An Englishman admitted it precisely as he would allow the possibility of the sun burning itself out in some unconjecturable period of time. Not that one Englishman in a thousand knew anything whatever about these colonies or ever intended to learn. The interests of the average Englishman, so far as they extend beyond his own personal concerns, are strictly circumscribed by the island he inhabits. Even of the interior of Ireland he knows little more than of the interior of Timbuctoo. But instead of knowledge he possesses an abundance of faith. He believes *a priori*, and independently of all evidence, that wherever the authority of the British Crown and Parliament is acknowledged, there, by way of natural consequence, a larger amount of justice, order, contentment, progress, and well-being is to be found than could, in the nature of things, exist under any other arrangement. And, although not prepared to resist the demand for independence, supposing such to be made by any particular colony, he would have felt, while conceding it, that the colony was taking a step which it would never cease to regret.

The events of the last few years have greatly disturbed this placid and comfortable state of mind. The wars in Afghanistan, South Africa, and Egypt not only offended the moral sense of a large proportion of the nation, but, even to those who were not so offended, they forced home the fact that a nation which possesses a huge and widely-scattered empire is no longer the master of its own destinies. The peculiarity of these wars was that one and all were sprung upon an unsuspecting nation; in other words, that the policy of the nation, in its most important aspects, those of peace and war, had slipped out of Parliamentary and popular control, and was regulated by secret and irresponsible departments—a Foreign Office, an India Office, a Colonial Office, and the like.

As the secret history of their recent wars has slowly become known to Englishmen, they have discovered that they have been at once the dupes and tools of their own administrative agents. This new-born sense of a menace to their own liberties has constrained them to consider their distant dependencies from a novel standpoint, and it is, perhaps, allowable to look upon Mr. Rowe's 'Bonds of Disunion' as one product of this altered state of the national sentiment. At any rate, the facts which he sets forth and the conclusions he deduces are entirely in accord with it. Mr. Rowe takes the early history of Canada and the Australian colonies, and thus describes the manner in which an irresponsible, unscrupulous, and profoundly incapable Colonial Office actually managed these dependencies:

"The fact was, that the business of the Colonial Office was conducted entirely by permanent clerks responsible to no one. It was quite beyond the power of any Secretary of State for the Colonies to make himself acquainted, even in the most perfunctory way, with the real requirements of the colonies, or to decide satisfactorily upon the conflicting statements and claims brought before him. In his dilemma he sought the aid of his personal staff—men of great 'tact' in dealing with their superiors, and owing their elevation to that desirable social accomplishment, coupled with length of routine service. Frequent changes of government might bring as many changes of Colonial Ministers, . . . but the best of them could do little against the tact and *vis inertiæ* of the permanent clerks under whose dominion they rapidly but surely fell. . . . For these the colonies existed only on paper. They represented nothing more than the opportunity for some gracefully-turned composition, in which the reciprocal duties of Colonial Governors and peoples were pointed out in unexceptionable language, and quite in accordance with the most ancient office forms. The characteristics of this system of 'paper government,' as it was called by Burke, were vacillatory measures varied by tyrannical edicts. Caprice in everything, consistency in nothing, was the rule of conduct in Downing Street. The chief object of the permanent clerk, the ruler of a domain beside whose vastness the Empire of Imperial Rome dwindles down to a provincial empire, was to save himself trouble. If some obscure intriguer at home appeared likely to make himself troublesome in his efforts to procure for himself some exclusive privilege or piece of patronage in the permanent gentleman's territories, it was given to him as a tribute to his skill in bringing backstairs influence to work. But a deaf ear was turned to the colonist who could train no heavier metal to bear than the history of private wrongs or public misadventure, due to the ignorant rule of the Colonial Office.

"But with all his desire to save himself trouble, the permanent gentleman had contracted an inveterately bad habit of writing despatches and instructions the effect of which was, often enough, to deprive Colonial Assemblies of their just functions, and so to irritate them and force them into violent proceedings, such as political impeachments, the stoppage of supplies, and personal attacks on the local representatives of the Crown. But where the permanent gentleman did save himself a world of bother was in his treatment of important colonial bills sent home for the royal assent. On these he bestowed but scant notice, except when impelled by some burst of virtuous indignation to recommend their disallowance. 'The number of colonial laws which have been disallowed . . . would,' says Wakefield, who wrote with an intimate knowledge of the subject, 'form the subject of an incredibly curious return to the House of Commons.' But often enough the permanent official omitted altogether to present the bill for royal assent, as in one very characteristic case, where, through his delay, the royal assent was so long postponed that when the bill was sent out to the colony as an act, the question was raised, whether the assent had been delayed beyond the two years allowed for it by law; whether, having been so delayed, it was valid; and whether all the proceedings already taken under it were not thereby invalidated."

The evidence to substantiate the accuracy of this description Mr. Rowe produces in abundance from the history up to a recent date of Canada and Australia. He points out that the London Colonial Office was almost the one British institution which escaped scot-free from the wide reforming movement which followed upon the passing of the Parliamentary Reform Bill of 1832. Consequently, in this office the ancient traditional methods of governing colonies which had driven the United States into revolt were practised with unabated vigor till within the last forty years. The "permanent gentlemen" learned no wisdom from experience. Their primary proposition was this, that a colony had no *ratio essendi* except the benefit of the mother country. But if this proposition had been allowed to stand alone, it might have been argued that the mother country benefited in proportion to the wealth and greatness of a colony. Consequently it was balanced by another, that a colony must not be allowed to become too rich and powerful, lest it should shake off its dependence upon the mother country. Practically, the working of these two propositions caused the British colonies to be treated by the Home Government as a kind of sink for receiving the refuse population of the mother country. The government was made over to adventurers of all kinds, whose position in society enabled them to exert pressure upon the Colonial Office. The populations were recruited by criminals and paupers, the scum and dregs of the population of the great cities. These were crowded into ships without any regard for decency or health, and subsequently shot out upon the shores of Canada or Australia as so much rubbish with which the home authorities had no further concern. The results of this humane and enlightened conduct are described by Lord Durham in his famous "Report," where he contrasts the scene on the Canadian side of the border with that which could be witnessed upon the American side. This was as late as 1840:

"On the American side all was activity and bustle. The forest had been widely cleared; every year numerous settlements were formed, and thousands of farms were created out of the waste. The country was intersected by roads; canals and railroads were finished, or in the course of formation; the ways of communication and transport were crowded with people and enlivened by numerous carriages and large steamboats. Bridges, artificial landing-places, and commodious wharves were formed on the lake frontages as soon as required. Townships were growing apace, and the stability and magnificence of their buildings might have done credit to populated centres of the Old World. On the British side, with the exception of a few favored spots, where some approach to American prosperity was apparent, all was waste and desolate. There was but one railroad in all British America, and that one was only fifteen miles in length. The ancient city of Montreal could not bear comparison with some of the most recent American cities. The difference was, however, most manifest in the country districts. On the Canadian side was a widely-scattered population, poor and apparently unenterprising, though hardy and industrious, separated from each other by tracts of intervening forest, without towns or markets, almost without roads, living in mean houses, drawing little more than a rude subsistence from ill-cultivated land, and seemingly incapable of improving their condition. In the eastern townships of Lower Canada, upon the border line, it was a common practice for settlers, when they wished to meet, to enter the State of Vermont, and make use of the roads there for the purpose of reaching their destination in the British province."

The story of the early history of New South Wales and Australia is even more dismal to read than that of Canada. Here the sagacity of the London Colonial Office devoted all its energies to the creation of a flourishing colony through the almost exclusive agency of convicts and what Carlyle used to describe as "unmentionable women." The reader who learns for the first time of these projects, equally insane and immoral, is apt to wonder how a single colony still maintains its connection with the mother country—why they did not, one and all, rise in revolt as the American colonies had done before them. Mr. Rowe explains this. The impulse which, primarily, built up the latter colonies was not the desire for worldly gain, but for religious freedom. Hence among the early settlers of this country there always existed a higher morality, a greater amount of public spirit, than was possible in Canada or Australia, recruited as the population there was from the offscourings of the British population. Add the possession of charters which mightily fostered the desire and the capacity for self-government, and the readiness to resist oppression. No such process of education was possible in Australia or in Canada. In the former colony, especially, the entire population consisted of "squatters" holding "runs" of land from the state for the pasturage of their sheep and cattle, and convicts who had been "assigned" to them—in plain English, sold into slavery—to act as laborers upon their estates. In such a community there could be no joint action, no corporate life. As free emigrants, in the course of time, entered in sufficient numbers to reduce the squatter and convict population to numerical insignificance, the stupid despotism of the Colonial Office necessarily came to an end. The colonies obtained representative institutions, and the Governor, appointed from England, remained the solitary political link connecting it with the mother country. This link cannot, in the nature of things, hold for long. Sooner or later there must arise in each of these distant dependencies some burning question, in which the representatives who embody the desires of the people, and the single functionary who represents the London Colonial Office, will find themselves in irreconcilable antagonism, and then a separation will be inevitable. It is natural that Englishmen should look forward reluctant-

ly and with apprehension to the breaking up of an empire the vastest that the world has ever seen. But that dissolution will not come until imperial rule has, so to speak, fulfilled its mission, and Great Britain, as the mother of free nations, will have achieved a far higher glory than as the ruler of unwilling dependencies.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—III.

THE globe has become a squeezed orange for Colonel Knox, and his "Boy Travellers" series ends with a fifth volume, on Central Africa (Harpers). To this region our world-tourist frankly confesses he has never yet gone in person, and that more than heretofore he has had to fall back on the books of the explorers. The route to which he confines his own adventurers is a not impossible one even for boys: it lies up the Nile to the Albert and Victoria Lakes, thence across country to Tabora, and thence, turning their backs on Ujiji and Tanganyika, to the east coast and to Zanzibar. But, as usual, a much larger area of the continent is covered in conversation than by actual journeying, and excuses are made for telling what Schweinfurth saw and what Livingstone and Stanley did, with something about the Niger, the West Coast countries, etc. Pictures, for the most part authentic and pertinent, abound as in the earlier volumes, and Colonel Knox's humor is not visibly restrained by his inability to draw upon his own experience. The little library which he has created with so much painstaking, ranks among the most instructive of the juvenile publications of late years, as among the most entertaining. There is very little art in the composition; the literary style is certainly not a model; the woodcuts have too frequently determined what the text should be, instead of vice-versa; and still the event has shown that the writer had a mission, and that he knew how to recommend himself to the young. He has had a host of imitators, but hardly any rival.

We are really sorry that Mr. Edward Greey gives us in his latest annual, 'The Bear Worshippers of Yezo' (Lee & Shepard), what he tells us is the last of his series illustrative of the Japanese and their empire. We should have welcomed one on Formosa and Riu Kiu (Loo Choo), with which, as a sailor and traveller, he is personally familiar. His work is marked by accuracy in details, and to sympathetic observation he adds the fruit of critical reading of native and foreign authors. Having the eye and fingers of an artist also, he designs his own covers, so that, instead of the hodge-podge of Asiatic elements usually made by ignorant designers, we have in his outsides a study that is pleasing and highly suggestive. He takes us, in the present volume, in company with the American family of Jewetts, into Yezo and Karafuto, or Saghalin. We brush against Ainos, Japanese, Russians, and the various savage tribes on the frontiers of the Czar and Mikado. With pen and pencil the author depicts the bear-hunts, festivals, worship, courtship and social customs, fishing, hunting, and trapping, and makes a story both readable and highly amusing. It *is* interesting to study the Yankee among the seal-hunters, as well as to see the Ainos as the Japanese see them. Mr. Greey's truthfulness is shown in this fact, that his illustrations (copied from Japanese books), rather than his text, agree with Miss Bird's exaggerated description of the alleged hairyness of the Ainos. From our own observations of these straight-eyed and full-bearded people, so different in race from the Japanese, we were led to inquire into the cause of their vast reputation for shagginess. Finding it to have slight foundation in fact—since an average hundred British or American male adults stripped for a bath would show equal or greater bodily hirsuteness—we were led to seek elsewhere for explanation. The Ainos, conquered by the Japanese, who have less hair on their bodies than Europeans, are vulgarly believed by their masters to be descended from dogs, and the sketches and epithets of the Nippon people are responsible for an impression that here serves well a maker of entertaining books. 'The Bear Worshippers of Yezo' is a capital book, which even upon Young America's jaded mental palate will fall with a new zest.

In 'Our Boys in China' (Lee & Shepard) we find another Christmas book for boys, which is one of a series. Mr. Harry W. French, last year, showed us Scott and Paul Clayton in India. We have them this year first shipwrecked in the China Sea, and then busy at work in seeing China from the inside. Perhaps we are yet to see Corea and Japan, or Alaska. 'Our Boys in China' is not, however, a mere book of travels made to utilize a publisher's stock of cuts. It contains a good story, with a beginning, middle, and end. This is a good thing, because the text is not so full of dialogue as Mr. Greey's, nor so spiced with jokes and anecdotes as Mr. Knox's. The illustrations are abundant and intelligently selected, and the clearly given information is conveyed in a lively style without overweighting the story. Even to those who have read many books on China, the one before us is interesting, and it will hold a boy's attention. We may even hope that by means of such literature the legislators of the future may learn something useful to assist them in making laws on Chinese immigration. Since, in this class of books, the cover is of much importance, we must condemn the wretched taste that mixes Japanese elements in a Chinese composition—an error from which the text is wholly free.

There is a singular blending of good and bad in 'The Knockabout Club in the Tropics' (Estes & Lauriat). Some of the many illustrations are well executed, and present characteristic phases of Southern nature and life, while others are merely perfunctory, having no relation to the letter-press, and still others are positively untruthful. Instances of the latter class are "A Native Lady" (p. 205), and "Castle of Chapultepec" (p. 217). Most of the stories woven into the narrative are spirited and well told; but the personal adventures of the "Club" are little noteworthy, and are recounted in a style which is at once coarse and inane. The literary defects of the book, joined with a considerable inaccuracy, do not help the proof the author proposed to give that "our plan of getting an education is the correct one." The Spanish of the work is exactly that barbarous nondescript which the American engineers in Mexico speak, and it is used here with all their easy confidence, as of men who know their linguistic powers, and, knowing, dare exhibit them.

The sayings and doings of 'Three Vassar Girls in England,' by Lizzie W. Champney (Estes & Lauriat), afford the reader but little entertainment. He needs must ask himself the *raison d'être* of so dull a book, and thinks the question partly answered when he discovers that among the profusion of woodcuts are many which are neither new nor good, and do not so much illustrate the story as hang together, so to speak, by means of it. The heroines are represented as charming and highly intelligent girls; but, though they seem well informed and quote much poetry, they have not attained to mastery of correct English; nor is the strong, pronounced type to which they belong consonant with that finer culture and higher breeding which Vassar graduates ought to show and which sensitive criticism demands.

'Speech and Manners' (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.) is an excellent little treatise, appropriately dedicated "to all who wish to teach or learn," and Miss E. S. Kirkland very skilfully sugars the instruction-pill. Many common errors of speech are brought to light and dwelt upon forcibly, and many defects in manners, more especially those which children are apt to show, are clearly pointed out. The necessity of habit in order to speak correctly, and of unselfish consideration for others in order to act courteously, are strongly insisted on. Good suggestions are made with reference to composition and letter-writing. The book is an admirable one for mothers to read aloud to their children.

We are glad that Alice Cary's 'Clovernook Children' (A. C. Armstrong & Son) has survived the competition of thirty years, and is reissued to do its part in satisfying the cry of the nursery for stories, more stories; and also, let us add, in shaping the moral sense of its small readers. These tales are pictures of the writer's youthful experience in Ohio, and are pleasantly written despite their undisguised ethical purpose. "A true story" seems endorsed upon each one of them. It marks the limitations of this author's mind, that what is now put forth as a companion volume, 'Snow-berries'—a much later work—is distinctly inferior, being drawn from Miss Cary's imagination, and not from observation. The verses, too, which are tagged on to every story, are commonplace, and such as no one would wish a child to commit to heart—a rough test, but perhaps the best we have in judging of poetry for the young.

SKETCHES OF LIFE IN INDIA.

Twenty-one Days in India; or, the Tour of Sir Ali Baba, K.C.B. By George Aberigh-Mackay. A New Edition, with Illustrations. London: W. H. Allen & Co.

A MULTIPLICITY of causes has conspired to impress on English residents in India a character of uniqueness. Many of the distinguishing traits of what are known as Old Indians are the all but unavoidable result of a lengthened sojourn in a tropical climate: others are due to incessant contact with a subject race of people in every way peculiar; and others still are such as everywhere demark the denizens of a colony from those of its mother country. But noticeably in India, among British foreign possessions, the one object of well-nigh the entire immigrant population is to store up a competency with all expedient despatch, and then to shake from their feet forever the dust of a land in which they have endured so much and enjoyed so little. As to Englishmen who, from a protracted abode in India, have become enslaved to the deteriorating, if not debasing, mode of existence which almost alone is possible there, and from whose memory the scenes and the associations of their youthful years have gradually become so obliterated that they are content to go on living in exile, and so to die, the number of those unfortunate fossils is rapidly decreasing. As being, taken at the very best, but of the nature of uninteresting anomalies, they may be ignored save by curious students of morbidism and degeneration. Nor, though more abundant, are in a less degree dreary and wearisome, to any but the most philosophic temper, the retired Indian senilities who, at Cheltenham, Bath, and Clifton, have much the effect of so many wet blankets on

their hapless, unindianized neighbors. As might be expected, their intrinsic insignificance is denied, by those about them, the homage which was so long paid to it by the false and mercenary obsequiousness of Orientals. Thoroughly wretched, chiefly on this account, themselves, they would seem to have retained the sole faculty of reducing others to misery something like their own. Fortunately, however, the members of this stamp of oppressive beings are, owing to various circumstances, becoming fewer and fewer nearly as fast as their congeners, the denaglicized Englishmen, whom they left behind in the East. But, to say truth, the Old Indian, even in his most favorable estate, is not likely to be engaging. Lord Macaulay, in one of his earlier letters, asks whether he is not in fair training to be as great a bore as if he had himself been in India, "that is to say, as great a bore as the greatest." His implied appreciation of the class of persons to which he refers was the only just appreciation that, without the longanimity of the man of Uz, was, or is, generally possible.

Very striking is the change which has passed on English society in India within the last generation; and to one who, like the writer of this notice, finished his career there upward of twenty years ago, the extent of that change is brought home most vividly by Mr. Aberigh-Mackay's attractive pages. Hardly could a revolution be more complete than that which has been gradually wrought by the transfer of the government of India from the East India Company to the Crown. And this revolution has affected both the governing classes and the governed. Illaudable, and even deplorable, were divers of the features of English society in India under the rule which the mutinies of 1857 availed to bring to an end. Yet, while that rule lasted, the natives of the country were far better comprehended by their masters than they are at this moment: and the principles on which they were controlled were such as only that better comprehension could have suggested. Instead of being more loyal than they were of old, they are at present, in no small degree, notoriously much less loyal. But a set dissertation would be required in order to depict, with any approach to fulness, the India of our day as compared with the very different India of a quarter of a century ago.

Mr. Aberigh-Mackay's exceedingly clever chapters are absolutely open to no adverse criticism, if we except a single trifling matter —namely, their collective title; for no one, surely, would gather from it that they consist of one-and-twenty typical sketches of character. For apposite knowledge, acuteness, and subtlety of discrimination, graceful lightness of satiric touch, unstudied pathos, and uniform pronounced excellence of literary execution, the book stands forth among ten thousand. From end to end of it one might try, and try again, without being able to point to a dull page. Even to the general reader, local as is its color, it cannot fail to be highly amusing, though, of necessity, a spice of the most exquisite of its fun must here and there be lost on him. To give an instance of what is here meant, of course he will marvel greatly at the mysterious excerpt from the "Rigmarole Veda," "Kwaihaipeglaondjeldikaro," which, however, by no means belongs to the same category as Southey's "Aballiboozobanganorribo." But such esotericisms are, after all, very infrequent.

As has been implied, quotation from the book may be made advantageously, though taken almost at random. Here, then, is a paragraph from the chapter entitled "The Archdeacon, a Man of Both Worlds":

"Why should I spend a day with the Bishop? What claim has the Bishop on my improving conversation? I am not his sponsor. Besides, he might do me harm: I am not quite sure of his claret. I admit his superior ecclesiastical birth: I recollect his connection with St. Peter; and I am conscious of the more potent spells and effluences of his shovel-hat and apron. But I find the atmosphere of his heights cold; and the rarefied air he breathes does not feed my lungs. Up yonder, above the clouds of human weakness, my vertebræ become unhinged, my bones inarticulate, and I collapse. I meet missionaries, and I hear the music of the spheres; and I long to descend again to the circles of the every-day inferno where my friends are.

'These distant stars I can forego;
This kind, warm earth is all I know.'

I am sorry for it. I really have upward tendencies; but I have never been able to fix upon a balloon. The High Church balloon always seems to me too light, and the Low Church balloon too heavy; while no experienced aëronaut can tell me where the Broad Church balloon is bound for. Thus, though a feather-weight sinner, here I am upon the firm earth. So come along, my dear Archdeacon: let us have a stroll down the Mall, and a chat about Temporalities, Fabrics, 'Mean Whites,' and little Mrs. Lollipop, 'the joy of wild asses.'"

In like manner as the titles of the chapters are often piquant, so, only invariably, is whatever follows them. Whether the sketches are, or are not, introduced in the spirit of "The A. D. C.-in-Waiting, an Arrangement in Scarlet and Gold," and "The Travelling M. P., the British Lion Rampant," the reader soon feels assured that he is doomed to no disappointment with what is coming. Stimulation and incitement to go on and on to the close are nowhere intermitted.

Very different from the tone of the extract given above is, as in many a passage more of the volume, that which marks the conclusion of the portraiture of "The Old Colonel":

"It is better to dress him up in an old red coat, and strap him on to an old sword with a brass scabbard, that he may stand up on high ceremonials, and drink the health of the good Queen for whom he has lived bravely through sunshine and stormy weather, in defiance of epidemics, retiring schemes, and the Army Medical Department. It is good to ask him to place his old knees under your hospitable board, and to fill him with wholesome wine, while he decants the mellow stories of an Anglo-India that is speedily dissolving from view.

"The old Colonel has no harm in him. His scandal blows upon the grandmothers of people that have passed away; and his little improprieties are such as might illustrate a sermon of the present day.

"But you must never speak to him as if his sun were setting. He is as hopeful as a two-year-old. Every *Gazette* thrills him with vague expectations and alarms. If he found himself in orders for a brigade, he would be less surprised than any one in the army. He never ceases to hope that something may turn up, that something tangible may issue from the circumambient world of conjecture. But nothing will ever turn up for our poor old Colonel, till his poor old toes turn up to the daisies. This change only, which we harshly call 'death,' will steal over his prospects; this new slide only will be slipped into the magic lantern of his existence, accompanied by funeral drums and slow marching.

"Soon we shall hardly be able to decipher his name and age on the crumbling grave-stone among the weeds of our horrible station-cemetery. But what matters it?

'For his bones are dust,
And his sword is rust,
And his soul is with the saints, we trust.'"

No whit less conspicuously able are Mr. Aberigh-Mackay's pictorial illustrations than is his letter-press. What the gifted author would have achieved, had he lived to make more than a first appearance in literature, it would be bootless to speculate. Certain it is, however, that the promise which he practically gave is to be acknowledged as of the highest, and his untimely death cannot be contemplated but with sincere regret.

FINLAND.

Finland und seine Nationalitätenfrage. Von Max Buch. Stuttgart. 1883.

FINLAND—or, as the Finns call it, Suomi—the northwestern division of the Russian Empire, is in many respects its most heterogeneous portion. It is semi-Arctic, a land of lakes and moors, non-Slavic, non-Aryan, Lutheran, semi-autonomous, semi-constitutional, ruled by the Czar as Grand-Duke, with finances and an army of its own. Herr Max Buch, a German scholar of South-Baltic Russia, sketches the land—after a two-years' study on its soil—its dominant population, and its nationality strife in a way which admits of no doubt as to his competency as an observer, inquirer, and unbiassed judge. His book is of very small compass, but replete with fresh and interesting information, clearly and concisely presented. His main subject is the "nationality question," which has so violently agitated the Grand-Duchy for some decades; and concerning this curious historical movement alone —barring introductory remarks—can we follow him in his observations.

In the earlier centuries of our era almost all northern Russia was occupied by branches of the Finno-Ugric family of tribes. At what time the Finns proper—next to the Magyars now the most civilized branch of the family—entered and occupied the peninsular country which they at present inhabit, is not definitely ascertainable. They came there as nomads, living by fishing and the chase, but there learned agriculture. Their agglutinative Turanian tongue was rich and flexible, like the Magyar—as their great epic, the 'Kalevala,' parts of which are believed to be about a thousand years old, clearly shows; but they had appropriated many words denoting objects of more advanced domestic life from Teutonic neighbors on the south, Saxons and Goths, and were now hemmed in by Goths on the west, and Russians on the south-east, whose influence upon them became permanent. Russian missionaries seem to have made unsuccessful attempts at introducing Christianity. In the middle of the twelfth century Saint Eric, King of Sweden, and the Bishop of Upsal led a crusade into Finland, conquered in bloody battles, and converted the people by force; but it took a century and a half to complete the conquest. The Finns shared the freedom of the Swedish peasantry, and with the Swedes were the first to adopt the Reformation. Swedes settled numerously in the islands and maritime districts of Finland, forming the ruling and leading classes of society, and propagated both their language and culture. The interior, however, remained Finnish. Lutheran Christianity was the bond of union between Swedes and Finns, and secured general fidelity to the crown of the Vasas.

As early as 1725, shortly after the desolating war between Charles XII. and Peter the Great, the demand found vent that royal decrees and orders should be issued both in Finnish and Swedish. The Finnish deputies at the Swedish Diet, a few years later, formulated similar demands. The loyalty of the Finns, however, remained unshaken throughout all the Swedish wars with Russia, although during the war of Gustavus III. a few Finnish noblemen rashly attempted to make their country an independent state under the protection of Russia. The nobility and the official classes were Swedish by descent and in sentiment, and the Finn peasantry dreaded Russia's serfdom. Finland's geographical position, however, rendered its successful defence against Russia impossible, and the invasion of 1808 and peace of 1809 annexed it to

the Czar's dominions. Alexander I. was wise enough to grant his new subjects favorable terms of allegiance, the fundamental laws which existed under the Swedish sceptre remaining in force under the Russian. Swedish continued to be the official language of the country, agreeably to the general demand of the Diet of Borga, held in 1809 under Alexander's auspices.

The Finnish language had, however, some time previously become an object of scholarly attention, though the Swedish had not ceased to be the exclusive medium of education and polite culture. Finnish songs, legends, and other national relics had been collected, and even an attempt made to issue a newspaper in the long-neglected idiom of the peasantry. On the separation from Sweden, though this was at first very keenly felt by all Finlanders, a spirit of Finnish nationalism began to pervade the people, and especially the student youth. Scarcely a year had lapsed under the new régime when Swedes had reason to complain of "Fennomania." The new movement became so active, its spread so rapid, that the Swedish opposition to it could soon be stigmatized as "Svecomania." And Fennomaniacs and Svecomaniacs have since, oddly enough, become and remained the distinctive appellations of two great parties dividing Finland on the nationality line. The advance of the Finnish party has been constant and irrepressible, conquering the popular classes and reaching the higher. The Finn language has been studied, resuscitated, developed, purified, enriched, and adapted to all literary purposes with a zeal and ability rivalling the efforts in the kindred field of Magyar linguistic renovation. A whole literature has been called into life, embracing lyrics, epics, dramas, speculative and scientific works, journals, etc., and including in the list of its poets and scholars such names of world-wide fame as Lönnroth, Runeberg, Castrén, and Ahlqvist. The Finn language has obtained its legitimate share as a medium of public instruction, and is now recognized as their vernacular by five-sixths of the population. Czar Nicholas, when flushed with his victory over revolution and nationalism in Hungary, violently endeavored to check this national movement in his dominions by prohibiting the publication in Finnish of other than religious or economical books; but this brutal interference came too late. Alexander II., pursuing a different line of policy, revoked the order, promised reforms, convoked a diet (which his father never did) in 1869, signed laws in favor of future official equality of Finnish and Swedish, and granted the quinquennial periodicity of the legislature. Without taking sides in the contest between Fennomaniacs and Svecomaniacs, Alexander thus strengthened the nationalistic tendencies of the former, and by his liberalism reaped the reward of increasing loyalty to the crown among all classes of Finlanders.

The Finlanders of both parties, however, and of both Aryan and Turanian race, are patriotically devoted to the cause of their country's autonomy, as far as it goes, or may in future be expected to go. "Finland for the Finlanders!" is the watchword of all; and this is even now no empty cry, for only native Finlanders enjoy rights of citizenship in the Grand Duchy, and even Russians (of whom there are about twenty thousand, including a garrison of seven thousand) are legally foreigners. All Finland, not excluding ardent Svecomaniacs of noble Swedish descent, would readily follow the banners of the Czar in case of a Swedo-German invasion; and, on the other hand, even the Finnish peasantry would offer a stanch passive resistance—for no other can be thought of under the circumstances—to encroachments by the Czar's Government on the old and constitutional liberties of the country. That the dream of entire independence, to be achieved by complete nationalization first and skilful political manœuvring between Slavs and Teutons next, haunts many an enthusiastic Finnish mind, requires no proof. The national army of the Grand-Duchy, however, instituted only for territorial defence, is insignificant; and even if it were raised to a possible maximum of about seventy thousand men (the total population is a little upward of two millions), and commanded exclusively by natives, which it is not, it could play no important part in a great clash of Slav and Teuton, especially as the most flourishing districts are open to invasion by sea or by land.

FAHLBECK'S FRANK MONARCHY.

La Royauté et le Droit royal francs durant la première période de l'existence du royaume (486–614). Par le Docteur Pontus-E. Fahlbeck, de l'Université de Lund. Traduit par J.-H. Kramer, Licencié ès lettres. Lund: En vente à la Librairie Gleerup (Librairie Universitaire). 8vo, pp. 346.

THE period between the dissolution of the Roman Empire and the establishment of the feudal régime is the most obscure and puzzling in the history of institutions, and there remain many problems as yet unsolved, even after the labors of Waitz, Roth, Sohm, and Coulanges. The antagonism between the German and French schools—in which, it must be confessed, national prejudices have sometimes been allowed to interfere with strictly scientific methods—would seem to invite scholars of other nations into the arena who might be supposed to be free from the bias in question. The publication, therefore, of a Swedish scholar upon this subject is a welcome contribution to the discussion. His work is confined to a very narrow field—a period of hardly more than a hundred years; but of this period we have an exhaustive examination, resulting in what we may regard as on the whole the best treatise that has yet appeared upon the institutions of the early Merovingian period.

It is easy to see why Doctor Fahlbeck has ended his inquiry with the year 614—the year of the decree of Clotaire II. The seventh century was a very different thing from the sixth. It has been fully established, especially by the researches of Roth, that the early Merovingian monarchy contained not a single element of feudalism, except in the germ; that the relation of King and subject had not yet begun to be superseded by that of lord and vassal; that land was still a matter of property, not of tenure But in the seventh century the causes began to work which reached their full effect two centuries later, and gradually built up the feudal institutions. Our author does well, therefore, to confine himself to the period of the pure Frank monarchy. He says (p. xii. of the Preface):

"Frank society in 752 is no longer what it was in 511, at the death of Clovis. A new social power, aristocracy, had arisen by the side of royalty, and this event shattered and transformed the Constitution. The position of the royal power was completely modified; and in a state like the Frank kingdom, in which royalty is everything, a modification of its position produced transformations in all domains of political and social life."

"Royalty is everything." This is the key to the theories of the treatise. The author begins his preface by saying that a more correct title for his book would have been 'The Political Organization and the Public Law of the Frank Kingdom during,' etc. By selecting the actual title, he wished to emphasize his point of view: "We consider that in the Frank kingdom the state is absorbed by royalty, and the public law by the royal authority (*le droit public par le droit royal*)." This statement is, we think, perfectly true, and it is the view of the Frank Constitution to which the labors of the German school have been tending, although no one of them has perhaps formulated it so definitely, and elaborated it so fully, as Doctor Fahlbeck. One of the most instructive and original parts of his work is contained in chap. i. § 2, "The Interior Conquest," in which, after having described the "exterior conquest" by Clovis, he states the problem of the period as follows:

"The question which first presents itself at this point of our studies, and before touching upon the organization of this kingdom, is how the foundation of a new political power could give place to the birth of a new political and social order; how the new kingdom became a new society essentially different from the two old societies—the German and the Gallo-Roman; or, in other words, by what path and by what necessity these last were transformed and became the Frank society."

This question he answers by considering in detail the immediate consequences of the establishment of the kingdom upon, first, the Gallo-Romans and, secondly, the Germans.

"The new régime," he says (p. 58), "proceeds from the union of separate elements, but does not, nevertheless, make out of them a mechanical composition. The imperial Roman authority (*droit*) is so combined with the royal Germanic authority that the first furnishes the substance of the new constitutional right, and the second its form. The rights and notions of sovereignty are Roman, the right itself is Germanic. The royal Germanic authority assimilates to itself the imperial Roman authority, without, nevertheless, by this act modifying its nature. It constitutes, as before, a personal right."

In these words we find the characteristic which distinguishes the theory of Doctor Fahlbeck from that of Waitz, Sohm, Dahn, and others, who, like him, have represented the royal power as the controlling force in the creation of the Frank kingdom—that the conquest was made not by the people, but by the king. The German school of writers would hold that the kingly authority of Clovis was, to be sure, derived from the primitive kingly office of the Germans; but they would hold that it was not merely combined with and modified by the imperial authority, but essentially transformed by it. Our author holds that royalty was essentially the same before as after.

"It is only," he says (Preface, p. ix.), "because the Germanic king is not an agent (*mandataire*) of the people, but solely of himself, and that Germanic royalty is an independent power, based upon its own right, that it can become the centre of a state—organize it. Now, the reason of this fact can, in its turn, be only this: that royalty rests upon the personal right of its possessor (*détenteur*)—that the royal dignity, with all that it carries with it, is the private property of the king."

This proposition Doctor Fahlbeck undertakes to prove in the second section of the second chapter, "Le droit du Roi au Royaume." In the primitive Germanic royalty we find, he says, three characteristics which "distinguish it from all other forms of government among the Germans, and contain all the elements of its history" (p. 95): it is independent, irrevocable, and hereditary. It would certainly require very positive evidence to establish a proposition so directly contrary to all accepted theories of the Germanic Constitution, and such positive evidence cannot be said to be present. It appears to us that our author, a Scandinavian, has been over-influenced by analogies drawn from Scandinavian history. It is well known that Tacitus ('Germ.,' 44) describes the Swedes as

having a more vigorous royal power than any other of the German nations. It is known, too, that the Norwegian kings reigned by strictly hereditary right, and the royalty of Harald Harfager (p. 92) is the most striking illustration of the theory here presented. But most of the examples are taken from the history of the Germanic nations after their settlement within the empire; and, strangely enough, the author purposely leaves out of view the other Scandinavian nations and the Anglo-Saxons (p. 110), on the ground that "we do not wish to withdraw too far from the field in which all our researches are concentrated, the Frank kingdom." But the field now under consideration is not the Frank kingdom, but the primitive Germans, and it is unaccountable that, in this discussion, he should leave out those very nations which are admitted to have preserved the primitive Germanic institutions most pure and for the longest time. Certainly Anglo-Saxon history would afford very little support to his view. We cannot, therefore, reconcile it either with the statements of Tacitus or with the facts of history.

We cannot think, however, that the failure to prove this theory detracts materially from the value of the book. We agree fully with the author as to the controlling position of the Frank kings, and only differ from him as to the source of their authority; and he, too, derives it largely from Roman imperialism, only by way of modification, not as the essential basis of the power. When he says (p. 94) that if he were forced to accept Dahn's view that the German kingship was primarily elective, he would necessarily agree, with Sybel and the Romanists, that the Frank monarchy was a continuation of the Roman Empire, he appears to mean that, if we consider the Frank king to have borrowed his type of authority from the Roman Empire, this is equivalent to making him a Roman official, the successor, in a sense, of the Roman emperor —that the kingly office after the conquest was absolutely a different thing from that before the conquest. But this does not follow. The transformation wrought in this office was just the same, except in degree, with that effected in English royalty by the Norman conquest. It was, so to speak, *imperialized*—transfused with a conception of authority wholly foreign to the Anglo-Saxon kingship; so that, being the same office, it was yet a wholly new one.

Chapter iii., "Le Roi et le Gouvernement," contains an excellent sketch of the administrative system of the Frank monarchy of the sixth century, not differing materially, in its main features, from that given by Sohm. The next chapter, "Le Roi et les Sujets," discusses the important subject of the development of that aristocracy which in the end so completely transformed the government. The turning-point he considers to have been the reign of Clotaire II., who succeeded to the throne of the united kingdom after the stormy times of Fredegonda and Brunhilda. This young prince, "brought up under the rule of the nobles, had never known any other" (p. 217). Accepting facts as they were, he issued an edict which has been called "the Magna Charta of the Frank Kingdom," and which constituted "in reality a veritable revolution in the constitutional law which had existed until then." With these documents, by which the king practically abdicated his absolute power, begins the development of the feudal aristocracy. The argument assumes that the *Præceptio*, sometimes ascribed to Clotaire I., was really the work of his grandson, as is held by Waitz and Boretius. This question is argued at considerable length and with great cogency in an appendix. It does not, however, appear to us essential to the author's main argument.

The summary (Résumé), at the end of the treatise, states with great ingenuity and force the bearing of the view here presented of the royal authority upon the development of the feudal principle. "Feudalism rests," we are told (p. 239), "upon the same mixture of public right and private right, although it arrives at it by a different road." And further: "It is not only feudalism, it is also the modern French royalty, and through it all European royalties, which, by virtue of the same principle, have contracted a debt of gratitude to the Merovingian royalty. . . . The principle of the possession of public authority as private property dominates, even if more feebly, the constitutional law and political institutions of France until the great Revolution." The four books of which the work is composed, are followed by six appendices of considerable length, discussing in detail some of the controverted points contained in the treatise itself. There is a good table of contents, but no index. In conclusion, we would say that the special value of this important work consists: first, in the thoroughness with which the royal authority is shown to have been the controlling force in the early Merovingian period; secondly, in the emphasis placed upon the constitutional changes in the reign of Clotaire II.; while, thirdly, it contains perhaps the best compendious statement of the constitution and administrative system of the period in question.

Orthodoxy and Heresy in the Christian Church. By Edward H. Hall. Boston: American Unitarian Association.

UNDER this title the pastor of the First Parish Church in Cambridge, Mass., has published a series of lectures delivered by him some ten years ago before his parish in Worcester. They are, in brief, a sketch of the history of Christian doctrines, so planned as to keep before the mind of the reader the constant distinction between the accepted dogma of the Church and those divergent streams of thought which can be grouped under no other name than "heresy." The main thought which pervades them all is that the term "orthodox," far from having any single or definite meaning, has required constantly to be redefined and reasserted, and that in this process of definition it has suffered an equally certain process of change, so that the heretics of one age have become the self-constituted orthodox of the next. This is no new thought, but it is one which cannot be too often recalled to the consciousness of the world. It has seldom been presented with greater force and clearness than in this little book. Those who have not the time or the learning to follow out these studies for themselves can find here, in admirable style, within small compass, and in terms so simple that they cannot be misunderstood, the essentials of the story of that great process by which the doctrines of the Christian Church have been developed. They can learn, what a lifetime of church-going or the reading of many larger books might fail to teach them, that these formulations of belief have been the result of human struggle, and not of divine revelation. They may trace here the working of some of the lowest human motives—ambition for place, the violence of power, the wanton disregard of the sacred right of argument—all combining to settle as authoritative certain declarations of belief which then claimed for themselves the name of orthodoxy. On the other hand, they may learn how much of divine courage, patience, and tenacity of purpose were called forth in the service of those efforts after new and higher truth which have come down in official records as heresy.

These principles are fundamental. There can be no true study of the Christian records until the human character of the struggles by which the doctrines were formulated is clearly understood and frankly admitted. Without this admission all thought upon the subject must be indistinct and unsatisfying. The author's gift for clear and vigorous statement, his wide and deep learning, and his truly catholic sympathy with every effort of the human mind to work its way out into the light on these dark questions, fit him admirably for this work. It will be a matter of regret to every lover of truth if this little book shall prove not to be an introduction to a more detailed development of the same theme. It is only to be regretted that it bears the imprint of a denominational publishing-house, which cannot fail to limit its possible usefulness.

Ursachen der Amerikanischen Concurrenz. Ergebnisse einer Studienreise durch die Vereinigten-Staaten, von Dr. R. Meyer. Berlin: Hermann Bahr. 1883. 8vo, pp. 825.

A VERY full and flattering account of this country is given in the report made by Dr. R. Meyer of his visit here in 1881, under the title of 'Causes of American Competition: Results of a Tour of Investigation through the United States.' The author deals with the great industrial problems that are being rapidly solved on this side the Atlantic, and points out the lessons to be learned by European economists. The condition of the emigrants in America; the agricultural census returns; grain-elevators and other economical appliances for handling and moving crops; freights by rail and water; the great business in cattle in all its branches and localities: the coal and other mineral resources of the country, are the general subjects, and then come the personal observations made in Washington, the South, the West and Canada. These are accompanied by special studies of the German "Adelsverein" (Noblemen's Union settlement) in Texas, of the American public-lands system, of the work of the Department of Agriculture, of the vexed questions as to transportation across the continent, of education, and of such other topics as particularly interested the author and his companions —a little group of Austrian noblemen, who, being owners of large properties in outlying districts of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, were close observers.

Almost their first note is important, and that is, the immense superiority of the actual living of all classes in this country, and especially of workingmen, over that of all European countries. This it is that enables the foreigner here as well as the American to do so much more work than what passes for a day's labor on the other side of the Atlantic. Swiss and Germans have, as a rule, as good an elementary education as Americans, while the French, Italians, and Austrians of the same peasant class are much more ignorant than any of the others; but the American has been well fed, well clothed, well housed, and is busy learning one trade or another, while the foreigner has lost the best years of his youth in the unprofitable business of soldiering, and comes out of his compulsory service full of anxiety to get away from a country that exacts so great a sacrifice of time and strength and makes so little return for it. As far back as 1873, Doctor Meyer pointed out, in the Berlin *Review*, the rapid approach of American competition as a decisive factor in the social and economical struggles of European countries. In Castle Garden he takes up his old theoretical studies, and illustrates them by the practical examples he there finds of the care shown by

American industrial agencies for the future wealth-producing emigrant.

Doctor Meyer thinks that in fifteen years American industry will be able to flourish without any tariff to protect it, and then it will flood Europe with the products of its machinery and its cheap coal and water power. The problem of transporting enormous crops cheaply from the producer to the consumer is being solved every day in America, which furnishes proof of the economy of having one great channel for trade instead of a hundred little streams. Hungary has surrendered much of its market to that of America, because the one country handles its produce on a great scale cheaply, and the other still depends on little dealers, who go from farm to farm and make petty bargains. The American farmer knows from day to day the price of each item of his crop, and he banks upon his harvest, finding in the elevator companies and the warehouse receipts a cheap and easy means of raising money when he has security for it. The European farmer, on the contrary, goes to the Land and Mortgage Bank only in his bad years, and in his good years he spends his surplus in adding to or improving his property. When trouble comes, therefore, he has no reserve or resources. In America there are thousands of national banks in which the farmers are shareholders and depositors, while in every German neighborhood there is a great land bank which gradually becomes the owner of the farms and estates within reach. The competition of the rival railroads and of river transportation is of incalculable advantage to the American farmer, who has both a local and a foreign demand for his produce utterly unknown to the European, especially the Austrian, Hungarian, and Russian grain-growers.

The mechanical appliances in use on the Western plains, at the great ports, and in both railroad and shipping facilities for handling great masses cheaply and rapidly, are described by Doctor Meyer in detail, as well worth the attention of the foreign merchant. The much-discussed question of sales by sample or by mark is examined with exhaustive historical research, and the American custom is approved on the grounds of expediency and experience. "Graded" wheat, "inspected" pork, flour "brands," are all modern applications of a rule which dates from mediæval guilds, and has been reduced in America to an exactness quite unknown abroad. Doctor Meyer suggests that foreign governments would do well to have experts at every American port to keep watch and make instant report of all mechanical appliances and improvements that can be used to advantage in reducing the expense and improving the condition of their own crops, and he says that his Hungarian fellow-travellers mean to introduce at home much of what they saw in their journey. He also contrasts the steady diminution of freights, by reason of increasing competition by the great carrier companies, with the imperial German legislation of 1873 providing for a gradual increase in railroad rates of nearly one-third. This, he says, is an indirect tax highly injurious to German industry, and in the teeth of the great demand for cheap food for the laboring classes.

Since the publication of 'Le Blé' by Ronan in 1878, and its translation, with some additions, by Doctor Max Wirth in Berlin in 1880, there has been no such careful analysis of the cost of transportation of American produce to Europe. This Doctor Meyer attempts in his sixth chapter, with a description of the new routes opened since the others wrote. The free canals, the additional collecting points in the West, the new steamer lines from the South, the growing surplus for exportation on the Pacific slope, the work of the railroad commissions, the last tariff changes as a means of securing return freights, the prospect of a canal across the Isthmus of Panama, the immediate opening of the Northern Pacific Railroad, the conditions under which the East and the West compete for the supply of the foreign demand—all these topics are exhaustively studied. Then comes a discussion of the doctrine so often mooted abroad, that the soil in America is being exhausted; and against this Doctor Meyer points to the increased value of the products of the Middle States, where agriculture, after a hundred years and more, has found new crops and new methods of enriching the soil. The success in opening the mouth of the Mississippi is making that river the great lever by which railroad pools and rates are to be kept favorable to the producer and the consumer, with just profit enough left the transporter to enable him to live too. This is shown to be much more effective than Granger laws, which are fully explained, and the agitation that produced them as sovereign remedies is described at length, together with its good and bad results. A statement is given of the operations of the great wheat growers of the West, the famous Dalrymple Farms being taken as a type illustrating the economies in the growth of crops and in handling them, with the advantages freely conceded to a producer that can get express trains and own or charter whole fleets on the lakes and fill up all the holds of ocean steamers, and thus make a profit in spite of high rates and low prices.

The book is full of lessons of interest to readers on this side the Atlantic. It will well repay careful examination and intelligent criticism.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alphabet Children. White, Stokes & Allen. $1.
Apples of Sodom: a Story of Mormon Life. Cleveland: Wm. W. Williams.
Bacon, Rev. L. W., and Allen, N. H. The Hymns of Martin Luther, set to their Original Melodies. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Barrows, W. Oregon: the Struggle for Possession. [American Commonwealths.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Bonner, J. H. Whispering Pines: Poems. Brentano Bros.
Braddon, M. E. Under the Red Flag. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
Bruce, Rev. A. B. The Parabolic Teaching of Christ. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $2 50.
Butterworth, H. Zigzag Journeys in Northern Lands. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1 75.
Fisher, Prof. G. P. The Reformation. New ed. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2 50.
Cable, G. W. Grandissimes: a Story of Creole Life. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 25.
Chatterbox, Junior. R. Worthington. $1 25.
Classified and Descriptive Directory to the Charitable and Beneficent Societies and Institutions of the City of New York. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Clement, Clara E. An Outline History of Painting, for Young People and Students. White, Stokes & Allen. $2 50.
Coolidge, Susan. A Round Dozen. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 50.
Collins, J. C. Milton's Samson Agonistes. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Dick's Toasts, Speeches, and Responses. Dick & Fitzgerald.
Eclectic Complete Geography. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.
Eclectic Elementary Geography. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.
English as She is Spoke. "Her Seconds Part." G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. xvi. Men-Mos. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Freeman-Slowman. T. Macci Plavti Trinummus. With Notes and an Introduction. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Goldsmith, O. The Vicar of Wakefield. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Ground, Rev. W. D. An Examination of the Structural Principles of Herbert Spencer's Philosophy. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3 50.
Opening Ceremonies of the New York and Brooklyn Bridge, May 24, 1883.
Oyster Epicure. White, Stokes & Allen. 30 cents.
Richardson, Abby Sage. Abelard and Heloise: a Mediæval Romance. With the Letters of Heloise. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Trollope, A. An Autobiography. Harper & Bros.
Tytler, Sarah. Marie Antoinette. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 29, 1883.

The Week.

THE official figures of the total vote in this State at the last election show, as we anticipated that they would, a falling off from the vote of last year. The whole number of votes cast for all candidates this year was 901,950, against 915.539 in 1882. Curiously enough, the combined Democratic and Republican totals for both years are nearly the same. That for Folger and Cleveland was 877,782, and that for Carr and Maynard is 873,950. Last year the Prohibition vote was 25,783, and this year it is only 17,000, while the Greenback vote was about 11,000 in both years. This indicates that many Republicans who did not wish to vote for Folger last year voted for the Prohibition candidates rather than vote for a Democrat. Carr's vote this year was 446,384, about 18,000 greater than that cast for any other Republican candidate, and about equal to the average vote cast for the Democratic candidates. He undoubtedly owes his election to the votes of 18,000 or more Democrats, who refused to support Maynard because of his temperance principles. Carr's vote is 103,920 greater than that cast for Folger. The lowest candidate on the Republican ticket received 84,234 more votes than Folger had. The candidate on the Democratic ticket who received the largest vote was Maxwell, who had 447,269 votes. This is 88,049 less votes than Cleveland had, and over 3,000 less than half of the total vote cast. It is interesting to note that the Republican increase of 84,234 over Folger's vote is nearly the same as the Democratic decrease of 88,049 from Cleveland's vote. Here is a shifting vote of from 80,000 to 85,000, which probably measures pretty accurately the size of the Independent vote in the State. That is the vote which will decide the Presidential election of next year, and its formidable proportions are likely to have a most salutary effect upon the nominations of both parties.

The final week of the Speakership contest opens with Mr. Randall clearly in the lead. Congress will assemble on Monday next, and in the opinion of the best judges Mr. Randall's election will speedily follow. The other candidates make energetic claims of strength, but it is very plain that their hopes are slight. An overwhelming majority of Democrats everywhere are afraid of reopening the tariff issue on the eve of a Presidential election, and this fear is likely to be powerful enough to put Mr. Randall into the chair. Here and there a Democrat supports him openly because he is a protectionist. Thus Congressman Arnot, of the XXIXth New York District, said on Sunday: "I am a protectionist and will vote for Randall for Speaker. I don't want any half and half in this particular, for I have too solid a respect for a protective tariff. I am an out-and-outer, and that is the kind of a man I shall favor for Speaker." There is no doubt about Mr. Randall being that kind of a man. His position in favor of the total abolition of internal taxes would of itself demonstrate that.

Judge Barrett has been giving to the public his views as to divorce, and declares that he is totally opposed to a constitutional amendment giving Congress power to secure a uniform system of marriage and divorce. His only objection is the "entering wedge" argument—that it would lead to centralization. Why, he says, should we not have a "uniform murder law?" Why should not crimes and the domestic relations in general—of parent and child, guardian and ward—be handed over to the Federal Government? As we originally brought the matter up for discussion in these columns, we may take it upon ourselves to reply: Because the country does not suffer from the lack of a uniform law on any of these subjects. As a man who commits a murder, or any other crime, is necessarily tried by the State where it is committed, and as the Constitution compels any State in which he takes refuge to surrender him for trial and punishment, no inconvenience is felt in the existing system. So the local regulation of the domestic relations produces no trouble, except in the case of husband and wife. Now with regard to this, a very great proportion of the divorces procured are notoriously got in defiance of the law of the State where the parties actually live, by resorting to some other State where the law is more lax. This branch of the evil would be brought to an end by a uniform Federal system; and it would no more be a "wedge" than a bankruptcy law, or a copyright law, or a patent law, can be called so. There is no principle in the Constitution that we know of that prevents the transfer of any matter to Congress with which experience shows that the States are incapable of dealing, by means of an amendment. To enable the country to make changes of this sort we have always supposed to be one of the principal reasons for permitting amendments.

A case has arisen under the new California Constitution which brings the right of private property again before the Supreme Court. If anybody doubted that the Granger decisions struck a serious blow at the commonly received ideas on the subject, their doubts would be removed by the general tone of the discussion in this case. The question is as to the right to control "rates" charged by a San Francisco Water Company—in other words, the price of water. One of the arguments used against the company was, that there was no such thing as private property in water, and this appears to have been gravely argued on both sides. One of the strangest legal results of the Granger movement is that it seems to have identified, in a great many publicists' minds, the right to fix reasonable rates with the right to confiscate property. The fact that the State must in some cases fix rates, does not make it any the more advisable to destroy the value of stock in a corporation which it charters in order to enable it to make money. If the right to fix rates is such a grand thing as its advocates would have us believe, it is a pity that the argument upon which it rests should lead to so much general confusion between *meum* and *tuum*.

The best that can be said about the condition and prospects of that great representative line of industry embraced in what is called the "iron trade," is that the depression does not increase. Some furnaces are being blown out, their owners declaring that the prices of iron are below the cost of production, while others are just starting up. But in the lumber, glass, and paper industries there are less favorable prospects. It is believed that the low prices of lumber have caused the loss of the entire capital of a good many producers in the Northwest. In the paper trade, the condition of things is indicated by the fact that last week fifty mills, in what is known as the "Northwestern Paper Pool," resolved to close their mills from December 1 to February 4. In the glass trade there has been an extensive strike at Pittsburgh, and a good many manufacturers will close their works. Concurrent with these unfavorable symptoms, speculation in grain has been revived by the reports that the corn crop will turn out only from 1,200,000,000 to 1,300,000,000 bushels, instead of more than 1,600,000,000, as indicated by the Agricultural Bureau. At the same time the export movement of breadstuffs and cotton is from 22 to 25 per cent. less than at the corresponding time last year; consequently the imports of specie are as yet on a very limited scale, the total for last week being $558,600. The only positively favorable feature in the entire commercial and industrial situation is the continued large earnings of the railroads, which are, on the average, sixteen per cent. greater thus far in November than at the same time last year. Nevertheless, capital still retains a sluggish and somewhat distrustful attitude. There has been some active investment in railroad bonds in the last month, which has advanced the prices of the best stock from 1½ to 2½ per cent.; but the dividend-paying railway stocks seem to attract no considerable investment of capital yet, and in the last week they have all declined from 1½ to 3 per cent. The amount of idle money in the banks increases, and rates of interest are lower than ever before at this season of the year.

The depressed condition of the dry goods industry has been illustrated in no more remarkable way than by the fact that a Chicago clothing firm has found it necessary to engage Sergeant Mason, at a salary of $125 a month, to push their business. The Sergeant's knowledge of the clothing business is

limited, but the firm think that his popularity through his attempted murder of Guiteau will draw custom. He has also received an offer of a theatrical engagement, but this he has refused, for the singular reason that he has no desire to "make a show" of himself. Sergeant Mason is a remarkable product of a remarkable period. He declares that it was wrong to imprison him, because he missed Guiteau, and thinks that a jury would have acquitted him on that account. This is evidently founded on an erroneous view of the jury system. Had he been acquitted, it would have been not because he missed Guiteau, but because he tried to kill him.

After the experience in Fifth Avenue on Monday evening there is no necessity for further expert testimony concerning the danger from electric-lighting wires. A runaway in the avenue broke down one of the electric-lamp poles and trailed the wire upon the pavement. A passing horse stepped upon the wire; there was a flash of purple light, a report like a pistol shot, all the lights on the avenue went out, and the horse fell dead. A moment later another horse stepped upon the wire and dropped dead like the first. The avenue was immediately closed to travellers of all kinds. Of course if a person had stepped upon the wire he would have shared the fate of the horses. It was a stormy night and there were few people upon the avenue, or the consequences might have been much more serious. A wire which kills instantly every person who treads upon it would be a deadly thing for a crowd to surge over. Clearly the only safe place for these wires is under ground, and the sooner they are put there the better.

At the Sweet Springs in West Virginia the other day, Carey Woodville had to beat Shelt Harman for poisoning two dogs, and his brother, James Woodville, had to stand by with a shot-gun to see fair play. Shelt Harman, however, objected to being beaten, and tried to hit Carey on the head with a stone, to prevent which James Woodville interfered. For this another bystander named Carter attacked James with a broad-axe, so James shot him in the leg. Then Harman attacked James also, and then James shot him. Then Carter's father also attacked James with an axe and James shot him. Whereupon old man Carter ran away, apparently through fear, but really, he says, simply to bring more men to take part in the fight. Thinking there were more coming, James ran away, too, not through fear, but feeling, he said, "that as others were called he had better go away quickly or he certainly would kill somebody." Great praise is accorded by local opinion to James, who is a fine marksman, for only shooting his opponents in the legs, for he might have killed them; and it is thought that this magnanimity on his part will lead to his acquittal by the jury. The real culprit in the affair seems to be Shelt Harman, who refused to take his beating quietly.

Frank James, who is lying in jail in Missouri, is said to be in "very low health," and besides this his money has given out, while his "surroundings" are by no means what they were a year ago. At that time his place of imprisonment seems to have been more like some luxurious chamber out of one of Disraeli's novels than an ordinary cell. There were Brussels carpet on the floor, "paintings and bric-à-brac" on the walls; a mahogany bedstead; a writing desk, and a little collection of his favorite books—fiction, probably of a pretty stirring kind. Now he has a pine board for a table, two rough bunks, and two stools. In fact, he has come down from the level of a state criminal to that of an ordinary murderer. The reporters are trying to revive the interest in him by telling romantic stories about his wife, who, with her husband, is fond of "chatting sociably" over the days of their courtship, with any one who likes to come in and listen; but it seems to be hard work.

The attitude of the English newspapers toward "interviews" is a curiously contradictory one. When interviewing began to be a regular enterprise a few years ago, the English leader-writers denounced it as the most dreadful form which American impertinence had yet assumed. They continue to denounce it in much the same terms now, but, strangely enough, they ignore the actual presence of the interview in their own columns. All the leading London papers employ American correspondents who send daily despatches concerning all important American events, and their longest despatches are nearly always interviews with illustrious Englishmen who are visiting this country. It has frequently happened that a London journal has contained on the same day a leading article denouncing interviewing, and a column cable message, costing several hundred dollars, which was an interview pure and simple. When Herbert Spencer was here the same London journal which published conspicuously a long cable message giving the substance of an interview with him, also published a "scathing" leader condemning the irrepressible impertinence with which Mr. Spencer had been worried during his entire visit to America, until he had been forced to give his views in order to obtain peace. The facts in the case were that instead of being worried into an interview, Mr. Spencer prepared it himself and sent it through a friend to all the New York newspapers for simultaneous publication. Other English visitors have taken to the interviewing system with equal favor, and their observations thus published have been promptly transmitted to London by cable at the cost of 12½ cents a word. Those which have not been sent by cable have been copied from the New York papers as soon as the mails arrived in London

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Mr. Roger A. Pryor, who was sent over, at considerable expense, to take part in the defence of O'Donnell, has definitively concluded not to attempt to appear in court on his behalf, having probably ascertained that he would not be permitted to speak. This will be a very bitter disappointment to a large number of those who contributed the money to pay his expenses, because what they sought was not so much to get O'Donnell acquitted as to "make the coort ring" with a denunciation of British tyranny and perfidy. As Mr. Pryor cannot furnish this he ought to come home or to return the money. His legal opinion or advice will not be of any particular value to O'Donnell, as he is not a remarkably prominent member of the bar here, and cannot offer any help over there which is not abundantly supplied by members of the English bar. The truth is, however, that the contributions of the Irish in this country for all sorts of purposes connected with resistance to, or defiance of, the Government at home, are so large that the honest managers must now, as the Land Leaguers are not carrying on operations, be often greatly puzzled to know what to do with the money. Dishonest ones are, course, never in any difficulty. The favorite mode of disposing of it seems to be sending people to Europe to make a disturbance of some kind.

Things do not look any more peaceful in Tonquin. The Chinese are apparently amusing the French with "fresh proposals." The circular which their Government has addressed to foreign Powers indicates clearly that China means to fight, and that the fight will probably be brought on by the French attack on Sontay and Bacninh, which are garrisoned, in part at least, by Chinese troops. We may any day now hear news of the outbreak of hostilities by the opening of the French attack, which will be rendered more interesting, in all probability, to European Powers by a bombardment of Canton at long range. Admiral Courbet is supporting the Ministry at home by refusing to ask for further reinforcements. His land force does not exceed ten thousand men, which could be increased slightly by sailors and marines. About the number of Chinese regulars who are disciplined and armed in the European fashion, there is a great variety of reports, but the highest estimate does not put them at over fifty thousand. What their discipline amounts to, there is as yet little means of judging, as they have hitherto been only employed against native rebels. But that they have all the natural qualities of good soldiers is beyond question. They are temperate, hardy, patient, obedient, and if the small value they place on their own lives can be turned to account for military purposes by good officers, they will certainly make a very formidable army. There are rumors, as is usual in such cases, of their having a considerable number of European and American officers. But this story is now told of every barbarous army engaged in a conflict with a civilized Power.

It is difficult to understand on what principle of law the British Government can seriously object to the French blockade of the Chinese ports. France, undoubtedly, has the usual belligerent right of establishing an effective blockade of any ports she pleases; what England now appears to be doing is objecting to her trying to establish an effective blockade, on the ground that she cer-

tainly could not succeed. That, however, can hardly be considered sufficient ground in the forum of international law. Every Power has the right to try to make an effective blockade, France, of course, as well as any other. The real English objection is that even the attempt would seriously interfere with English trade, and would excite so much discontent among English manufacturers and shippers that the Government could not avoid interfering, or, in other words, taking the Chinese side of the quarrel. The truth is, that a blockade will hardly hurt the Chinese at all. They care very little about foreign trade, and the total loss of it would not bring much perceptible pressure to bear on the Government in favor of peace. Two-thirds of the export of China consists of tea, which would somehow or other, under all circumstances, find its way out of the Empire. But the imports are mainly cotton and woollen goods and opium, which a blockade would largely exclude. Moreover, the entrance and clearing of vessels from Hong Kong would be greatly impeded by the blockade of the adjoining harbor of Canton. The French are said to be so much impressed by these considerations that they are going to confine their operations to the Tonquin waters.

While Herr Beheim-Schwarzbach, in a recent number of the Berlin *Gegenwart*, effectively disposed of the colonization schemes which, in spite of the vote of the Reichstag on the Samoan question, are being urged in Germany, French defenders of the opening of "commercial outlets" are increasing in number. The most prominent of these is M. Gabriel Charmes, of the *Journal des Débats*, who, in the latest number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, has an interesting article on the Colonial Policy of France. He sees in the present policy but the continuation of long-established French traditions, and thinks that France can still best employ her large surplus capital in developing her colonies, which offer so large a field to her industrial ingenuity. He is, however, candid enough to admit the existence of various obstacles in the way of successful colonization—viz: the vagaries of internal politics, which, by fostering State Socialism, so augment the price of labor as to exclude French manufactures from foreign markets; the failure to negotiate a treaty of commerce with England; the rigor of the conscription laws, which prevent young men from acquiring a thorough mercantile education by a residence abroad; and, lastly, the management of colonial affairs by incompetent politicians. M. Charmes's article is chiefly remarkable for the emphasis with which, in contrast to the chauvinism of even so clear-headed a writer as Leroy-Beaulieu, he dwells on the benefits accruing to France from the influx of foreign elements. "Our history shows," he says, "with what ease we assimilate foreigners, and of what service they are to us when once assimilated." The Paris correspondent of the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, in commenting on these remarks, admits, perhaps not altogether disinterestedly, the validity of the argument which sees a national gain in the dissemination of French culture regardless of economic considerations. At the same time he takes occasion to remind his compatriots how prone they are to attach undue importance to the anti-German utterances of obscure journals, while not only ignoring the contrary voices of such men as Gabriel Charmes, but also the actual facts with regard to the "persecutions" of Germans in Paris, of which German papers never tire, and which he pronounces altogether mythical.

One of the most active and useful of those taking part in the agitation in London for the improvement of the dwellings of the poor, Mr. Sims, writing in the *Daily News* with full knowledge of his subject, says, with regard to a large body of those whose lodgings excite the most horror and compassion, that they are so degraded in their habits and in their intelligence that any habitation into which you could put them would soon become vile and loathsome. In fact, he has apparently very little hope of any solid or radical change for the better in the population of East London except through the education of children—a feeling which is, we believe, very common among those who labor among the degraded poor in any large city. One other striking and significant incident of the agitation occurred the other day at a meeting called by Mr. Torrence, who is one of its principal promoters. He recommended emigration as the best remedy for the sores of East London life, but he was cried or hissed down by his audience, who said it was the landed proprietors and capitalists who ought to emigrate. When he talked of the poor, they shouted to him that there ought not to be any poor. Finally, the opposition took possession of the meeting and passed resolutions condemning emigration and demanding the opening of public works by the state, and the colonization of England itself, by which one orator explained that he meant the nationalization of the land as the sole remedy for pauperism.

Why the election of the Rector of St. Andrews by the votes of the students should ever have become an important event, and success in it a distinction which public men covet, it is hard to see, but the fact remains that some of the greatest men in English literature and politics have been competitors for the place and have been glad to get it. Mr. Lowell's success, therefore, achieved as it has been over a distinguished Conservative politician and the ablest speaker of his party in the House of Commons, must be considered a high compliment both to him personally and to American literature. The election serves the excellent purpose of drawing out a carefully prepared address on some literary or political topic from the Rector on his inauguration, and thus furnishes the public with what is usually one of the greatest treats of the year in the way of literary or oratorical performance. The occasion is one on which Mr. Lowell is well fitted to shine, and that he will shine there is no doubt.

The news of Hicks Pasha's defeat continues strongly to impress the English imagination and appears to be causing a real Jingo fever. No deduction from it seems too wild. The *Spectator*, which has always been fond of signs and wonders, believes that the False Prophet's victory is going to set the whole East on fire. "Either," it says, "we misread the Arabs altogether, or in a month the French will be fighting for their lives from Gabes to Morocco." It is very easy to misread the Arabs, however, when one is sitting in London—far easier than to make the French fight for their lives from Gabes to Morocco; and it is safe to predict that the French, a month hence, will be no worse off than they were a month ago. The *Tribune's* old Tory squire, who is as loyal as the Groom of the Stole, we need hardly say, is also full of fight, and sternly rebukes the Radicals and the *Daily News* for their "incredible flippancy in trying to minimize the effect of El Mahdi's victory." If Gladstone does not do his duty in the matter it would not be surprising if the gallant old fellow were to tackle the False Prophet himself.

The most trustworthy account of the condition of Hicks Pasha's force before he started on his expedition is contained in a letter from Major Seckendorf, of the German army, who was with him. The letter was a private one, apparently, and has just appeared in the Vienna *Presse*, from which the contents have been cabled. Hicks Pasha, he says, had only ten thousand men and an enormous baggage train, and not cavalry enough for outpost duty. This deficiency in cavalry he evidently thought likely to work the ruin of the expedition. To the False Prophet he gives fifteen thousand breech-loading rifles, fourteen guns, and a numerous and excellent cavalry. These, in a waterless desert, would have been sufficient to work Hicks's ruin in the long run. His fate, however, seems to have been precipitated by the treachery of a guide, who took him into a defile, where he was soon disposed of. Major Seckendorf thought this victory, if won, would satisfy the natives that the False Prophet was the Messiah and would give him the whole country. The *Daily News* is the only London paper which seems to take a rational view of the disaster by declaring that it ought to teach the Khedive the folly of fighting the False Prophet up in the Sudan. The true policy for Egypt in the present state of its finances and its army is to let the False Prophet alone as long as he is content to stay where he is. There is no place in which a False Prophet can do less harm than around the head waters of the Nile.

General Loring, who was long in the Egyptian service, has had an interview with a *Herald* reporter, in which he confirms our belief when the news of the Egyptian disaster first arrived, that the False Prophet's army was largely made up of exasperated slave-traders, and that his resistance owes most of its force to the determination of slave-traders not to be put down. The notion that there is enough Mussulman fanaticism left anywhere in the East to produce a formidable movement is a chimera. Whenever during the last forty years this fanaticism has been tested for warlike purposes it has been found all but dead. It is undoubtedly useful in giving glow and animation to editorial articles, but for little else.

THE EGYPTIAN DISASTER.

History repeats itself with astonishing rapidity in Egyptian affairs, and to one who has closely watched the march of events during the past decade, the similarity of recent occurrences to those of a few years past must appear marvellously striking. But a few days ago news came that Commander Moncrieff and a contingent of Egyptian troops numbering several hundreds had been destroyed in the immediate vicinity of Suakim. Now, the startling intelligence comes from Khartum that the large force under Hicks Pasha, which was intended to put down El Mahdi, the False Prophet, and restore the Sudan to Egypt—that this force, numbering more than ten thousand men, has been utterly annihilated. Let the reader turn back to the record of events in 1875 and 1876, and hunt up the accounts of the operations of the Egyptians against King John of Abyssinia. Let him read again of the massacre of Munzinger Pasha and his little army of 600, in the vicinity of Tajurrah. Let him note how Munzinger landed at an Egyptian port, marched into the country of the Gallas, so confident of being master of the situation that he even took his wife with him; and how, when a few miles in the interior, near Lake Assal, he was betrayed by his guide, he and his wife killed in their tent, and his force wiped out of existence, with the exception of a few soldiers and one staff officer, who returned, wounded and bleeding, to tell the dreadful tale. This happened in the early part of November, 1875. During the same time a larger expedition was marching into Abyssinia from Massowah. This latter force, numbering between three and four thousand men, splendidly armed with Remington rifles, mountain howitzers, and rockets, and well appointed in every respect, under an officer of the Danish army, Col. Arendrup, seemed for a time to be having everything its own way. It marched nearly one hundred miles from its base of operations; its enemy seemed to melt before its advance, some tribes becoming friends and allies, and others retreating into their mountain fastnesses. But on the 20th of November, 1875 (mark the date), news came to Cairo that Col. Arendrup was betrayed by his allies in a narrow defile near the Mareb River, and butchered with his force almost to a man.

The similarity between these two disasters and those which have so recently shocked the sensibilities of the civilized world must strike every one. As we hear more and more about the Moncrieff and Hicks Pasha massacres we shall probably trace still other and more sickening similitudes. The meagre details of the battle of El Obeid which have reached us up to this writing, represent Hicks Pasha as having been surrounded, in a very bad position, by a great host of barbarians numbering between two and three hundred thousand; that his army of ten thousand Egyptians fought desperately for three days, but at last, overcome by heat, thirst, superior numbers, and *their square being broken*, succumbed, and were ruthlessly slaughtered by their savage and fanatical foes. Now such exactly were the accounts first given of the Arendrup defeat. But an Englishman who happened to be with King John's forces on that occasion, subsequently published a description of the battle of the Mareb, and stated that the Egyptians did not fight at all, with but very few exceptions. The loss inflicted by them upon the Abyssinians was utterly insignificant. Col. Arendrup defended his own person with sword and pistol until hewn down and hacked to pieces; and Count Zecchi, an Italian who was acting as aide-de-camp, shared the same fate. A few of the Turkish officers, and a very small handful of the soldiery, showed manliness enough to resist, being cut to pieces by the rude swords and spears of the Abyssinians; but the great mass of the Egyptian troops were too cowardly to fight and too stupid to run. Such, we fear, will be the true history of the massacre of Hicks Pasha and his 10,000 Egyptians. Such, certainly, was the history of the great Abyssinian expedition under Ratib Pasha, which went with 20,000 men to avenge Arendrup, and had its termination in the inglorious battle of Gura.

Now the question very naturally arises, why is it that the Egyptian soldiery has, of late, at least, been invariably beaten by every foe? That they should not be a match for the trained and tried troops of England, is not a matter of surprise, but that they are utterly unable to cope even with the naked, unarmed, barbarous tribes of blacks which surround them, is truly remarkable. And, in view of the possibility that Lower Egypt may be invaded by the Mahdi and his followers, it is very important that the question, "Will the Egyptian fight?" or "Can he fight?" should be speedily and definitively settled.

The maxim in the art of war that good officers make good soldiers, seems to be completely set at naught by the Egyptian troops. As a matter of fact, it does seem that the Egyptians are utterly lacking in the prime quality of real soldiers, namely, the *fighting quality*. Drill alone will not give this quality, discipline will not impart it. Even courage alone is not by any means its equivalent. It is superior to courage, to drill and to discipline, in the stern struggle for life of actual battle. It is a combination of combativeness, self-reliance, independence, vindictiveness, revengefulness, pride, and numerous other qualities which some might call the more brutal parts of our nature. This fighting quality is almost wholly wanting in women, though some of them are gifted with courage of the loftiest order. It is, however, a part of the nature of a free-born man. Nothing but long continuance of slavery and degradation can wholly eradicate it from a whole people. Have not the Egyptians lost this quality under the long rule of their beys and pashas, under the *corvée* labor system of their Khedives; under the coorbash of their tax-gatherers; under the chains and handcuffs of their recruiting sergeants; under the kicks and blows and abuse of their superiors for so many long generations? An affirmative answer to this question seems to be the only satisfactory explanation of their many recent military disasters, including the latest.

Hicks's defeat was foreshadowed very clearly by the latest despatches of Mr. O'Donovan to the *Daily News* just before the expedition started. It was about to plunge into the desert—or what for an army would be the same thing as a desert—in small force, with scanty supplies, and with troops broken down by bad food and an enervating climate. It had hardly any cavalry too, and consequently can have been but very ill informed as to the whereabouts of the enemy. The False Prophet has always been strong in cavalry, as Arabian prophets usually are, and he had only to compel Hicks to perform the one tactical manœuvre of which his troops were capable, that is, to form in square, and then to keep him in square for two or three days until his men were worn out, in order to have him at his mercy. The whole affair simply illustrates the folly of the attempt (which Ismail Pasha originated), on the part of such a country as Egypt, to annex and hold a region like Sudan. It is, except the few hundred yards along the banks of the Nile, a howling waste with a terrible climate. From the very beginning the Egyptian troops have looked on it as a penal settlement, and on an order to go there almost as a sentence of death. When Arabi Bey found some Circassian colonels guilty of conspiring against him he sentenced them to service on the White Nile, and it was treated as an act of great barbarity. We may imagine, therefore, with what feelings the remnant of Arabi's army, after his defeat, went up there to chase the False Prophet under Hicks Pasha.

It must be said, however, that the Egyptians are not wholly to blame for the annexation. Ever since Sir Samuel Baker explored the upper Nile fourteen or fifteen years ago, the duty of suppressing the slave trade, of which Khartum is the great centre, has been impressed upon the Egyptian Government in the strongest terms, both by politicians and philanthropists, and it was under this stimulation that the attempt at real annexation was made. Sir Samuel Baker himself tried his hand at it in command of an Egyptian force and was not particularly successful. Those who have followed him have fared no better—Hicks Pasha worse than any. As long as the troops keep to the Nile all goes well, but they cannot catch the slave-traders by keeping to the Nile. As soon as they go after them into the interior their great difficulty is to keep alive. The proportion of the False Prophet's army which consists of religious fanatics is probably small and contemptible, but he has been undoubtedly reinforced by large bodies of Mussulman slave traders, who are the "bosses" of that region. They all command a small force, with which they make their raids on the negroes further south, are rich, influential, inured to long marches, and capable of doing excellent service as irregulars. They have now probably combined to get rid of the Egyptian pest which has so long been interfering with their traffic by breaking up their markets in the large towns. It is extremely doubtful whether there is any power in the world which can accomplish in

Sudan what Hicks undertook. There are no white troops which could stand a campaign there. There is not, as there was in Central Asia when the Russians invaded it, any government or political organization the overthrow of which would deliver the country into the hands of the invader. The best that can be accomplished by way of suppressing the slave trade is the holding of the large towns on the river with garrisons sufficiently large to take care of themselves, to prevent the opening of slave markets.

RELIGIOUS STATISTICS.

THE broken victuals left over from the "Symposium" of the *North American Review*, given last summer on the question of the decadence of Christianity in our country, have furnished forth lunches, of varying degrees of coldness, in the columns of several periodicals. No doubt the most forcible presentation of the case, from the standpoint of those who deny that the church is losing her hold, is the appeal to statistics made by Dr. Ward in the discussion alluded to. The figures then adduced were chiefly based on the researches of Dr. Dorchester, in the "Problem of Religious Progress." In the *Independent* of Nov. 15, Dr. Ward presents compilations of his own, bringing the statistics down to date. The *Century* has contributed to the question the results of test inquiries made with a view of determining the religious position of the leading business men of several cities and towns. If the totals reached by these writers cannot be impeached, and if the inference drawn from the figures cannot be shown to be misleading, they have, certainly, made out an excellent case.

But there are several points at which these statistics are open to suspicion and attack. It is notorious that nearly every individual church, as well as every considerable denomination, has upon its records the names of many persons whom it reports as communicants, yet who have no right to be numbered among our distinctively Christian population. Some of them have lapsed from the faith and never show their faces inside a church, out of sheer indifference and unbelief. Others are non-resident, who may be dead, or agnostics, or members of other churches, for all that any one knows, and yet their names stand in the books year after year. How large a percentage is embraced in this class, it is impossible to say. It is well known, however, that one of the constantly recurring questions in ecclesiastical assemblies, which somehow never seem to get settled, is the question of how to go to work to "purge the rolls." The Dutch Reformed church tried it, last year, and came out with a considerable diminution in its membership, which, it is safe to say, other denominations would experience to an equal degree if they undertook to "purge." The New York *Observer* recently took the leaders of its own denomination to task for not setting about a reform of the Church statistics, boldly asserting that a very large percentage of the returned total membership of the Presbyterian church—nearly one-third, if memory serves—was merely "drifting." In addition to these misleading aspects of the statistics is to be noted the fact that in the totals are often embraced the communicants of foreign-mission churches, who are all counted in to swell the numbers of Christians in the United States.

These considerations serve to show that those who confidently point to the "facts" ought to exercise greater care in collecting their figures before they build so much upon them. But even granting the statistics to be all that is claimed for them, one of the confident and sweeping inferences based upon them, as well as one of the collateral hypotheses brought in to help out the argument, can be shown to rest upon an incomplete generalization. Here we must direct attention to a fact whose bearing has not been noticed in these discussions, the fact that the practice of admitting children to full membership in Protestant churches has come to be almost universal. Forty years ago it was an innovation, an exceptional thing. The Scotch have not not yet given up the old idea that it was all very well to make children attend church services and be filled with all fulness of the Westminster Catechism, but that to join the church and take the sacrament were things for serious and mature minds alone. With us all that is changed. A very considerable percentage of the membership of the so-called evangelical churches is made up of children under sixteen years. A writer in the *Evangelist* recently described a Presbyterian church in Troy, which made a practice of receiving into membership children of seven to nine years of age. Exact figures are, of course, unattainable, but no one conversant with the case will dispute that the practice is of recent date, or that large numbers of children are to be found among the communicants reported by the churches.

Let us now see how this fact vitiates an inference of Dr. Dorchester, in which he is followed by others. The inference is to the effect that American Protestantism has grown faster than the population. According to him the population has increased, since 1880, 9.4 fold, while Protestantism has increased 27.5 fold. Or, since 1850, the increase of the population has been 116 per cent., while the communicants of Protestant churches have gained 185 per cent. But in this comparison he entirely overlooks the fact we have referred to, that the churches now take into their membership elements which once they did not. The basis of comparison has changed. In 1800 there was one communicant to fourteen inhabitants, according to Dr. Dorchester; in 1880, one in five. But when we remember that the church has now taken in two or three of the fourteen who, if the lines were drawn as they once were, would still be numbered among the non-communicants, we see that the force of the exhibit is quite broken. With this inference also falls as unsound the common hypothesis that, in order to come at the total Protestant population, we must multiply the total communicants by four. "Three children and adherents to each communicant is not a large ratio," says the *Independent*. Thus the ten million and a half communicants are transformed into forty-two millions and a half Protestant population. The whole argument turns on this assumption, and it is tacitly assumed that the old order of things still rules, and that communicants mean adult communicants. With so many children within the church, why make so generous an estimate of those without? The United States Commissioner of Education, in his report for 1881, gives the total school population as fifteen and a half millions. The average "school age" is a little over fourteen years. Many children, under that age, are in the Protestant churches. Yet, making no allowance for these, the *Independent* needs at least twenty millions of children, all Protestant, to help out its estimate. It well says, we "must get at the census reports."

It would seem that it must be a very firm conviction that the figures depended upon have been made trustworthy by careful scrutiny and sifting, which could lead one to believe, in spite of all appearances to the contrary, that one in five of our population is a communicant member of a Protestant church. It surely verges on credulity to go further, and say that only a little over a million of all our inhabitants are to be classed as neither Catholic nor Protestant church members or adherents. This leads us to mention certain evidence that, however it may be with the wealthy classes, the poor, the working classes, are drifting away from the Protestant churches with alarming rapidity. Our modern apologists have departed from the position of Paul and Justin, and, unlike them, prove that their faith is not decaying by pointing to the many mighty, the many noble, the many wise, who are its adherents. Either they are wrong, or the Christian historians are who have taught us that the surest hold of a religion is upon the poor; that it mattered not if the luxurious Roman nobles rejected and scorned the religion of Jesus, as long as it was finding a home in the hearts of the great masses of the poor; that the Reformation failed in Spain, where it had many champions among the rich and cultured, and succeeded in Germany largely because it won the support of men like Luther, though peasants. Here is the greatest weakness of American Protestantism. Either by increase of luxury or by loss of earnest belief, it is getting further and further away from the life of the poor.

We can but indicate the lines of proof of this assertion. Only the merest fraction of this great influx of foreigners is reached. There are, probably, 20,000 Bohemians in the city of Chicago alone, and it is not known that a single Protestant mission has been established among them. Part of them are Catholics, after a fashion, the most are agnostics, atheists, or what you please. The fantastic methods of the Salvation Army are tolerated, even endorsed, by leading Protestants, for one reason, and only one—the hope that in some way the poor of our cities can be Christianized. The Protestant churches themselves, by their ordinary methods, despair of doing the work. When Senator Blair, of the Senate Committee on Labor and Education, asked as to the Evangelical faith of workingmen, the answer is reported to have been that "a large majority are unbelievers." We can but believe that the statistical showing we have

referred to is greatly misleading. We are sure that those who are set for the defence of Christianity ought to consider, more fully and fairly than they have yet done, the serious menace to the Protestant Church which is seen in the alienation of the poor.

CONVERSATION AS IT IS.

It is one of the favorite criticisms of elderly people upon the manners and customs of the present day that conversation is dying out. The complaint is not confined to this country, but is beginning to be heard in England as well, that there are no really good talkers left; that talking is not cultivated; that every year there are more people in society who care little or nothing about conversation.

A very little observation, however, is sufficient to show that there has been no falling off in the volume of conversation. There is really, probably, more conversation nowadays than ever before. Dinner-tables may be taken as a test, and nobody who has had to go to a dinner party can fairly complain that there has been any real lack of conversation at it. Probably at any one of the big dinners that take place in New York to-night, there will be just as much language used in the course of the evening as there ever was at a dinner at Holland house in the palmiest days of Sydney Smith and Macaulay. In truth, there will probably be more, for in their day the great principle of simultaneity in conversation, as we may call it, had not been discovered, and it was still supposed that two people could not with advantage talk at once—a delusion which led to great bitterness of feeling among the accomplished talkers of the time, there being nothing more exasperating than the necessity of listening to another, with an air of polite attention, when you not merely do not want to hear what he is saying, but have something that you want to say very much yourself. How many of the caustic and cutting *mots* and repartees of the last generation must have been due to the reaction from the suffering caused by this enforced silence. There is no more pleasant feature of modern society than the unwillingness of its leaders to hurt one another's feelings by wit; indeed, wit as a conversational weapon has almost passed out of use. But nothing has promoted the good humor of society so much as the practice, which, like so many other pleasant innovations, we probably owe in the first instance to women, of several people talking at once.

It has often been noticed that women find no difficulty in simultaneous conversation. When two or more women meet, no one of them thinks it necessary to wait until the conclusion of the remarks of a speaker before rejoining or replying. On the contrary, all begin at once, and talk together, without any apparent attention being paid by any one to the remarks of any other. Nevertheless, at the end, they all appear to have an idea sufficiently accurate for their purposes of what has been said to them. This practice formerly used to be brought into ridicule by male writers of novels and plays, but of late years women have introduced it into use to a far greater extent than is commonly supposed. Among them it answers to "general conversation among men, and men, though they have not yet developed any great aptitude for it, evidently have begun to like it in women, for they always encourage it by sympathy and laughter, and in time men too will probably become experts in it. The more progress made in this direction, the more actual conversation there will be, and one of the greatest obstacles to general social expression will be removed. The only stumbling-block that can be suggested is the effect of the noise on the nerves, and this is not and never has been minded by women. The nervous organization of man is so much coarser than that of the other sex, that it is absurd to say that a taste for noise or tumult, which women actually enjoy, is beyond the reach of men.

All this goes to show that conversation, instead of being on the wane, is really on the increase, which tallies entirely with the view taken by Carlyle of the subject, and accounts too for the failure of his effort to reduce the rest of the world to silence by his own unremitting talk. The day for that was gone by, as he found, and as all those who imitate him will find. It is on the whole impossible to understand the cry that conversation is dying out, except on the supposition that those who make the complaint have in view not so much a diminution of the quantity, as the deterioration of the quality of conversation, and this view of the subject needs consideration.

Conversation, according to the view formerly taken of it, undoubtedly meant to a certain degree a discussion of subjects. What these subjects were must always have depended on the character and circumstances of those who took part in it. Their general object, however, always was to discover some subject of common interest, political, literary, social, or merely frivolous, and the avoidance of subjects which possessed no common interest. It is at this point that the new theory of conversation again diverges from the old, and introduces a most important innovation. This is, that for real enjoyment the true rule is not to waste time in trying to find common subjects, but to set to work talking about the subject that is most dear to and most carefully studied by every human being — himself or herself, as the case may be. The world, everybody knows, is divided into the Ego (as we should say, the Me) and the non-Ego (or the not-Me). This is a proposition of which every one, from a German metaphysician to a Tammany heeler, feels the truth the moment it is brought to his attention, and the difference between the modern and the old theories of conversation hinges upon it. The old idea was that conversation ought to be confined to the non-Ego. The modern theory makes its principal subject the Ego. If you notice, as anybody may sometimes be compelled to notice, the conversation of older people who have got in their day a reputation for talking well, you perceive at once that they avoid the very subject that you talk best and oftenest about—your own private feelings, ideas, hopes, prejudices, habits, fancies, and tastes; what you like best to eat and drink; what you care to do or not to do; what you wear and how much you pay for it; your family, your husband, wife, or children, and what wonderfully clever, or good, or fast, or religious people they really are when you know them—all matters carefully to be avoided on the old theory, as likely to be generally uninteresting or even offensive, not to the talker, but to the listener. We see no reason to believe that they are generally offensive to him any longer. They are universally accepted topics of conversation, and we know of no scene of modern life which shows in a stronger light the progress of human sympathy and kindly fellow-feeling than a room full of people all talking about themselves—many simultaneously. If it is true that fifty years ago such conversation would not have been regarded as endurable, then all that can be said is that the fact is a remarkable proof of the enlargement of this field of intellectual activity. And yet this is undoubtedly what elderly people call the decline of conversation.

POLITICAL INFLUENCE OF THE PRESS IN ENGLAND.

London, November, 1883.

The most considerable changes in the social or even in the political life of a country are sometimes those which are least noticed while they are in progress—perhaps because they are very gradual, perhaps because in some cases they do not affect directly any institution, but those habits of thought and action which are much more impalpable. Indications are not wanting that such a change is now passing on the political influence of English journalism. It was very powerful a few years ago, and most observers predicted for it a continuance or even an increase of its power. That power seems to be now on the wane. I do not mean that the newspaper press is less able or less upright than formerly. Setting aside the so-called "society journals," a new and painful feature in our periodical literature, the tone of the English press, its independence, its incorruptibility, compare favorably with those of any other European country. Such *chantage* as exists in France, such subjection to clique influence as exists in Italy, is unknown here. Nor does the literary merit of the writing which fills our papers seem to have declined. There are five or six dailies in London, and eight or nine in other cities, whose articles are both in substance and in form up to the best average level of any former generation, although there may be no single writer so brilliant as one or two whom our fathers admired. Still less can it be suggested that newspapers are less read than formerly. They are read not only more widely than anywhere else in Europe, but much more than ever before in Britain itself. Women read them more generally, and the number of persons who in every great town purchase an evening—usually a halfpenny—as well as a morning paper, is always increasing. The view which I am stating is that the weight and authority of the press, and especially of the daily press, is declining; that it does not count for so much, as a factor in our politics, as it did twenty years ago. It is difficult to distinguish between the influence of a newspaper as enforcing its own views, and the importance to be attached to it as indicating the views of those for whom it is written—as the expression, in other words, of a clever editor's notion of what it is that large sections of the people are thinking and desiring to hear. Most people do not draw the distinction, and quite naturally, because the authority of a paper depends more largely on the belief that it can divine public opinion than on any confidence in its own wisdom and foresight. To put it shortly, what I mean is, when a newspaper urges or dep-

recates any line of conduct, or sustains or condemns any opinion, its advocacy makes less difference to the fate of that line of conduct or opinion than would have been the case, say, twenty years ago. People note the fact of its attitude—more people note it, because more read; but they care less about it, and are less disposed to shape their own acts or views accordingly.

To convey to readers at a distance a just idea of the impressions which lead one who lives in England to think this a probably true generalization, would be far from easy. One may be pretty sure of a conclusion, more sure than I can profess to be of this one, and yet be unable to set forth, even to one's own mind, all the grounds it rests on. I will mention a few facts which bear on the matter and indicate the conclusions they point to. One is the great increase in the number and importance of political speeches delivered out of Parliament. Not so long ago, in fact down to 1876, an epoch making year in our recent party history, the harangues which were addressed to the inhabitants of the towns, even the great towns, were given by local men. The member delivered at least one every year, the active and aspiring local politicians gave others whenever an occasion arose which seemed to call for a public manifesto; and when any large measure was exciting the country, and required a sort of campaign to advocate it, lecturers were brought down who added their voices to those of the orators of the spot. It was a somewhat unusual and remarkable event when a statesman of the first or even of the second rank went to a place with which he had no personal connection to address the electors on public affairs. Nowadays such addresses are almost as much part of a statesman's work as his attendance in Parliament. The Parliamentary recess, which used to be a vacation, now merely changes the sphere of his toils from Westminster to the country. From the middle of October till Parliament meets in February, the fire of speeches is kept briskly up all over the three kingdoms, and the eminence of many of the speakers causes their words to be reported in all the newspapers. This is a serious addition to the already heavy burdens of English public life. It is, all things considered, a doubtful benefit, for it tends to keep up a sort of factitious excitement, and to disturb those intervals of repose which the mind of a nation, as well as the minds of individuals, profits by. But it has the advantage of giving a great deal of political education to the classes which care about politics. And in proportion as it does so, it encroaches on the function which the newspaper editor formerly had to himself during the recess, and makes that function relatively less important. A speech by a well-known statesman is likely to be as readable as a leading article in a newspaper, and is made more weighty by the speaker's position and responsibility. The ordinary citizen judges it for himself, and depends less and less on what his editor tells him. His judgment grows more independent; and, though he reads the paper as much as or more than he ever did before, he is apt to be less guided by it.

Another fact of moment is the greater relative importance which the press outside London has obtained of late years. Formerly it was only the London dailies that were supposed to exercise any considerable influence, or which were looked to to discover the sentiments of great parties. Now there are daily journals in some of the great cities—in Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Birmingham, Newcastle, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dundee—which are as ably conducted as their London rivals, and which represent just as fairly the sentiments of large sections of the population. They divide the influence of the press, and though none of them addresses so large an audience over all England as the *Times*, or *Standard*, or *Daily News*, or *Pall Mall Gazette*, their rise has sensibly affected the authority which those organs used to wield. Anybody who should think that he had got an adequate notion of British opinion by reading the London dailies would grossly err; and it amuses us here to see the way in which people in France and Germany continue to quote the *Times* and the *Standard* as authoritative exponents of tendencies of English opinion, when they might almost as well quote the Manchester *Examiner* or the Liverpool *Post*.

This change is of course more perceptible in the rest of the United Kingdom than in London, where only London papers are read, whereas elsewhere many people read both a London paper and a local one. Yet even in London the knowledge that the local press has grown abler and stronger affects the reader's mind. He knows that his London organ does not count for so much in the North or the West as it once did. He remembers that the majority of the London papers have several times lately been hopelessly wrong in their judgment of the thoughts and intentions of the nation. During the later part of Lord Beaconsfield's reign, his foreign policy was supported by the *Times*, the *Standard*, the *Daily Telegraph*, and the *Pall Mall Gazette* (which was then practically, although not nominally, a Conservative organ). The *Daily News* was the only morning daily paper of consequence (for the *Daily Chronicle* had not then reached its present position) which disapproved of the Tory policy. All the others declared, and believed, that the country was heartily with it. Yet the country decisively condemned it at the general election of 1880. Such a catastrophe has shaken the confidence of the Londoner in the infallibility of his advisers.

Further—although this is a point which may be deemed more doubtful—the press has become in the last two decades less impersonal than formerly. Everybody who cares to know can know who are the editors of all leading papers, whether in London or elsewhere, and even to some extent who are the chief writers on the staff of those papers. The articles they contain are therefore more and more regarded as expressing the opinions of this or that man—almost invariably an able man, whose opinion is well worth having, but, after all, only the opinion of an individual, or, if you add the editor to the leading-article writer, of two individuals. England is becoming so much smaller a country than formerly that the familiarity with the *personnel* of newspapers, as of other institutions, which used to be confined to a few people, and those in the capital, is now pretty widely diffused. Besides, we have so many political articles in so many magazines and reviews bearing the names of eminent persons, that the multitude of counsellors emancipates the public from its dependence on any. When a thinker or politician writes in a magazine under his name, as most now do, he does not claim to speak *ex cathedra*, but addresses arguments or appeals to the people, and makes them the judges of what he says. They acquire the habit of judging, and this habit reacts on their attitude toward the anonymous oracle of the breakfast-table. He too is judged, he is disagreed with more readily, and when he is agreed with it is with far less deference than would once have been accorded.

This seems to be the tendency which now rules in England, and which (as has been said) coexists with a rise in the moral strength and intellectual vivacity of the press throughout the country. As it has no bad effect on the press, nor prevents it from continuing to attract first-rate ability, it is probably a good tendency, rendering ordinary people somewhat more independent and less at the mercy of concealed advisers. It might become an evil if it went so far as to render men indifferent to the political part of their newspapers, but of this there is no sign. Leading articles are perhaps not so long as they used to be—several papers have taken to writing short smart ones; but as large a part of the paper is occupied by political subjects, and as much of its literary capacity is devoted to that department. The falling off is rather in the Parliamentary reports, which have now become very meagre except in the *Times*, and which even there deal liberally only with some eight or ten of the leading men. Parliament has doubtless overtaxed the patience of the country, and the newspapers are giving it a deserved punishment.

Y.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF CHARLES DE RÉMUSAT—I.

PARIS, Nov. 8, 1883.

THE Memoirs of Mme. de Rémusat have met with much success. They have thrown considerable light on the life of Bonaparte during the years of his Consulate and at the period of the establishment of the Empire. The son of Mme. de Rémusat, M. Charles de Rémusat had inherited all the amiable qualities of his mother. He took much part in the political life of France, under the reign of Louis Philippe, and became one of the lieutenants of M. Thiers. His philosophical and literary works, which are numerous, gave him a place in the French Academy, though they are probably not destined to live long. There are some men who are better than their books, others of whom it can be said that their books are better than themselves. M. de Rémusat belonged to the first class. His conversation was charming, he was winning, persuasive, clever; his books are somewhat misty and dull; his philosophy (for he was a philosopher) has no precise features. His works on Saint Anselm of Canterbury, on Abelard, on Bacon, are not exhaustive; his dramas (for he wrote two dramas), called "Abelard" and "Saint-Ber-thélemy," have not much life or movement.

Men like M. Charles de Rémusat, who are not found in their books, sometimes are found in their correspondence, as letters have often all the liberty, the familiarity, the ease of conversation. M. de Rémusat was the most brilliant of talkers; we have, therefore, perused with the greatest eagerness the first volume of his correspondence, which has just been published by his son, M. Paul de Rémusat. This first volume contains only letters which were written during the first years of the Restoration. This period, which followed the First Empire, has hitherto only been described by historians; its familiar life is hardly known, though it is so near us. We only have the amusing memoirs of M. Beugnot, as the memoirs of Talleyrand are still unpublished; Chateaubriand gives us some interesting details in his "Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe." The collection of memoirs on the nineteenth century is not yet very rich; and it may be that few "memoirs" are written in times when the newspapers give us daily details on all men and things.

The correspondence opens with a letter of Mme. de Rémusat's (the author of the Memoirs) to her son Charles, who is still at school in a *lycée*. The allied troops had just entered Paris;

young Rémusat had read Chateaubriand's pamphlet 'Bonaparte et les Bourbons,' and had judged it very severely, and his mother reprimands him for speaking lightly of a man "who belongs to a respectable family, and who bears a name revered in France." Mme. de Rémusat approves of Chateaubriand's book, and will not even call it a pamphlet. "Your father and I have seen much of the Emperor. God is my witness that I have always forgiven him the harm he did me, but I have cruelly felt the harm which he did France. I have often seen your poor father, when we were alone in the evening, moved to tears, and inclined to leave him, but kept in his post by the idea that, in bearing everything, he worked for our future. Three months ago your father and I called for the reaction which has just taken place. It destroys our own situation; still it was the object of our desire." This was the moment when the marshals and generals had forced the Emperor to abdicate. The Emperor had struggled in vain. He had in vain made reservations for his son. The Senate had voted the reëstablishment of the ancient monarchy. "Paris," writes Mme. de Rémusat to her son, "is full of French soldiers, who ask for bread; the Russian soldiers give them some of their own. Yesterday the conscription was abolished."

Young Rémusat was very precocious and clever. He wrote verses after the fashion of the poets of the eighteenth century. He left college in 1815, and was living with his father and mother in Paris when Bonaparte came back from Elba. On his journey the Emperor signed several decrees, and among them one exiling several persons. In the number was M. de Rémusat, who left immediately for Toulouse, where his wife and his son Charles joined him some time afterwards. While he was alone in Toulouse, Mme. de Rémusat wrote him some curious letters. "The Emperor works much; he shows himself, walks in the streets, holds reviews, holds many councils, shows great calmness. . . . It is said, he is much struck by the progress which the liberal spirit has made in France." The *Moniteur* published at that time some letters addressed by Talleyrand to Louis XVIII., when the King was still in England, and speaking of M. de Rémusat as of a man who could give him very valuable information on men and things, and advising him to keep him in his household. This note was known at the time by Napoleon, and was the cause of the decree which exiled M. de Rémusat from Paris.

Young Charles also wrote to his father. He was then, what we have always known him since, inclined to argue without any *parti-pris*, fond of paradoxes, caring little for his own opinions (if he had any opinions of his own), very sceptical, and having at the same time a *fonds* of invincible liberalism of a vague sort; ever ready to speak well of his enemies, and, what is more, to think well of them, ready also to criticise his friends—fugacious, gentle, yet obstinate, on the whole a very singular and extraordinary character. In 1815, before the invasion, he writes: "It seems to me that the chances for peace are more numerous than a few days ago." He writes also: "You know I have no ambition, and, if I can only pay 1,000 francs taxes, I am satisfied." To pay a thousand francs taxes was then to be eligible to the Chamber of Deputies.

Mme. de Rémusat was with her son in the South, at Lafitte, in the middle of June. She accepted cheerfully her exile from Paris; she enjoyed the rusticity of the old château, her pigs, her hens, the distant view of the Pyrenees, the great plain dotted with villages. She devoted most of her time to her son Charles, who wrote, read Homer and Virgil, made songs, and bore his new life with much philosophy. She says to Mme. de Nansouty: "Always the same calm, the same pure sky; the fields become more yellow, and they occupy everybody in the country. . . . There is not a peasant who does not cast a melancholy look on his fields when they speak to him of marching on the enemy." Mme. de Rémusat sometimes makes deep reflections almost unconsciously: "My dear, the more I observe the inhabitants of the country, who are the great mass of the population, the more I see how few means of understanding there are between them and those who govern. . . . Out of three millions of men, two and a half, at least, do not understand anything in those speeches composed with so much care, those writings dictated or prepared in the room of any sovereign you choose. . . . A peasant asked me yesterday if it was true that the Emperor would marry the Duchess of Angoulême, and adopt the King, in order that the Spaniards should not cross the Adour."

The battle of Waterloo ended the exile of the Rémusats. Talleyrand was again minister, and by his influence M. de Rémusat had been named prefect of the Haute-Garonne. He went to Toulouse, and found there another prefect, appointed by the Duke of Angoulême. The disorder of the times explains such confusion. The letters of his wife show how ardent was the reaction against the Empire and its supporters. In the Royalist camp there were two parties—the pure Royalists, the partisans of the Duke of Angoulême, and the supporters of the Constitution. Charles de Rémusat went to Paris at the end of 1815, and began his law studies. His correspondence with his mother became regular from that moment. The young student writes to her about Marshal Ney: "M. Berryer has spoken as badly as possible; he is a lawyer *dans toute la force du terme*." This judgment of Berryer seems singularly harsh. The divisions in the South were furious. On his way through Nîmes, the Duke of Angoulême ordered that the Protestant churches should be opened. The Catholics of the town resisted the order, and in the tumult General Lagarde was struck by a ball. "We are in France," says Mme. de Rémusat, "the dupes of words. We have made Jacobins of our *Fédérés*, *Fédérés* of our Protestants, Huguenots of our Protestants. It seems as if we were again in the time of the League. I do not despair of hearing people speak, one of these days, of Albigenses. It seems very natural that the Catholics should have shut the Protestant churches in Nîmes, or burnt the houses of the Protestant merchants who lived there, and turned them out of town. People do not even blame much the murder of General Lagarde [who fortunately did not die from his wound], and are surprised that Monseigneur should come to the rescue of the *infidels* and of a French general." Passions, even now, run very high in Nîmes, and there is always a religious undercurrent in the politics of some cities of the South.

Speaking of the trial of Ney, Charles writes to his mother: "It is believed that the accused will be executed when you receive this letter. It appears that he will be beheaded. [Marshal Ney was shot in the Garden of the Luxembourg.] But it would not do for little ladies, at their firesides, to lift their blue eyes to the sky, and say: 'What a sweet satisfaction!'" From Toulouse, Mme. de Rémusat continued to direct every step of her son. She knew every book he read. There was between them the most amiable intimacy. He told her all the political news, reported what he heard at M. Pasquier's, M. Molé's, at Mme. de Rumford's. (She had been Mme. Lavoisier, and had married Rumford after the death of her first husband.) Speaking of Humboldt, whom he saw at Mme. de Rumford's, he says: "He is a great talker, and an amusing one. It vexed me when I heard him, with a sort of generosity, pitying France, praising her, defending her, and attacking the policy of his own government on every point, with a tone of contempt." Of Mme. Récamier, he says: "I found her handsome, but not more so than others. She said nothing, or only a few words, so I took her for a young person, recently married, during the first part of the visit, and I was dumbfounded when I heard her name. She seems always to want people to think that she is herself. Understand, if you can."

The letters of the mother at this time are decidedly better than those of the son: they have much grace, much fluidity of thought and of expression. Her *esprit* is of the best sort: "Between sovereigns one speaks only *à coups de canon*, and we have no guns left. The coming generation will repair this." Speaking of the last century, she says: "It was still possible then to say: 'le bontemps que le siècle de fer' [a verse of Voltaire's]; now we can say nothing at all." Speaking of constitutional government, she says: "We have only the façade of English institutions; when we look behind, we don't understand anything."

Correspondence.

TRADE-UNION MORALITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with what appeared in your columns on Thursday in regard to "Trade-Union Morality," I should like to call your attention and that of your readers to the following, which appears from time to time in the *Star* of this city:

"HOUSE PAINTERS.—At the last meeting of the Union it was decided to boycott the *Post* until it becomes a Union paper, and request all persons that support said paper to stop the same or you will refuse to deal with them. By order of the Painters' Union."

Persons of wealth who are intending to reside in Washington will either be compelled to bring well-principled tradesmen here, or be prepared for insult, for work undertaken and relinquished at will, or for wilful injury to property whenever it is discovered that a patron is not on the side of the "Union."

Very truly yours,

Caroline H. Dall.

Washington, D. C., November 23, 1883.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to express my admiration and gratitude for the excellent article which occupies the leading position in this week's *Nation*. If one were to write you whenever those feelings were excited in a very high degree by the *Nation's* utterances, he would impose an insufferable burden upon your time; but one may perhaps be excused for giving expression to them in this instance, where a personal element enters into the matter, and where nevertheless that combination of lucidity and force and lofty morality, with moderation and humanity, which the *Nation* has made familiar to its readers, is so conspicuously present. It is sad to reflect how much the condition of mankind could be improved, both materially and morally, if men in general could feel a tithe of the spirit which animates your article; but one may trust that even a single article like yours, coming home to men's hearts as only that which arises from concrete

facts can, is capable of permanently impressing some, at least, of its readers with truer views of the rights and duties of both laborers and capitalists.—Sincerely yours,

FABIAN FRANKLIN.

BALTIMORE, Nov. 23, 1883.

COLLEGE SOCIETIES AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article in the *Nation* of Nov. 15th concerning "The Senior Society Evil at Yale" so interested me, in common with the great majority of students here, that I ask space to bring out some few facts but briefly hinted at in the former article. At once I hasten to correct an opinion, which seems to have crept into the minds of many, that the real appreciation of this evil is confined to those outside the societies, and perhaps is strongest among those who but just failed of an election. Such, however, is not the case. The societies create an aristocracy, false though it be, and apparently are so powerful that it is only in very rare instances that men are unselfish and brave enough to sacrifice what seems likely to be of great personal advantage for the sake of what they themselves believe to be the best interest of Yale. I know of men, now forever silent on the question since they are of the elect, who were saying in the words of one member, spoken just before election: "I tell you, senior societies are the moral rottenness of Yale College, and I shall *think* the same after I get in." There have been refusals of an election—yes, and there have been men, even after election, and when the system in all its moral wrong and political chicanery became known to them, who were brave enough to resign such questionable honor.

We can only judge of these societies by their results, and by the influence which they exert over the College. From the entrance in freshman year, so soon as the power of these societies has begun to be realized by the incoming class, and the means of obtaining an election have begun to be appreciated, the whole energy of a goodly number is bent upon securing this one end. And, alas, in the great majority of instances the means employed are those of "jolly good-fellowship," which, in the language of fact, is simply dissipation and indolence. I know of men whose whole moral nature has been radically changed simply from their endeavors to remain intimate with the "gang" who manage the elections, and to remain in whose good graces demands a sympathy in their tastes and practices which are too often of a dubious nature. The most actively religious man in college to-day said to me: "There can be no doubt that so far as college position goes, the man who drinks has a great advantage over the temperate man."

That men will so forget their self-respect and gentlemanly instincts as to lose independence of word and action, and almost of thought, in order carefully to refrain from creating any adverse opinion among the society men of the senior class, is a lamentable but well-known fact. As I looked out on the campus, but a day or two ago, I had pointed out to me a prominent member of the senior class. "That man," said an old friend and chum of his, "is a totally different man to-day from what he would have been had senior societies not existed here. From his freshman year he has worked in every conceivable manner to improve his 'chances,' and it has changed him completely." This is but one example taken from a score.

Did I dare trespass upon your space further, I should like to leave for a moment the moral side of the question, and with the former writer speak of the *absolute* control of the College press; and of the support of the Faculty, who, among the younger members, in many instances ridiculously show their society pins upon their vests to the admiring undergraduates. I would speak, too, of the lack of interest in literature and athletics, except as they can be used for a means to secure the desired end; but I forbear to speak of these. At least there is no graduate of this college who does not fully understand and appreciate the facts herein stated, and they are but the incomplete examples of a long list of facts disgraceful and detrimental to "old Yale."

The time has come when such evils, long kept from the light, demand examination, and, in the name of the undergraduates here at Yale, I also call upon Alumni, Corporation, and Faculty for a careful investigation, and such action as shall then become necessary. SENIOR.

YALE COLLEGE, Nov. 19, 1883.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is with deep regret that the students of Yale read the communication in your last number with the above heading. Such an article does very great harm to the College, and accomplishes no compensating good, while it fails altogether to express the sentiments of the students or, presumably, of the Faculty.

There is now no ill-feeling against the societies except among the very small number in the senior class who constitute the sorehead element. Does the author wish to bring back the state of feeling that prevailed four or five years ago, when hostilities were so bitter that the locks and fences of the society halls were broken? In these feuds, whichever side gains the victory, the College suffers the harm.

By looking only at the faults of the societies, by exaggerating and misstating facts, your correspondent has drawn a gloomy picture, well calculated to deceive any one who is not intimately acquainted with the true state of affairs here. I shall not attempt to refute his arguments in detail, but one or two seem important enough to deserve a word of explanation.

It ought to be the glory of Yale journalism that such an article as your correspondent's cannot appear in any of the College publications. There are thirteen secret societies here, and more than one hundred other organizations of an athletic, literary, or social character, and not one of them is ever attacked by any Yale publication. It was not many years ago that the College papers were open to such articles, and much ill-feeling and harm to the College was the result. We earnestly hope that the papers will continue in their present course in this respect. So much for the freedom of the press.

Your correspondent says that the quality of study deteriorates after the senior society elections. Of course it does. The elections occur in the latter part of May, when the weather is warm, athletic sports are flourishing, and "spring fever" affects us all more or less. The Faculty tacitly acknowledge the increased difficulty of study by decreasing more or less the amount of study required in *all the classes*. It is nonsense to charge this to the senior societies.

In other cases your correspondent has obviously allowed the personal prejudice or the sorehead feeling of graduates to form the basis of his argument against the societies. You can make an argument against anything in that way.

He has by no means thrown the burden of proof on the other side. Societies to which "half" the Faculty belong; to which the most distinguished graduates, ministers, lawyers, men of business, return with the utmost pleasure year after year; of which the best men in every class are glad to become members; to which religious men can consistently belong—such societies are not to be condemned with no more authority than the word of a man whose manner of relating facts strongly provokes us to suspect his motives.

The writer is not a member of any secret society, and does not expect to be.

M. M.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, "Yale," is entitled to the thanks of all interested in the welfare of colleges and college students for his statements concerning the evils caused by the secret societies of Yale College. But what he says applies with local variations to Harvard College, where the secret societies have also become a nuisance. Offensive class distinctions are fostered by them, and their initiations combine the barbarous and the ridiculous, and, to a considerable extent, take the place of "hazing" for many to whom that old-fashioned amusement, so long tolerated and half approved by former generations, would be a delight. Many young men spend a large part of their time in trying to ingratiate themselves with those who control the elections, interfering seriously with their studies and not improving their characters. Those who confine themselves to one clique in a class lose in large degree the opportunity of the study of the wide range of character that a college class affords, and their experiences and sympathies are of a narrower range.

Of course, one must in some way learn to resist temptation, but boys fresh from great boarding-schools, where they are subject to the tyranny of certain members of their class, or to its strange public opinion, are too much in the moral condition of sheep that follow their leader in jumping over a wall, to be exposed needlessly to the trials that beset adult life.

It seems hopeless to appeal to the good sense of the undergraduates themselves; the graduates are often inclined to look with favor on an abuse in which in earlier days they shared, while the governments of the colleges, which have at times prohibited secret societies, hesitate to apply such a remedy, which, like prohibition of drinking, is very imperfectly effective. It may be desirable that parents should forbid their sons joining these secret societies, which often do much harm. I know that it is not the fashion for parents to forbid, but they can control in this matter by ceasing to pay bills, and colleges are largely dependent upon graduates and parents of graduates for funds. I fear that nothing but an appeal to a public opinion wider even than that of the graduates will produce any effect.

A HARVARD GRADUATE.

GOODNESS AND THE THEATRE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent number of the *Nation* (which I remailed to Europe, and hence cannot quote verbatim from), you referred to certain remarks of Dr. T. L. Cuyler on the theatre, in terms well adapted to make the impression that Dr. Cuyler's habits of thought and notions of "good" make it natural that he, and those of his "class," should be hard to please when the subject of the theatre is in hand. But I must confess that the dress in which your editorial set him up made him look wonderfully like Edwin Booth, in language over his own name in the *Christian Union* a few years ago: "My knowledge of the modern drama is so very

meagre that I never permit my wife or daughter to witness a play without previously ascertaining its character."

Dr. Cuyler, in your dress, reminded me also of the late W. C. Macready, in his own words, "None of my children shall ever, with my consent, or on any pretence, enter a theatre or have any visiting connection with actors or actresses." Mr. Booth's language, while characterized by the moderation of thoughtfulness, clearly indicates a justifiable suspicion of *all* theatrical plays. And that especially appears when he adds, "If the management of theatres could be denied to speculators, and placed in the hands of the actors who value their reputation and respect their calling, the stage would at least afford healthy recreation, if not indeed a wholesome stimulus to the exercise of noble sentiments" (very large *ifs*). "But while," Mr. Booth adds, "the theatre is permitted to be a mere shop for gain, open to every huckster of immoral gimcracks, there is no other way to discriminate the pure from the base than through the experience of others." This would seem to justify Dr. Cuyler's caution to the young to hold cautiously back, and his intimation that "good" mothers are happy when sure that their children are not in the theatre.

Whatever else may be laid to the charge of Dr. Howard Crosby, few, I think, esteem him narrow. But he has said, "As they (theatres) *are*, I pronounce them satanic and soul-destroying." And an actress meets Mr. Booth's customary caution for his wife and daughter with the suggestion, that she knows, from having been behind the curtain, that the play which is rendered purely one night, with the knowledge that certain persons are present, will be rendered impurely the next night.—Respectfully yours,

JAMES H. TAYLOR.

ROME, N. Y., November 14, 1883.

CONGRESS AND THE NAVY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for November 1 you print a letter from a correspondent, under the heading, "What Congress should do next for the Navy." Although the argument, therein set forth, to show why Congress should take means to increase the effective power of our navy is in no respect new, yet it contains some points which should not be allowed to pass without comment. The writer says that—

"The well-known defenceless state of our coasts would cause offensive action, which, under other circumstances, would not be thought of, and, in the event of war, would lead to an attack upon our rich maritime cities. These would present themselves as tempting prizes to even moderately powerful naval nations, and before we could realize that war was upon us, we might find an enemy's fleet levying tribute from our largest ports."

Now, although the occurrence of this state of things may be barely possible, it seems to me to be extremely improbable. It would certainly be a very short-sighted policy for any nation to pursue. For even supposing it could take possession of one or more of our principal seaports, it is plainly evident that it could take possession of nothing more, and would eventually be obliged to abandon even these. The idea of a European state transporting an army sufficient to retain even a small portion of this country, for any length of time, is wholly out of the question. Hence I say it would be a poor policy to attack us at home, a thing which without good reason no nation would be likely to do.

Thus, after calculating the chances, we find the likelihood of such an event occurring too small to justify us in building up and supporting an elaborate and costly navy. But now suppose the event did really occur while our naval forces are in their present condition. What would be the result? Undoubtedly, there would be considerable property destroyed. As your correspondent indicates, an enemy might levy tribute from our rich maritime cities. But, as already stated, this could be but temporary, and let it be remembered that the very existence of such rich cities as New York, Boston, Philadelphia, etc., is largely due to the fact that the people have not in the past been obliged to expend their energy in keeping up an extensive military system, but have been left free to direct their labor toward the production of that which is of some use. An enemy could scarcely leave us in a worse condition than we should now be in, had our fathers deemed it necessary to maintain a military force similar to that of Germany or France. Our maritime cities would not be what they are now had this been done. The building up of an expensive navy now would be paying a very high premium for our insurance. It would be robbing the people in order to obtain means to protect, and, as we have seen, to protect them from an imaginary danger. Of course, if it could be proved that a greater fighting force is actually necessary to protect us from foreign invasion, the case would be different. No one would like to see the country tamely submit to any depredations a European army might commit. But a people that were not disposed to submit to being robbed by foreigners, would not be inclined to submit to being robbed by their own countrymen. In other words, those who would refuse to give up their property at the demand of a band of invaders, would be apt to refuse a like demand from a medalesome Congress.

Then, again, there is another reason why our army and navy should not be increased. As a carnivore develops teeth and claws, he at the same time develops a desire to use them; so, with a race of men, the more confidence the people have in the effectuality of their military and naval systems, the less provocation is required to induce them to go to war. They will find reasons for conflict which, if these systems had been weak, would not have been thought of. Thus, by increasing our fighting qualities, instead of furthering the possibility of peace in the future, as your correspondent thinks it would, it would directly augment the probability of war. Your correspondent trusts that Congress will not be allowed to remain satisfied with the building of a few commerce-destroyers. I suppose that it would be too much to expect, at the present stage of civilization, that a body of representatives could be induced to turn their whole attention to the production of commerce, rather than its destruction: but every step taken in this direction must be considered as an advance, and every step in the opposite direction as a retrogression.—Yours truly,

J. EDWARD CHAPPEL.

WARSAW, N. Y., November 20, 1883.

GENERAL BUTLER AT BALTIMORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "G. B." has fallen into a trifling error in his reference to General Butler's achievements in Maryland. The General did not command the Fifth, but the Eighth Massachusetts Regiment; and he did not lead them through Baltimore at all, but carried his troops from Philadelphia by rail to Perryville at the head of the Bay, and thence by steamboat to Annapolis. Here he wrote a letter to Gov. Hicks, in a decidedly apologetic tone, asking permission to land his men and "to pass quickly through the State on my way to Washington, respecting private property and paying for what I receive."

Gov. Hicks protested; but Gen. Butler, being reinforced the next day by the Seventh New York Regiment, felt strong enough to disregard his protest, and carried his men by rail from Annapolis to Washington.

On May 5, the General, having been further reinforced, and provided with artillery, moved as near Baltimore as the Relay House (about seven miles off), and there fortified himself. It was here that the memorable case of stomach-ache occurred, and his "strychnine order" in consequence, which gave the material for the local farce, "Gudgeons at the Relay."

The General, as became a prudent commander, did not venture his person in Baltimore until he thought himself safe. On the night of the 13th of May, he passed quietly through the southern portion of the city, and intrenched himself on Federal Hill. On the next day he was recalled to Washington and rebuked by Gen. Scott for his deed of "derring-do"; and, on the 16th, was put in command of the Department of Fortress Monroe.—I am, sir, etc.,

A BALTIMOREAN.

THE CLASSICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One very important advantage that accrues from the study of the ancient classics seems to me to have been overlooked by its advocates. I allude to the great amount of time which, in the study of a dead language, is necessarily devoted to one book. When studying Grecian or Roman history, for example, in an English translation, most students would commit their lessons to memory—an easy task for the generality of minds. In this case the facts are not indelibly impressed on his mind, as they would be if he were to read the same facts in the original Greek or Latin. In the latter case the student does not memorize his author at all. He reads his lesson frequently without much voluntary exercise of the memory. He learns the author's peculiarities of diction; he learns, indeed, a great deal more from the same pages than if he had committed the whole to memory in an English translation.

Suppose the class were reading Virgil's 'Æneid': an English translation would convey to their minds at once the facts of the poem more clearly than they would gain them from the Latin, until after many days' study. It is a very natural conclusion that there is just so much time wasted as the excess required for reading the same poem in Latin. But the facts are of very little importance, except as a source of the interest they awaken in the student's mind. The advantages derived from the perusal of this poem and this author are like those which a young person derives from frequent intercourse with a man of superior knowledge, culture, and ability. The student becomes familiar with the author's merits as a poet, and his graces of diction, which are not the less useful in the Latin than if they were in English.

But would not the same close and long-continued attention to the pages of a good modern author be attended with equal advantages? Admitting that it might be so, we know that no such close and long-continued attention could ever be devoted by a class to an author in any of the modern languages, because they are so easily acquired. We must remember also that the modern languages are less artificial than the Greek and Latin, and do not admit of the same perfections of style; and it may be added that modern authors do not strive to attain to that degree of perfection that distinguishes the best

Latin and Greek authors. The rhetorical beauties of these authors are indeed almost unintelligible to a modern intellect which has been trained in our loose and illogical vernacular. The modern languages are better adapted to a certain style of popular eloquence than the artificial and highly intellectual languages of the classics. Indeed, by a large class of authors and critics the rhetorical simplicity of the ancients is despised. "All ages," says M. Renan, "have had their inferior literature; but the great danger of our time is that this inferior literature tends more and more to get the upper place." There is nothing like the study of the ancient classics to counteract this tendency. The classics are indeed, as it were, an anchor that prevents modern literature from flying off utterly into that "limbo" where rules are neither used nor understood.

The present century has produced works, especially in science, superior to any ancient works, and more profitable for knowledge; but they cannot be studied with the same benefit as a means of mental discipline. It a student spends a whole year in reading Virgil's 'Æneid,' or an oration of Lysias or Isocrates, it seems as if he were wasting his time. Those who think so have not sufficiently considered the practical wisdom suggested by the proverb, "Beware of the man of one book." A comprehensive reading of modern authors gives one a copiousness of diction which cannot be acquired by any other means. It affords one also a greater variety of intellectual tools. But that course of training which gives copiousness of diction, though very desirable on many accounts, is not favorable to the logical faculties or to the clearness of the understanding. The most logical minds express their ideas with the greatest simplicity of diction.

There is a liberal and a pedagogical way of studying the classics, and less good mental discipline results from the study of mere grammatical forms and construction than from a close attention to the style and matter of the best authors. It seems to me, therefore, an error to suppose that accurate grammatical scholars alone derive benefit from the study of the classics. Indeed, the highest scholars, as estimated by a mere pedagogue, may not be improved by these studies so much as those intelligent pupils who give their attention chiefly to the author's graces of style and justness of thought, and who thereby become imbued with some of that fine discrimination which distinguished that most intellectual of all nations, the ancient Grecians.

The whole gist of the subject is given in a single sentence from Matthew Arnold. Speaking of the classics, he says :

"They can help cure us of what seems to me the great vice of our literature, manifesting itself in incredible vagaries in literature, in art, in religion, in morals, namely: that it is fantastic and wants sanity. Sanity—that is the great virtue of ancient literature; the want of that is the great defect of the modern, in spite of all its variety and power. It is impossible to read carefully the great ancients without losing some portion of our caprice and eccentricity."

WILSON FLAGG.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., Nov. 14.

Notes.

THE next issue of the "Library of Aboriginal American Literature," published by Dr. D. G. Brinton, Philadelphia, will be 'The Comedy of Guegüence,' a play written and acted by the natives of Nicaragua. It dates from the 17th century, and is written in a curious dialect, half Aztec and half Spanish. It will be ready early in December.

Mr. G. E. Woodberry, being engaged on a Life of Edgar A. Poe for the "American Men of Letters" series, requests the loan of copies of any autograph letters by Poe (however unimportant they may seem), many of which are believed to exist in private collections. None will be published without the explicit consent of the owner. Mr. Woodberry's address is Beverly, Mass.

John E. Potter & Co., Philadelphia, publish immediately 'The Elements of Botany,' by Prof. W. A. Kellerman, of the Kansas State Agricultural College.

To the fourth edition of his 'Mikado's Empire' (Harper & Bros.) Professor Griffis has added a supplementary chapter, "Japan in 1883."

We notice elsewhere at length the 'Diplomatic History of the War for the Union.' The publishers, Houghton, Mifflin & Co., have brought it out both separately and as a fifth volume in the series of Seward's Works, edited by Mr. George E. Baker, which was begun as far back as 1853, or, in other words, in Mr. Seward's lifetime and prime. The fourth volume appeared in 1861. The record is now complete, and there is hardly any other similar monument of American statesmanship which has a more enduring value for the historical student. The reading of Mr. Seward's speeches in the period before the war is and will long be a high course in political education.

Roberts Bros. have added to their "Classic Series" Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress,' with good excuse, as they reproduce in facsimile the title-pages and curious illustrations of the first edition, which recall the block-books of the ante-Gutenberg period; and 'Robinson Crusoe,' with Stothard's designs, and a bibliographical introduction by Austin Dobson.

The "Merchant of Venice," from Charles and Mary Lamb's 'Tales from Shakespeare,' and the play itself, edited by the Rev. H. N. Hudson, makes the latest volume in the "Classics for Children," published by Ginn & Heath.

The "Temple Edition" of 'The Essays of Elia,' which G. P. Putnam's Sons issue for the holidays, compares well with its predecessors, of which the number is already so great. The volume is solidly manufactured, and, with its broad margins, is nearly square in shape. It is not, therefore, meant for the hand, or for familiar desultory reading. The type is large and the impression clear. But what gives the book its chief individuality is its illustrations—a steel engraving of the portrait of Lamb after Hazlitt's painting, and eight etchings by American artists. These are partly imaginative, like Mr. Smillie's "Sun-Dial" and "Detached Thoughts on Books," partly topographical; and here we think Mr. C. A. Platt takes the palm with his picturesque "Oxford," "Inner Temple Lane," and "Tombs in Westminster Abbey." Mr. F. S. Church supplies the one touch of humor by figuring the wrath of the Chinese father at his son's enjoyment of roast pig, and is at his best. There are also two etchings by Mr. R. Swain Gifford, and the whole series is above the average of those usual in American books. This edition should be sure of a welcome.

We lately noticed the prospectus of a little "Bibliotheca Curiosa," to be edited by Mr. Edmund Goldsmid, and published at Edinburgh, or rather, "privately printed" for subscribers. The moderate prices announced indicated a relatively unpretentious *édition de luxe*, and this is confirmed by the first of the series now before us. It is a reprint of Charles II.'s account of his escape to France after the battle of Worcester, as dictated by himself to Mr. Pepys, and preserved among the latter's MSS. in Magdalen College, Cambridge. This interesting narrative first saw the light in 1760. It fills less than forty pages in its present handy and comely form, the print being small but very clear, and the typography irreproachable. The title page is rubricated, and there is a parchment wrap for the paper covers. Mr. Goldsmid's notes are brief and not excessive in number, and imply that the "Bibliotheca" is intended to be read, and not merely hoarded among a book-lover's treasures.

It was last year, we think, that the practice began of converting a certain class of holiday books—single poems illustrated to the utmost—into a cross between the valentine and the Christmas card. The covers, in other words, are of colored and illuminated cardboard, with silk fringes. Such is the set which comes to us from Lee & Shepard, Boston, and which embraces "The Lord is my Shepherd," "Curfew Must Not Ring To-night," "It was the Calm and Silent Night," "My Faith Looks up to Thee," "That Glorious Song of Old," and "Come into the Garden, Maud." Concerning the merits—not very extravagant—of all of these we have had our say in former years.

The fourteenth of the ever-extending line of indexes prepared by Mr. W. M. Griswold, of the Library of Congress, is a general alphabetic *Table* of subjects, names, and authors in volumes 193-268 of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and volumes 1-21 of the *Nouvelle Revue* (Bangor: Q. P. Index; London: Trübner & Co.). The term covered by the former periodical is from 1870 to 1883 inclusive. As is well known, the so-called 'Table Alphabétique,' published by the *Revue* itself in 1875, is a wilderness for purposes of reference, for under authors and topics, which *are* arranged alphabetically, the entries are chronological. Such a method is of course antiquated, and Mr. Griswold furnishes quite a different key partly to the same matters (1870-74), partly to what have come after—roughly speaking, to the contents of the *Revue* during the Republican epoch. Mr. Griswold, as an international missionary of the reformed spelling, retains the autographical peculiarities of his other indexes, as (to cite the more perplexing) "fonografe," "fysiologie," etc.

Students of English history are to be congratulated on the revised and cheaper edition of Mr. S. R. Gardiner's great work (Longmans). It is announced as to be in ten volumes, extending from 1603 to 1642, covering the ground of the ten original volumes. Four volumes have already appeared, coming down to 1623. This is the period covered by the two works—"History of England to the Disgrace of Coke," and "The Spanish Marriage." Any one acquainted with Mr. Gardiner's methods as an historian would feel sure that the revision is made with the most conscientious care; a preface to each volume states the new materials made use of in the revision. The principal part of the introduction to the original first volume, giving "a somewhat lengthy sketch of English history down to the death of Elizabeth, . . . is now omitted, partly because it seems out of place, and partly because I have recently given it to the world in a more mature form, in an 'Introduction to the Study of English History,' written by me in conjunction with Mr. J. Bass Mullinger." Among the new sources of information mentioned in the preface are Spedding's edition of Bacon's 'Letters and Life,' which is "simply invaluable to the historian of Bacon's period"; new volumes of the Calendars of State Papers; numerous manuscript collections; transcripts from the Venetian archives,

etc. The foot-notes, containing references to authorities, are not numerous but judicious. The importance of these four volumes is all the greater because the reign of James I. has been rather neglected by historians, coming between the familiar events of Elizabeth's reign and those of Charles I., which have been so abundantly described. But the reign of Charles I. cannot be fully understood without that of his father, for it was now that the seeds were sown which afterwards bore so bitter fruit.

A new novel by Mr. F. Marion Crawford, the author of 'Mr. Isaacs' and 'Dr. Claudius,' is about to be published in London by Chapman & Hall. It is called 'To Leeward,' and is of a different kind from any of this writer's previous works, being described as "the analysis of a social drama," and ending—as the title implies—in a catastrophe. The scene is laid entirely in Italy, principally at Sorrento, and the action is concerned with the career "to leeward" of the heroine, who is the daughter of an English mother and a Russian father, married to a worthy Italian count, and whose life is wrecked for want of a certain anchor which is left out of sight in the scheme of contemporary social life—at least upon the Continent. What the anchor is may be gathered from the phrase *ex nihilo nihil*, which was originally intended for the title. The story is said to contain Mr. Crawford's most entertaining and vigorous writing. The American publishers will probably be Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The "Birds" of Aristophanes is being produced by a company of undergraduates in the St. Andrew's Hall, Cambridge, England, for five nights, beginning on the 26th instant. As before, the enterprise is under the management of Dr. Charles Waldstein, of King's College, who has specially devised some stage dances for the occasion and has directed the designing of the costumes. Mr. John O'Connor, whose scene for the "Ajax" was so effective last year, is again painting the scenery, and the music has been composed by Mr. Hubert Parry. The "Agamemnon" at Oxford, the "Œdipus" at Harvard, and the "Ajax" at Cambridge have abundantly proved the power and interest of Greek tragedy; it remains to be seen whether the humor of Aristophanes will be equally appreciated by a modern audience.

Mr. Fred W. Foster is now contributing to *Notes and Queries* an interesting "Bibliography of Beauty Theories," chronologically arranged.

The inauguration of Gustave Doré's statue of Alexandre Dumas has called forth a flood of reminiscence. The most elaborate attempt is a study of Dumas's work by M. Blaze de Bury, now publishing in the *Figaro*. Richer in personal detail is an account of Dumas's last days, published in the *Revue Critique* and written by M. Benjamin Pifteau, who was one of his secretaries. From a letter of M. Cherville's in the *Temps* of October 22, it seems that Dumas had four secretaries, one of whom was specially charged with the care of his creditors.

—The perennial subject of Washington society, after having been discussed sensibly and very readably by Mr. D. D. Lloyd, the *Tribune* correspondent, in the October *Manhattan*, comes up again in the December *Atlantic*, this time in the hands of Mr. H. L. Nelson. Mr. Nelson thinks the society of the capital has been maligned, especially by the authors of three novels which he names; but it seems to us that many of his points are not well taken. We are far from disputing the fact that charming non-official society exists in Washington; but when Mr. Nelson asserts that this portion of Washington society is predominant in any sense, except that of deserving to be, he certainly is in error. "There is a vulgar side to Washington society," he says; "there is a vulgar side to the society of every city in the country. There are coarse and untrained people even in Boston," and so on. True, but in Washington these "coarse and untrained" people have, so long as it lasts, great power, of which they are fully conscious. They feel, and not without reason, that Washington is theirs, and that the "cultivated" people live and move in Washington only through their sufferance. As to corruption, we believe as little as Mr. Nelson that Washington ladies aid or abet it; but then we should not say, as he does, that they "hate" it. Familiarity breeds contempt, and association with jobbers and knowledge of their schemes, however startling at first, in time makes both appear in the natural order of things. This state of mind is not, of course, peculiar to Washington—the condoning of jobbery, as well as of railway frauds and bank defalcations, is common throughout the country; but in Washington there are ten persons with something peculiar in their "record" to one elsewhere—which fact is often consistent with their being well worth knowing, and proportionately sought. In seeking to show that politics, in one shape or another, is not the ever-present interest in Washington, Mr. Nelson assumes what would be possible only on the supposition that there is in Washington a coterie, sufficiently large to be called "society," which occupies the same relative position as the French royalists; and this, we think, is not the case. "The stock Congressman of writers of fiction," he further remarks, "does not exist. He cannot even be compiled from the vices of all the wicked men who have cajoled their constituents into voting for them." Yet this was precisely the answer—and a very good answer—made by the Congressional world to the truthfulness of the hero of 'Democracy,' as a type—that the character was a patchwork of incidents from the lives of Douglas, Seward, Morton, and some others—the singular parallelism of an important episode to an event in the life of Mr. Blaine being in anticipation of the fact. We are of the opinion, moreover that if Mr. Nelson will frequent the lobbies of the Capitol as much as he apparently has done the drawing-rooms of the West End, he will not be long in discovering the "stock Congressman" aforesaid, and in finding in him social traits which no novelist would venture to put upon his pages.

—The State Charities Aid Association has the legal right to visit, inspect, and examine all charitable institutions supported at the public charge in this State, and it is required to make an annual report to the State Board of Charities. Very recently it has published a small and excellent 'Handbook for Hospitals,' primarily for the use of its visitors. It is also a public good. It must be of peculiar value for those benevolent persons who officially inspect these collective homes of the sick, often without accurate knowledge as to what should and should not be. There are few more embarrassing positions in which to put a well-meaning man than to make him an inspector of a special service to which he has not been educated. Study of this book will divert inquisitive energy into profitable channels. But its peculiar value—and in this it stands apart in secular literature, so far as we know—is that it gives in small compass and plain language nearly all the information that a local organization would require in establishing and successfully managing a minor or village hospital. It wisely suggests that such an institution be called a House of Mercy, or Sheltering Arms, or by some similar title, to divert the ordinary association of hospital from those whom it would benefit. It is not difficult to buy a house and call it a hospital and to find a physician to prescribe gratuitously for its inmates. But it is very hard to find a person competent to plan a building, and especially to manage it, in the proper interest of the sick. This little book is a stimulus to such work, and at the same time it shows the way. We may not quote, for want of space, some of the pithy remarks that are scattered through it. It properly praises the common-sense virtues, and deprecates equally machine charity and intemperate sweeping, while extolling the brotherhood of man and insisting on eternal vigilance as the price of health and cleanliness. Perhaps it has an undue bias toward exalting the "head nurse" at the expense of the "young doctor," but the latter will probably outgrow it. A secondary motive that runs through the book is its showing the extreme adaptability of women as hospital managers, concerning which, not accepting the accomplished writer as an average example, there may be two opinions.

—The magnificent scientific bequests of the late Mr. Lick of California are within the memory of all. The chief specific amount was to be devoted to the construction of a telescope of extreme power, and the equipment of an Observatory on Mount Hamilton, California, and was no less than seven hundred thousand dollars. After the complete payment of all the specified bequests, the residue is, by the terms of the deed of trust, to be divided between the California Academy of Sciences and the Society of the Pioneers. The vexatious suits entered upon by the supposed heirs of Mr. Lick were successively decided by the courts, and at last a definite construction of the deed of trust was made by the Supreme Court of California, from which there is naturally no appeal, and in pursuance of which the Trustees are now acting. Thus far, their energies have been largely concentrated on the execution of the Observatory trust, and they have expended therefor the sum of $155,000, up to the 1st of October. This expenditure has given them already a well-equipped Observatory on the summit of a bleak mountain, nearly a mile above the sea, and twenty-six miles from the nearest town, and their instruments have already made very valuable contributions to astronomy on the occasions of the last transits of Mercury and Venus. This same amount includes several payments on the large instruments not yet received from the makers, the construction of comfortable dwellings near the summit, and the provision of an ample water-supply in complete working order at that great elevation. Any one who has visited the mountain cannot fail to have noticed how thoroughly the Trustees have done all their work, and his chief query is how so much has been accomplished for so small a sum. The Trustees anticipate the completion of their labors connected with the Observatory on the expenditure of about one-half the entire amount of the bequest therefor, thus leaving about three hundred and fifty thousand dollars for an endowment fund for the support of the Observatory perpetually. The wisdom of the Trustees in the execution of their policy, under the presidency of Mr. Richard S. Floyd, is very apparent when looked at without prejudice. Had they sold their enormous properties as soon as the litigations were over, and at the time of a great shrinkage in the values of the real estate involved, the residuary legatees must have received nothing from Mr. Lick's bequest. The comparatively recent growth in the valuation of the properties held by the Trust will now give the Pioneers and the Academy nearly one hundred thousand dollars each; and it is impossible to recognize, in the lack of immediate benefit, any sufficient

ground for their continued attacks upon the Trustees, with which the San Francisco papers are periodically flooded. Obviously their complaints are entirely to no purpose, for the Trustees are acting in pursuance of the orders of the courts, and a disobedience of these orders would insure their speedy dislodgment from their very responsible positions. A late number of *Science* reviews the policy of the Trustees, making it plainly evident that their administration of Mr. Lick's estate is, thus far, worthy of the highest commendation.

—Mr. John Morley's successor in the editorial chair of the London *Pall Mall Gazette* is a gentleman who is described as having a genius for newspaper editing, and during the short time that he has occupied the position he has introduced a number of original and admirable features. First among the novelties came the habit of illustrating any article or despatch with a diagram, map, or illustration, as might be most appropriate, in most cases apparently set up by the compositor with the means at his disposal, from rough sketches probably embodied in the "copy" sent up. Next it became evident that some one of a mathematical and statistical turn of mind had joined the staff, for a series of comparative statistical abstracts and tabular views of all kinds began to appear. These are frequently very original and instructive, and the most striking of them has been a series of tabular views of the "tips" for the great English races given by the sporting prophets of a large number of newspapers, compared with the actual results of the races, thereby affording absolute and crushing demonstration of the utter untrustworthiness of the forecasts. This ruthless application of mathematics to sport has naturally provoked much anger among the racing community. Another innovation is the presence of a signed article by some well-known writer in almost every issue. A great success has been achieved by a number of short popular guides or handbooks, at twopence each. These have been a 'Guide to the Royal Academy,' a 'Handbook of the Cholera,' a 'Guide to the Fisheries Exhibition,' and another just announced—'Christmas Presents: What to Buy, and Where.' These are called *Pall Mall Gazette* Extras, like the *Tribune* Extras, and of the one on the Fisheries Exhibition no fewer than 158,000 copies were sold. Among other new features, a daily list of books and pamphlets received during the preceding twenty-four hours is not the least convenient. With such clever editing and its dignified and cultivated tone, it is not too much to say that the *Pall Mall Gazette*, as the mouthpiece of advanced Liberalism, is the most satisfactory daily newspaper in England at the present time. Politics apart, the *Standard* is by far the best London morning daily.

—Mr. Archibald Forbes, in the October number of the *Nineteenth Century*, gives to the readers of that journal a very suggestive article on "The Present and Future of the Australasian Colonies." The interest of his discussion centres in the following points: In the first place, his observation teaches him that the love of the people in those remote colonies "for Victoria and her race, has a glow of personal warmth in it such as does not usually burn among subjects clustered closer on the confines of the royal circle." He found that every public speaker who would sit down on good terms with his audience would "weave into his peroration expressions of devotion to the Crown, of congratulation that Australia lives under the flag of 'the Empire,' and of fervent hope that this shall ever be so." This patriotic devotion even goes so far as to be positively intolerant. No speaker, he says, could hold in Australia the tone often held by speakers in England in regard to the independence of Ireland. The Redmond brothers visited that continent last year to raise money for the Irish cause; but on the very threshold they learned that they could not speak in Australia as they were wont to speak at home. They were obliged to strike a lower key, to speak respectfully of Britain's sovereign, and to conclude their meetings with the national anthem. Hall proprietors, with whom the rent is the main object of interest, declined with emphatic unanimity to lease their platforms to the agitators, who had to harangue in remote, inconvenient Roman Catholic schoolrooms. Certain members of the Victorian Parliament, persons of Irish extraction, framed an address to Mr. Parnell in which there occurred the words "foreign despotism." So fierce was the indignation that denunciatory meetings were held in every township of the territory they represented. At the next general election four out of the five who had perpetrated the outrage on colonial loyalty lost their seats. This patriotic fervor, moreover, shows itself in things big and in things little. It is manifested in the accent of the lower classes; in slow, heavyish walk; in the fondness for the old-country drinks even in spite of hostile climatic conditions; in the full side-face whiskers; in the sporting tastes and the fondness for athletics; in the active habits of the women, "who are as keen on lawn-tennis with the thermometer at 100 in the shade as our girls are when it marks 'temperate'"; in the universal British preference of compartment carriages in railway travel; in "the addiction to being accompanied in the compartment by portmanteau, handbag, a bale of rugs and great coats, and a fascine of walking-sticks and umbrellas"; "in the burning zeal for writing letters to the newspapers on personal petty grievances, on abuses which the American curses at while suffering and forgets the moment they are over"; and "in the intensely British fervor of the newspapers, with their rotund 'we,' their mathematically three-paragraphed leading articles, their fine, manly, wooden holding aloof from a certain vein of news which, no doubt, would be interesting and indeed useful, but which might incur the reproach of trenching on the personal."

—But though this loyalty is conspicuously everywhere prevalent, Mr. Forbes is of the opinion that it is a mere sentiment, which will be inadequate to save the colonies in case the mother country should become embroiled in foreign war. Such an event, in his opinion, would bring on the Australian colonies the most wide-ranging and terrible mischiefs. In proof of this he cites the haste with which Russia made preparations for sending into their waters a fleet of swift cruisers equipped in American ports when war with Great Britain seemed imminent in 1878. If such a war should ever come, the empire would be obliged "to uncover its flanks for the protection of its centre." The colonies would have to be left to themselves, because the whole of England's fleet would be needed nearer home, mainly to protect her coast line, in these days of steam, against the sudden raid of cruisers aimed at her unprotected coast towns. Hostile men-of-war would haunt the Australian waters, and, coaling in the neutral ports, would find easy access to the minor but far from unimportant coast towns. The resulting struggle, Mr. Forbes goes on to show, "would dislocate Australasia commercially all along the line," and this would be followed by the common repudiation of the suzerainty now somewhat vaguely exercised by the British crown. Finally, he declares that his study of the colonies has brought him to the "implicit conviction that if England should ever be engaged in a severe struggle with a Power of strength and means, in what condition soever that struggle might leave her, one of its outcomes would be to detach from her the Australian colonies." This done, the formation of a confederation of the colonies would be the natural and perhaps the necessary consequence.

—The announcement from Germany of the discovery, in a bookseller's collection, of an unknown product of Gutenberg's press, illustrates with what facility German bibliographers have always credited to Gutenberg any anonymously printed book of the 15th century. The work in question, which has for its title, 'Clagen und nutzliche lere aufs gemeynen beschriebenen rechten,' judging from the description given by Ilgenstein in Petzholdt's *Neuer Anzeiger*, probably belongs to a group of tracts commonly reputed to have been printed by Gutenberg from 1461 to 1463. This date has been assigned chiefly in consequence of Prof. Fischer's so-called discovery, signalized in his 'Essai sur les monumens typographes de J. Gutenberg' (Mayence, 1802) of a copy of the 'Tractatus de celebratione missarum,' in the University Library at Mentz, bearing a rubric denoting that the tract was completed by Gutenberg's press in 1463, and by Gutenberg and Nummeister (supposed to be an assistant of Gutenberg), presented to the Carthusian Monastery at Mentz. The 'Tractatus' is one of the seven or (counting the new example) eight pamphlets which, from their general typographical correspondence, are classed as nearly contemporaneous productions. The discovery of fraud in the Prognostication or Kalendar, reputed by bibliographers to be for the year 1460 (and consequently printed in 1459), by J. H. Hessels, who has, by his thorough investigations, done more than any one to clear away the mystifications and misconceptions relative to the invention of printing, removes this whole set of publications from the list of Gutenberg's *incunabula*. A reference to Pope Sixtus IV., who was elected to the Papacy in 1471, in a book professedly treating of events to occur in 1460, caused Mr. Hessels to examine closely the date in the text, which resulted in finding that, by the scratching of four numerals, 1482 was made to appear as 1460. This discredits Prof. Fischer's statement, which has hitherto been generally accepted by bibliographers. The copy which he described has unaccountably disappeared. Two forgeries in connection with this handful of books, so long undiscovered, show, as Hessels remarks, how little the Germans have done in the Gutenberg case, except to repeat old stories, without even looking at things right at their elbow. Gutenberg died in 1468, and the disposition of his types after that time is involved in doubt, so that it is not possible to assign with surety the printing of the tracts under consideration.

—Testimony in favor of Gutenberg from the other side of the Rhine is of course less open to suspicion, and such is to be found in a remarkable communication to the November number of *Le Livre*, by A. Claudin. This investigator calls attention to a piece of evidence which has heretofore passed unobserved of all the historians of the art of printing. The Savoyard Guillaume Fichet, in a letter addressed to Robert Gaguin, and printed at the beginning of copies of the small quarto 'Gasparini Pergamensis orthographiæ liber' (the second book printed in Paris), celebrates the influx of printers from Germany, bringing a "great light" with them, and relating, as to the origin of their art, that "haut procul a civitate Mogontia Joannem quendam

fuisse, cui cognomen Bonemontano, qui primus olim impressoriam artem excogitaverit, quare non calamo . . . neque penna . . . sed æreis litteris," etc. Fichet goes on to advocate the apotheosis of this inventor of metal letters, and has a flattering word for Gutenberg's skilful disciples, Martin Krantz (of kin, concludes M. Claudin, to the Peter Krantz who figured as a witness in Gutenberg's second trial at Mayence), Michael Friburger, and Ulric Gering, who had come to Paris on the invitation of the Sorbonne, and who in fact printed the very book in which this tribute is paid to their master. M. Claudin, by the way, has ascertained that in 1461 Michael Friburger and Ulric Gering were students at the University of Bâle, along with one Gabriel Krantz of Stein. He fixes upon the close of the year 1470 as the date of Fichet's letter, on grounds which appear probable if not incontestable. At that time, as already pointed out above, Gutenberg had been dead only two years.

—Professor Baermann made his first appearance before a Brooklyn audience at the second rehearsal and concert of the Philharmonic Society. He enjoys an enviable reputation in Germany, and the musical people of Boston, his present home, are as devoted to him as New Yorkers are to Mr. Joseffy. For his début he chose Beethoven's Fifth Concerto, and it is safe to say that there were few in the audience who had ever heard that work interpreted in such a thoroughly artistic, honest, and impressive manner. Herr Baermann takes his place at the piano with the confident air of a German professor who is a thorough master of his subject and knows the whole score by heart. He is not one of those virtuosos whose only aim is to make a sensation by means of feats of agility. He merges his individuality in that of the composer, and one of the greatest charms of his playing is the manner in which he places in *mezzo-relievo*, as it were, subtle shades of meaning that are slurred over by less conscientious pianists. At the same time he is fully equal to the highest technical demands, his scales, arpeggios, and trills being delightfully even and smooth, while his touch varies with the character of the music—now light and graceful, and again grandiose or tenderly poetic. Prof. Baermann does not appear to have any specialty in which he defies competition (as Joseffy with his pianissimo cobweb style), but his playing is distinguished by an even and impartial excellence in every respect. His reception was very favorable, and at the concert he acceded to the tumultuous request for an encore which he denied at the rehearsal, although some of the ladies almost ruined their gloves by applauding. Mendelssohn's "Midsummer Night's Dream" and Schumann's First Symphony completed the programme, being separated by the concerto. Of the twelve numbers which make up Mendelssohn's composition, only seven were given, but among them were the most popular ones—the overture, scherzo, nocturne, and the famous Wedding March, so full of associations to those who did not follow *Punch's* advice. In the finale and another number Mrs. Denniston, Mrs. Hartdegen, and the ladies of the Philharmonic Chorus supplied the vocal music in an eminently satisfactory manner. And as for the orchestra and its leader, they appeared to be positively inspired, especially in the Schumann symphony, which has probably never before been played with such exuberant vigor and perfect rhythmic swing. The "Midsummer Night's Dream" is one of Mendelssohn's most finished productions, but when one hears it in such close juxtaposition to Schumann's great symphony one feels vividly the great difference between the genius of the two composers. The texture of Mendelssohn's harmonies and melodies has lost much of its original freshness, while Schumann seems more fascinating and invigorating than ever. Schumann's future in our concert halls may be represented by a crescendo sign, Mendelssohn's by a diminuendo. Not only are Schumann's ideas more virile and original than Mendelssohn's, but his style is much more suggestive, condensed, and epigrammatic. On one page of his score he has more matter than Mendelssohn on ten of his. This makes him the greater poet of the two, for the essence of poetry, as of wit, is brevity—the art of condensing a great idea or image into a few well-chosen words, and the avoidance of mechanical repetition. Schumann's First Symphony may lack the formal polish of his later ones in a few places, but as a whole it has no superior in all symphonic literature, and it differs from most symphonies in the fact that all its movements are interesting. In arranging the programme, Mr. Thomas probably felt that for the majority of the audience it would have been better to place the symphony at the beginning of the programme, when the hearers' receptive faculties were still fresh. But for the musical "remnant" Mendelssohn would have sounded too tame after Schumann and Beethoven; and it is the musical remnant, in such a case, who must be considered by an ideal conductor.

MR. SEWARD'S DIPLOMACY.

The Diplomatic History of the War for the Union: Being the Fifth Volume of the Works of William H. Seward, edited by George E. Baker. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883. 8vo.

MR. SEWARD'S "optimism" became almost a by-word during the civil war. His cheerful faith that the war would be a short one, that each campaign in turn had exhausted the aggressive power of the rebellion, and the hopeful view of all aspects of public affairs which he habitually took, were treated as amiable and rather comfortable idiosyncracies, which permitted many a public and private critic to flatter himself that his judgment was much better than that of the Secretary of State.

Whoever will turn over the leaves of the Diplomatic Correspondence, even cursorily, will find growing upon him a sense of the responsibilities of the statesman in charge of our foreign affairs at that period, which becomes a burdensome weight in the mere thinking of it. As one reflects upon it, the sympathy with the task Mr. Seward had before him becomes pathetic and almost painful. At the outset he was to choose the form in which Mr. Lincoln's administration should present to the governments of the world the terrible fact of an insurrection of a dozen States, and nearly as many millions of people, against the national unity and power. Nearly every great Power on the globe was a monarchy, and, by the traditions, the instincts, and the assumed interests of its rulers, was disposed to hail the outbreak as an expected, if not wished-for, downfall of the only experiment in republicanism on a great scale—a collapse which might add centuries to the era of conservative rule, and delay for ages the assimilation of European governments to the democratic institutions of the western continent. Mr. Seward saw with absolute clearness that from nearly all the great Powers he must expect cool courtesy, covering an almost feverish readiness to regard secession as an accomplished fact. The motives might be various, but the wish for our final disruption would be all but universal. With some, the magnitude and unrivalled preponderance of the United States on this continent would lead to the desire to see several rival nations here, keeping each other busy with their jealousies and conflicting interest, and, by their armies and navies, excusing the immense military establishments by which the peoples of Europe are burdened. With others, the hope of close and profitable commercial relations with a Southern republic, furnishing one of the greatest staples of commerce and manufacture, was the attracting force. But whatever the reasons given or disclaimed, whatever the good-will professed with more or less of warmth, from the day he took the portfolio of State, Mr. Seward knew that the ministry of every monarchical government in the world was inwardly content with our misfortune, and looked with satisfaction to our probable permanent disruption.

We have no cause for enmity on this account. It was in the nature of rival systems of government that it should be so. As we ourselves should look with satisfaction upon any solid progress of sister nations toward lasting and peaceful republicanism, we should be weak not to recognize the fact that earnest monarchists would not be grieved at a demonstration that democratic institutions are not adapted to great national organizations, even if they be tolerable in petty communities. The crisis of our trouble brought all these sentiments to the surface. The claim of Mr. Lincoln's administration to high statemanship is solidly founded on its treatment of foreign affairs, and the Secretary of State is fully entitled to the credit of impressing his own character and intellect upon the successful diplomacy of the period.

Mr. Seward's first work was to give unity of tone and spirit to our legations abroad. He deliberately adopted it as a canon for all his diplomatic subordinates, that the republic must not be despaired of. A high, hopeful, confident spirit was inculcated both by precept and by example. That his letters to our ministers and to foreign governments might not be weakened by inconsistent utterances at home, he threw the same cheertulness of spirit into his private and public conduct, and refused by word, by tone, or by look, to admit the possibility that it could be within the designs of Providence that our national Government should be destroyed. It would be hard to overestimate the influence of such a spirit, in such a man, in such circumstances. Fully in harmony with Mr. Lincoln's way of viewing things, it strengthened the President's hands, and made the influence which went out from the leading men of the Cabinet always certain in tone, never doubtful, never despondent. If his natural temperament had not helped him to his bright views of the future, it would have been a masterpiece of policy and of will to have feigned them; but he was really hopeful, and saw also the full advantage of letting his professions of confidence come fully up to feelings which he nourished and cultivated.

His first despatches to our ministers abroad were necessarily variations on one theme; but each was carefully adapted to the character and temper of the court to which it was indirectly addressed. To France, he could dwell upon the great part that nation had taken in the establishment of the United States as an independent Power, and the shame it would be if she should now become a willing instrument in its dissolution. To England he gave appropriate reminders that the vast colonial interests of the British Empire made it peculiarly the policy of that Government to uphold the authority of national governments against unjustifiable insurrection; and used with much force the argument that she could not afford to be the champion of a revolu-

tion based on human slavery. For each of the other governments he found some fitting argument or appeal, hinting plainly to all, that any unfriendly intermeddling would be hazarding the good-will of a great nation upon the doubtful chance of the success of the insurrection.

The first battle of Manassas soon came to mar his plans and beget discouragement in nearly all our foreign representatives, while it developed a joint purpose in England and France to recognize the Southern Confederacy as a belligerent power. The Secretary redoubled his energy. He ably analyzed the battle itself, showing that the power of the republic had been demonstrated in the array of a great army, which seemed to have victory in its grasp when the panic to which all new troops are liable came to make a disaster that was not a military defeat. He combated the dismay of some of his subordinates, rallied them to their work as a brave general would rally his troops, and, by a high and courageous tone, manifestly checked the tendency among foreign Powers to recognize the independence of the Confederacy.

Next came the *Trent* affair to complicate the situation. The capture of Mason and Slidell was looked upon by the country as a victory in itself, and this made it doubly hard for the State Department to disavow the act of Captain Wilkes, and to follow the course which real wisdom pointed out. Mr. Seward's quick apprehension instantly saw that the very *éclat* of the capture made it the more likely that it would be the pretext for hostile action. He was profoundly convinced that no advantage gained from the possession of the envoys could balance the mischief we should suffer from an open quarrel with England. This meant the raising of the blockade, the subsidizing of the Confederate Government and supplying it with arms. There was a chance that, like revolutionary France in 1793, we might have made ourselves all the more formidable on this continent if we had been opposed by a world in arms, but it would be risking too much upon desperate odds, and the President and Cabinet accepted Mr. Seward's view, so that his part was taken before any unfriendly summons could reach us from Great Britain. He very ably used the traditionary American policy of "neutral rights" to quiet the popular clamor at home, while he most skilfully exposed the inconsistency of the British complaint with the sweeping doctrine of the "right of search" of which England had been the inveterate champion. He was thus able to avert a new storm, while he signalized with new emphasis the American championship of what had been the cause of the rest of the world against the great maritime Power. The surrender of Mason and Slidell thus took the character of adherence to an old principle on our part, coupled with an ungracious abandonment of its ancient rule of action by the English ministry. These, being put thus in the wrong, appeared to have been using a poor pretext for a quarrel, in regard to which European statesmen should be the first to understand the inconsistency.

The French invasion of Mexico, and the effort to put Maximilian upon a throne there, were treated with similar skill. The recognition of the republican government was steadily continued, every overture to treat Maximilian as a successful invader was firmly declined, the invasion itself was clearly characterized as an unfriendly act to us which only our troubles at home made us endure, and plain intimations were given that it was well understood that the Emperor was merely practising upon the chances of the success of the Confederacy. It was Mr. Seward's peculiar triumph that at the close of the war of the rebellion, he was able, without violating the forms of diplomatic friendliness, to draw about the French Emperor such lines of moral constraint as to force a humiliating desertion of Maximilian to his fate, which was a sore stroke to the prestige of Louis Napoleon, and which restored the republican government in Mexico without a blow.

The question concerning the *Alabama* and other Confederate cruisers was perhaps the most difficult and trying of all. The popularity of the Southern cause among the middle and upper classes in England was such that an apparently strong popular sentiment supported the plain violation of neutrality, and made many of the Government officers singularly oblivious even of the outward and decent show of respect which they owed to their own neutrality laws. The co-operation and mutual understanding between Mr. Seward and Mr. Adams were perfect. Both were cool, both were persistent, neither allowed any rebuff or half insolence to turn him from his purpose. The evidence of the hostile purpose for which the ships were built was most diligently collected, and courteously but firmly forced upon the attention of the Government. The proof of the mischief the cruisers did, and the unwelcome list of claims for indemnity, were also from month to month produced and pressed. The frankness with which ministers were told that we were quite aware that for the present we must rely wholly on the sense of justice of the British Government to recognize these claims, connected as it was with the continued and unsparing addition of the new items of damage as they occurred, was more powerful as a warning of future complications than any amount of bluster would have been. Others knew as well as we knew ourselves that we were in no condition then to resent an injury which could be borne at all; but they also knew that if by chance the rebellion should not succeed, a great nation, doubly strong in the consciousness of its proved military power, and in the belief that it had been wronged, would be inevitably impelled to demand redress. The very patience and ability to wait which the Secretary and the ambassador displayed, produced more moral effect than any evidence of irritation could have done. And this effect was not altogether postponed. After the critical midsummer of 1863 it was pretty evident that Confederate bonds payable at the recognition of the Confederacy by the United States were not likely to be worth as much as *Alabama* claims payable when the unity of the American people should be reëstablished. The duties of neutrals were not made to appear so small, or the neglect of them so trifling, a matter as before. Officials could more easily be made to see the evidence of hostile purpose in the construction of war-ships, and it did not seem so nearly a joke that ship and armament were only to come together off the Azores.

It is curiously interesting, now, to run over the diplomatic correspondence, and notice how the calm temper and even tone of the protests and reclamations gradually produced their effect; to note the unflinching steadiness and unwavering faith in the success of his country's cause gradually becoming the historic fact, in Mr. Seward's letters, as month after month rolled on. His policy was to make plain the fixed opinion of our Government that unfriendly things were done in an unfriendly spirit, but to tone so carefully the character of the reclamations that no offence could be taken at them, while they continued to be part of an ever-growing debit account of which the settlement was only postponed.

The period of Johnson's administration was used by Mr. Seward in the same spirit, without haste but without intermission of purpose, to produce the conviction that the claims of the United States were quite too grave an item in the national accounts to remain open when the contingencies of European politics were complicated with the controversies which ended at Sadowa and Sedan. He wished for and intended to bring about a peaceful solution of our controversies with England as with France; but he was determined also that it should be in such form that when the whole was ended the record of it should be one that every American could read with pride, while foreign politicians should be forced to see humiliating blunders and inconsistencies at every step of their intervention in the great struggle on this continent. If the very last part of the settlement at Geneva was not under Mr. Seward's direction, it is no disparagement to his successor to say that it was foreshadowed and fully prepared in his conduct of negotiations during the eight preceding years, and was the natural consummation of his policy.

His negotiation of the purchase of Alaska and the cession of St. Thomas was part of the same noble ambition to show the world that so far from being crippled in power or shorn of substantial wealth by the great war, the United States Government was feeling more than ever competent to dominate the continent and control affairs in all the adjacent seas. It was a high-spirited answer to those who affected to treat it as an open problem whether our resources had not been exhausted, and the burden of our war debt become so crushing that America could be counted out of the world's politics for a long time to come. It was a mistake to extend the policy of annexation beyond the main land of North America, for many reasons. It would be equally a mistake to reach for regions not preoccupied with peoples of kindred habits and of similar progressive spirit. But Mr. Seward's diplomacy need not be regarded as the adoption of a purpose of indefinite extension so much as an easily understood and strong response to the enemies of republican institutions everywhere, which answered its purpose thoroughly by removing all doubt about the confidence of real statesmen of this country in our future, and their determination to accept no second place in the ranks of nations.

The unhappy circumstances which surrounded Mr. Johnson's administration have prevented his countrymen from estimating Mr. Seward's services and his statesmanship at their true worth, but this publication of his works will give the means of judging more fairly; and it will not be a great while before all parties will be in accord in placing his name securely among the few public men who have been equal to a great era in which they lived.

ENGLISH VERSE.

English Verse. Edited by W. J. Linton and R. H. Stoddard. Vol. i. Chaucer to Burns. Vol. ii. Lyrics of the Nineteenth Century. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THERE lie before us two volumes of a new anthology of English poetical literature. Three more are to follow. It is claimed by the publishers that this collection is to be "the largest yet undertaken"; that its five volumes will be more convenient than one large one; that "its division and management are simple and excellent"; that "each volume is supplied with careful indexes of authors, poems, and first lines." It is also stated that "as the work was directly suggested by the defects of the existing anthologies," it is greatly to surpass them in compre-

hensiveness and in "absolute accuracy of text." Such an announcement implies a work of much literary importance.

Unfortunately, as our public buildings are apt to suffer from the presence of too imposing doorways, a literary enterprise is often damaged by too magnificent a prospectus. But for the above announcement, the present collection would have taken its place on our shelves as one of quite the average excellence. It is the inordinate claims made for it which provide a standard by which it fails. As we go through the above points of self-commendation, we are reluctantly compelled to record a dissent from almost every one. It is not yet apparent that this collection is to be larger than others before made—notably Ward's 'English Poets'; and it is not in the slightest degree to be compared to that in fulness of annotation and criticism. It is certain that five volumes are not so convenient as one volume, for the reason that it is doubtful, even under a chronological arrangement, in which volume you are to look for a particular poem; and when the arrangement is not even chronological, but one volume contains "From Chaucer to Burns," another "Lyrics of the Nineteenth Century," another "Ballads and Romances," another "Dramatic Selections," and another "Translations," the task is simply bewildering. There is many a little poem of which—as in case of Longfellow's "The sea hath its pearls"—not one reader in ten can remember off-hand whether it is a translation or no. It may be classed as a "ballad" or as a "lyric"; indeed, when we consider that this collection includes sonnets as lyrics, the distinction between the volumes amounts to very little. The mere indefiniteness of the classification must make the use of the five volumes exasperating, we should say; and, to make the matter worse, the promise of the prospectus as to indexes is not kept. In neither of the two volumes before us is there any pretence at an alphabetical index of authors, and for want of it the reader has to fumble over the pages, again and again, to ascertain where his favorite poet lurks concealed. True, the arrangement is chronological, but the reader cannot carry all his chronology in his head; that is, indeed, part of what he consults the book to ascertain.

As to "comprehensiveness," it is the invariable stronghold of every new anthology. It simply means that each editor puts in what he likes best, so that—to paraphrase President Lincoln's immortal remark about the lecture—for those who like just that kind of collection, it is just the kind of collection that they will like. Until each man can make his own *florilegium*, none will ever be quite satisfactory—neither Emerson's, nor Whittier's, nor Dana's, nor Fields's, nor Sargent's, nor Miss Bates's, nor that of Stoddard and Linton. When the present editors assure us that "all the unquestioned and familiar masterpieces" are retained, the dissatisfied reader shakes his head. "Where," he asks, "are Leigh Hunt's 'Jenny Kissed Me'; Landor's 'Rose Aylmer'; Montgomery's 'The Common Lot'; Dornett's 'Christmas Hymn'; Dobell's 'Keith of Ravelston'; Taylor's 'Incident of the Crimean War'; Platt's 'The Morning Street'?" If these are not the "unquestioned and familiar masterpieces" of their respective authors, nothing is. They offer in each case a high-water-mark, almost as distinct and unequivocal as Holmes's "The Chambered Nautilus." So long as they are omitted, the claim to especial comprehensiveness is merely a publisher's puff. Thus, at least, will reason those who prefer these particular poems; and very possibly, if Messrs. Stoddard and Linton had put in these, there would be still many to claim that masterpieces yet more thoroughly unquestioned were left out.

We have no doubt that much work has been faithfully done by Mr. Linton, as the publishers claim, at the British Museum and elsewhere, in comparing and verifying the texts of some of the less-known poems. This work we must take upon trust; the trust being unfortunately impaired by the fact that, in case of the better-known poems, there are such repeated instances of inaccuracy as to awaken very serious doubts in respect to the standard prevailing in the rest. Where the parts seen are questionable, we cannot always walk by faith as to what is unseen. Let us consider, for instance, one of the best-known poems—perhaps the best-known—in English literature, Gray's "Elegy." The text of the poem has been very amply discussed, and of late critically edited by Mr. W. J. Rolfe. The *pros* and *cons* of the various readings are well known. There is a facsimile of Gray's manuscript in Mathias's edition, published in 1814, and it is generally admitted that this, commonly called the Pembroke MS., represents the maturer form of the poet's work, and that the Wrightson MS., which in some respects varies from it, is a rough draft. Now, the version given by Messrs. Linton and Stoddard varies in three important readings from the Pembroke MS., and in two cases the variation is an entire novelty, so far as we have examined. In the other case the same error is to be found in many of the earlier editions, but not in the earliest, and, since Mr. Rolfe's edition appeared, we supposed that Gray's own reading was accepted by all. The passage to which we are now speaking is as follows:

> "The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
> And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
> *Awaits* alike the inevitable hour;
> The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

In Gray's manuscript, and in the first collected edition of his poems (1768), the word "awaits" appears. In the first edition of his letters and works, published after his death, by Mason, in 1775, it is transformed to "await," and has been commonly so printed ever since until very lately. One would suppose that a mistake of this kind, once corrected from the author's MS. and from the collected edition published in his lifetime, would remain permanently amended; yet 'English Verse,' without a word of explanation, reverts to the accustomed error and has "await."

In the two other cases, the new editors seem to make themselves alone responsible for the changes they introduce. For instance, the line which appears in Gray's MS. as

> "The short and simple Annals of the Poor,"

they render,

> "The short *but* simple annals of the poor."

The alteration seems meaningless. "Short *but* simple" adds nothing to the meaning. Why should not that which is short be simple? The collective edition of 1768 has "and"; so has every later edition which we have examined. Again, two verses further on, Gray's MS. has

> "Nor you, ye Proud, impute to These the fault,"

this being substituted for a line abandoned by the poet. 'English Verse' gives—

> "Nor you ye proud impute to *them* the fault."

Here, again, the new version varies from all previous printed versions that we have inspected. Why these variations? Careless transcribing would be the most obvious solution. If this is not the source, the only other explanation possible is that Mr. Linton inspected the Wrightson MS., found these variations there, and substituted them, without regard to the general opinion of critics that this manuscript represents only the rough draft of the poem. In that case, he was bound to explain the fact in his notes, as he has explained matters of far less importance. No one has a right to tamper, without explanation, with the received text of a poem which we all learned by heart in childhood. To the rest of the 'English Verse' text of the "Elegy" we take no exception, save the revival of the now nearly obsolete spelling of the word "tenour" instead of "tenor." Why follow the spelling of the poet's time in this word any more than in "rhimes" or "ev'n"? The collected edition of 1768 has "tenor"; why not adhere to it?

Let us now turn to the volume of 'Lyrics of the Nineteenth Century.' On page 270, a line in Rossetti's "Lilith" is thus printed:

> "The witch *beloved* before the gift of Eve."

It should be "he loved." In the same poet's "The Card-dealer" (p. 268), we find

> "And he were rich who *would* unwind,"

where the "would" ought to be "should." Again, a line of his "True Woman" (p. 271) is thus given:

> "The wave-brown'd pearl—the *heartshape* seal of green."

Here the word should be "heart-shaped." Again, Thomson's poem, "The Three that Should be One," contains a line (p. 301),

> "Love kissed *her* swoon away."

It should be "the swoon." One of the lines of Tennyson's "Tithonus" is here printed (p. 176):

> "Are all *my* lights and cold my wrinkled feet."

This should be "thy lights."

We make little account of obvious misprints, such as "neek" for "neck" in Nicoll's poem of "Menie," ('Lyrics,' p. 196), or "Twins stars" for "Twin stars" ('Lyrics,' p. 227); but it is something more than a typographical error which utterly spoils a rhyme, as in Barry Cornwall's verse ('Lyrics,' p. 76):

> "With tongues all sweet and low
> Like a pleasant rhyme,
> They tell how much I owe
> To Thee and *Thine*."

Reference to any edition of Barry Cornwall will show that the last line should read

> "To Thee and Time."

We pass over also the difficult question as to how far the Scotch dialect should be followed or modified; and whether of Burns's two distinct forms of "The Banks o' Doon" the later or earlier should be given. The version of "The Flowers o' the Forest" (p. 279) bears marks of being drawn from an earlier copy than that transcribed, or possibly transformed, for Scott's 'Border Minstrelsy'; but since Scott tells us expressly (iii., 127) that the first line of the poem is far more ancient than Jean Elliot's verses, there seems no reason why this should be changed. Scott gives it as

> "I've heard them lilting at our ewes' milking";

but 'English Verse' (p. 279) gives it thus:

> "I've heard *the* lilting at our yowe-milking."

"Yowe" is well enough, but "the" is questionable.

Looking next at American poets, we find three wholly new and unexplained readings in the extracts from Emerson. In the short poem "To Eva" we have ('Lyrics,' p. 140):

> "Features that seem *in* heart my own,"

and

> "*Which* charm the more their glance forbids."

In these cases the words should be respectively "at" and "who." Again, in "The Problem" (p. 137), we have the line,

> "Of leaves and feathers from her breast,"

where the sense is bewildered for want of a comma after "leaves." Even in Whitman's

'Pioneers," a poem with which Mr. Linton must be thoroughly familiar, we have (p. 215):

"We the surface broad surveying *and* the virgin soil upheaving."

This "and" is in Osgood's revised edition "we." Another line of the same poem (p. 218) gives us "sleep" instead of "rest." If in these cases, or any of the others named, the editors have had access to private manuscripts or anything superseding the best editions accessible in print, they should have said so. The variations are so numerous, and in most cases so easily explained by careless transcribing, that it is not sufficient to expect us to rest upon the claims of the prospectus. A good poem is the world's jewel; anybody may alter the setting, but to recut the gem is a liberty which at least requires explanation.

Other points are open to criticism in the literary presentation of these poems. One will look in vain through Whitman's works for "The Soldier's Letter" given in this collection ('Lyrics,' p. 219); it appears in Osgood's edition of 'Leaves of Grass' (p. 236) under the title of "Come up from the Field, Father." Tannahill's beautiful poem, "O sair I rue the witless wish," is here given as "Love's Fear," and Clough's "Say not the struggle" is here called "Not unavailing." These changes are questionable liberties. The poet has a right to make his own title, and as it is, after all, the chief aim of every anthology to direct the reader to the original volumes, an alteration in the title is very confusing and leads the explorer to waste much time. It is no better, but rather worse, when only a part of the original production is given, with a new title and without explanation; thus, we have here what appears as a poem called "Waiting" (p. 301), attributed to Thomson. It is in reality a portion of a longer composition called "Sunday up the River," but no mention of the fact is made. In some cases, too, we note the absence of proper information as to the compound authorship of a poem; thus, it is not explained that the last two verses of Burns's "Of a' the airts" ('Chaucer to Burns,' p. 296) were not written by that poet, but by John Hamilton.

In the way of literary criticism, these volumes offer very little, and that little is chiefly contained in Mr. Stoddard's prefaces. The work of this gentleman is almost always well done, when—as in this case—he sets about it seriously and soberly, and keeps free from egotism and whims. We know not where to look for a more compact and useful introduction to English poetry than the two chapters which precede these two volumes. It is rash to question Mr. Stoddard's authority in matters of literary history, but we suspect him to be wrong in thinking that Allan Ramsay published the *Evergreen* first, and the *Tea-Table Miscellany* afterward; if we mistake not, the first volume of the *Miscellany* appeared in January, 1724, and the *Evergreen* in October of the same year. Nor can we find him quite correct in attributing the volume of poems by Lovell and Southey to the year 1794; the copy before us is dated 1795. True, the book is attributed by Southey's biographer to the close of the previous year, and it may possibly have appeared during the holidays, and have been post-dated, though we had not supposed that this bad practice began in England so early. Again, why speak of "Bürger's ballad 'Ellenore' which Scott Englished into 'Lenore'"? Does not the original ballad begin:

"Lenore fuhr um's Morgenroth
Empor aus schweren Träumen"?

Scott Englished the name into "Helen."

In the notes, at the end of the volumes, we find much valuable information, and often a very perplexing absence of it. In many cases, the titles and dates of the respective publications of authors are given with exhaustive care, and this not in poetry alone; we have thus the dates of all Mr. Aldrich's novels, and of Bayard Taylor's very numerous publications. In other cases, as with Matthew Arnold, there is no pretence at such a bibliography; and it is left to be understood, in such cases as those of Jean Ingelow, Celia Thaxter, and Helen Jackson, that they have written only poetry, although, in the case of Mrs. Stoddard, all the novels appear with their dates, and there is no volume of poetry at all. This is disappointing and uncertain, while the absence of alphabetical arrangement or index greatly diminishes the usefulness of this part of the work. We sometimes demur at the criticisms, as where it is said of Wolfe that, besides "The Burial of Sir John Moore," he "wrote only a few songs of little importance" ('Lyrics,' p. 315), whereas the fine poem beginning "If I had thought thou couldst have died" would have preserved his name, had nothing else done it; indeed, the closing lines of this poem are classic:

"Yet there was round thee such a dawn
Of light ne'er seen before,
As fancy never could have drawn,
And never can restore."

If we have seemed to criticise this new collection with a minuteness not always applied to similar work, this especial attention is due largely to the claims made by the publishers. Had they not said that "the work was directly suggested by the defects of the existing anthologies," we should not have demanded more of it than of the rest, and should have met with no disappointment. Had they not claimed for the book "an entirely exceptional position," it would not have been scrutinized with exceptional care. It is as good, probably, as the majority of such works, but it is our unwelcome duty to point out that it is no better.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Henry Irving, Actor and Manager. A Critical Study. By William Archer. London: Field & Tuer; New York: Scribner & Welford. 16mo, pp. 108.

Henry Irving. A Short Account of his Public Life. William S. Gottsberger. 12mo, pp. 212.

The Story of Helena Modjeska (Madame Chlapowska). By Mabel Collins. London: W. H. Allen & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 8vo, pp. 297.

Helena Modjeska. By Jameson Torr Altemus. J. S. Ogilvie & Co. 8vo, pp. 217.

Some London Theatres, Past and Present. By Michael Williams. London: Sampson Low & Co.; New York: F. W. Christern. 8vo, pp. 215.

Au Bout de la Lorgnette. Par M. Paul Mahalin. Paris: Tresse; New York: F. W. Christern. 8vo, pp. 334.

It is well-nigh impossible to repress a feeling that there is something almost indecent in the writing of a man's biography while he is yet alive. That a man should write his autobiography and seek to set himself before his contemporaries as he appears to himself, is well enough, although there is a well-founded belief that the posthumous publication of an autobiography is best. But there is really little or nothing to be said in favor of a detailed biography of a living celebrity, save that it may gratify the impertinent curiosity of the idle, and turn an humble penny for the compiler of the book. The recent biographies of Mr. Gladstone and Sir Garnet Wolsely, in England, and of General Grant and Doctor Holmes, in the United States, are cases in point. They are emphatically works of supererogation. That the habit of preparing them is on the increase is a misfortune. For one thing, they are likely to err either in fulsome eulogy or in personal abuse. It may be taken for certain that the biography of a living celebrity is rarely written by a calm critic; almost always it is the work of a warm friend or of a bitter enemy. We believe we may safely say that the biographies of actors and of actresses printed while they are yet before the public are all either libels or puffs. The famous, or infamous, book against the elder Booth, 'The Actor,' is an instance of the libel, and the life of the younger Kean, written by a former member of the stage of his theatre, is an example of the puff.

Of the first four books on our list three are biographies of living celebrities. They are puffs, more or less disguised; and they vary but little in their worthlessness. The exception is Mr. Archer's study of Mr. Irving; this is not a biography but a criticism, and criticism is always in order. Mr. Archer's discussion of Mr. Irving's histrionic career is quite as legitimate as Mr. Hill's criticism of 'The Political Adventures of Lord Beaconsfield,' which was published during Disraeli's life. Those who seek for firm reasons for their admiration of Mr. Irving's performances will receive it gladly and read it with profit and pleasure. It has been roughly reviewed by some of Mr. Irving's indiscreet followers in England, but we question whether the actor himself would not greet the critic with more kindness and with more respect. Mr. Archer's criticism is searching and incisive, and its expression, although temperate, is frank. This is not the place nor is this the time to discuss again and at length the quality of Mr. Irving's histrionic gifts. It must suffice to say that he has an intelligence as alert as any on the modern stage, and that as an actor he does all that can be done by intelligence alone, cramped as it is by a want of thorough artistic training, and by an abuse of personal peculiarities which we cannot think other than wilful. He thus excels in "character" parts, while he does not excel in "heroic" parts, to use a distinction well taken by Mr. Archer (p. 51), who classes *Hamlet*, *Romeo*, *Macbeth*, and *Eugene Aram* as heroic parts, while setting off *Shylock* and *Richard III.*, with *Mathias*, *Richelieu*, and *Louis XI.*, as "character" parts.

The three other books devoted to Mr. Irving and Mme. Modjeska may be dismissed briefly. They are rubbish. The authors are ignorant not only of the principles of acting, but even of the more easily attainable history of the stage. They abound in blunders of fact. The anonymous life of Mr. Irving professes to follow his career step by step, but it makes many omissions, notably failing to record his acting with Mr. John T. Raymond in Paris in 1867 in support of Mr. Sothern's *Lord Dundreary*. It contains many misprints: "Blough," for "Brough," for instance, and "Matthews" for "Mathews." It refers to the "naturalism which was introduced into the humble walks of the drama—by Liston, the younger Mathews, the Bancrofts, and Toole"; and it classes together as great innovators in art Berlioz, Whistler, Emerson, Swinburne, and Mr. Irving—truly a happy family. Mr. Altemus's life of Mme. Modjeska begins with the assertion that she is a greater actress than Neilson, Ristori, or Rachael (*sic*). The most of its facts seem to have been borrowed from Miss Mabel Collins's biography. This last we may fairly accept as authorized by the subject, since it contains personal details likely to have been derived from the lady herself; and in mere style it is the best, although this is not saying much, as all three of the authors believe that a tragic actress ought to be called a *tragedienne*, and an actress of comedy a *comédienne*, and that an actress is not an artist but an *artiste*.

They also all believe in "spontaneity," or the reliance on the inspiration of the moment. Miss Collins remarks (p. 215) that Mme. Modjeska "is not a mechanical actress," and so her "business" in the "Dame aux Camélias" varies with every performance; and the anonymous biographer of Mr. Irving finds fault (p. 205) with Mr. Terriss, of the Lyceum company, because his "stage-business, once thoroughly mastered in rehearsal, has become part of the rôle to him forever after." To say this is to say that Mme. Modjeska does not know the rudiments of her profession while Mr. Terriss does; which is very indiscreet in a biographer. The writers who approve of the reliance on "spontaneity" are always prone to cast reflections on "tradition." Now, tradition on the stage is not in itself a bad thing. Like the common law, it contains the accumulated wisdom of the ages, and although it may frequently need reform, the innovator must show cause for the change—the burden of proof lies on him.

Mr. Williams's volume on 'Some London Theatres' contains five papers sketching the history of Sadler's Wells, the City of London, the Marylebone, Highbury Barn, and the Lyceum. They are laboriously compiled, and contain many items of interest—about Grimaldi, for example (p. 13), and John Howard Payne (pp. 12, 115), and J. W. Wallack (p. 101). It is with curiosity that we note the performance in London of Mrs. Mowatt's "Armand, or the Peer and the Peasant," the title of which is not now more old-fashioned than the play itself, and of Mr. Epes Sargent's tragedy "Velasco, or Castilian Honor" (pp. 96–97). Mr. Sargent's first name is misspelled "Eps," and Mr. Joaquin Miller's "Danites" is credited to Mr. Bronson Howard. The final chapter on the Lyceum, with its account of the performances there when Charles Fechter was manager, and again since Mr. Irving took possession, is useful. The book sadly needs an index.

M. Paul Mahalin is one of the lively young wits who give to Parisian journalism its most characteristic flavor. The *Figaro* is the typical sheet which these young men make, but the *Gil Blas* is simply the *Figaro* pushed a little further, and the *Gaulois* is simply the *Figaro* not so well done. M. Paul Mahalin's attachment is to the *Gaulois*, where he signs "Triolet," and where he writes a "Soirée Théâtrale," imitated in some measure from the always amusing articles of M. Arnold Mortier, the "Monsieur de l'Orchestre" of the *Figaro*. M. Mahalin is not as lively, witty, or well-bred as M. Mortier; but he will serve. In the present volume he has gathered together more than a hundred of his little personal articles, sometimes only a crackling squib of a triolet, and sometimes a string of entertaining anecdotes. The best thing in the book is a quotation from Theodore de Banville, describing the "making" of M. Coquelin.

THE *WANDERER* IN THE SOUTH SEAS.

The Voyage of the "Wanderer." From the Journals and Letters of C. and S. Lambert. Edited by Gerald Young. Illustrated by R. T. Pritchett and others. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

It would be easy to imagine, without the testimony of those who have tried it, that a voyage around the world with pleasant companions, in a well-appointed yacht, must be, for those who find enjoyment at sea, an interesting and agreeable experience. The record of the *Wanderer's* cruise fully realizes, in many respects, one's ideal of such a journey, for it is the story of two very delightful years of travel, with the varied experiences of many ports and inland excursions, unusually free from mishaps to the pleasure-seekers, and, barring one or two accidents among the crew, and the occasional misery of sea-sickness among the passengers, a period of almost wholly uninterrupted enjoyment. The *Wanderer* sailed from Cowes on the 5th of August, 1880, having on board her owner, Mr. Lambert, with his wife, two daughters, two sons, the Rev. Mr. Wetherall, chaplain, Robert T. Pritchett, artist, Miss Power, governess, a ladies' maid, nurse, valet, and footman, making thirteen in all for the family party, besides a full ship's company of officers (among them a surgeon) and crew, numbering fifty more, or sixty-three persons all told. The narrative contains no detailed description of the vessel, but her equipment indicates a comfortable size, and her picture shows a three-masted craft, with fore-and-aft rig and square sails on the foremast, making a fair spread of canvas, aided by an auxiliary screw. While she does not appear to have earned distinction as a swift sailer, the *Wanderer* evidently possessed in a high degree the essential qualities for the purpose of her voyage—safety and comfort, with speed sufficient for people of leisure.

From the point of departure the *Wanderer's* general course lay westward around the globe, touching, however, first at Vigo Bay and Lisbon, and afterward at Madeira, Cape de Verde Islands, and Gaboon on the coast of Africa; thence by St. Helena to the east coast of South America; thence passing through the Straits of Magellan and calling at Valparaiso, Juan Fernandez, and Coquimbo; thence to the Marquesas, Society, Fiji, and Hawaiian Islands; thence to Japan, China, Singapore, Ceylon; through the Red Sea and Suez Canal to the Mediterranean, skirting the coast of Palestine and Asia Minor to Constantinople; thence to Greece, Sicily, Italy, Sardinia, Algiers, Malaga, Gibraltar, and Lisbon, thence to Queenstown, and, finally, home again to Cowes. The narrative of this long journey makes a large octavo volume of 335 pages. Edited by Mr. Young, it is mainly composed from the letters and journals of Mr. and Mrs. Lambert and Mr. Wetherall, and retains in its printed form a good deal of the ease and freedom of style appropriate to friendly correspondence. Its most entertaining portion is, perhaps, that which refers to the less familiar parts of the earth's surface, on the Pacific side of the globe; and more especially the South Sea Islands, among which the ship made a somewhat extended cruise, calling at some very queer places, not often visited by English families. Indeed, the voyagers all agreed, upon leaving the Marquesas, that nothing in their cruise had interested them so much. Nor is it difficult to imagine that the spectacle of a well-dressed and well-bred English family, comprising papa, mamma, boys, girls, the parson, artist, and governess, moving about among a crowd of nearly naked and highly inquisitive islanders, and, last of all, "an English man servant, trying to keep up a respectable dignity, with a Marquesan beauty on each side of him holding his hands, their little brown fingers interlaced with his, while they gurgled and cooed in his face," must have been a rare and curious sight to all observers.

The coral-islander is an interesting creature on account of his extreme simplicity. As the inhabitant of a typical coral island or atoll, far remote from other land, he represents the simplest form of humanity. He has fewer wants, fewer natural resources, and fewer ties of relationship to the rest of the world than any other human being. He has no necessities that cannot be supplied from a single source, the cocoanut tree, which gives him his food, drink, and shelter, his scanty dress, canoe, sails, nets, and cordage, implements and utensils of various sorts, and oil. His native land is a narrow strip of coral sand swept together by the waves upon a coral reef, all consisting of a single mineral, the carbonate of lime. He knows no ground higher than the beach. He has no conception of a mountain or river, and sometimes lives entirely without fresh water. His cocoanut diet is varied only by the fish or birds which are within his reach, and which fix the limit of his acquaintance with the animal kingdom, except where that has been enlarged by shipwrecked rats or a few pigs and fowls landed from some passing vessel. He can make fire by friction, but has little use for it. He has no tillable land and no agriculture, and little other occupation than fishing, bathing, and gathering cocoanuts. He has but little knowledge of any other people than the two or three hundred of his own kind with whom he has grown up. A language of a few hundred words has sufficient capacity for his needs of expression. He has no neighbors, no foreign intercourse, no trade or traffic, no arts of war. He is surrounded by sea and sky, and, excepting the occasional ships which, like comets, have come and gone, he knows nothing beyond his own horizon.

When the South Sea Islander's lot is cast upon one of an extensive group, and especially upon one of the larger and higher islands of volcanic origin, he is a man of somewhat greater resources and more varied experience. Intercourse with foreigners has given him some education; and he has adopted more or less of the habits, manners, and morals of the superior race with whose companionship he has been favored. If, under these conditions, he is not more interesting than the simple coral islander of the remote atoll, he is certainly more amusing with his grotesque mingling of native simplicity and foreign fashion. It was generally under these circumstances that the voyagers of the *Wanderer* made the acquaintance of the islanders, and found them most entertaining. Their first experience was at one of the Marquesas, under French "protection," where, upon landing, they

"were immediately surrounded by a crowd of laughing, chattering natives, few of whom could speak English, fewer still French. Most of the men were naked, some sported a loose fluttering shirt, but, to make up for deficiency of clothing, they were most beautifully tattooed from head to foot. The women and elder girls wore long bright colored cotton dresses, but no other garment. . . . Squatting near us was a fat old woman with yellow hair that stuck out horizontally like the branches of a cedar tree. She had fallen in with the new custom of putting on a nightgown, but she evidently thought it a foolish business, and the sleeves seemed to annoy her particularly, for whenever she wanted to use her hands or arms, she slipped them out at the bottom of her gown, raising the whole garment in folds to the necessary height to enable her to do what she wanted. . . . Beatrice's long plait of hair attracted a great deal of attention from the native ladies, who followed her about, lifting it up and letting it fall on her back, and she kept very close to Bob, not at all fancying these familiarities."

At Borabora they went ashore to pay their respects to the child queen,

"a bright, sprightly little creature of nine and a half years old, who received us very graciously, evidently taking a great fancy to Beatrice, whom she invited to stay and spend the afternoon, but as it was rather late we promised she should come back the next day. Moe, the little queen's mother, was also present, as well as her uncle, who acts as prime minister, and practically governs the island in his niece's name. Moe is a very pleasant person, and speaks English well. . . . At ten o'clock (next day) we sent for the queen and she came in state with her mother, another lady and six chiefs. The queen was dressed in yellow silk, gold necklace, a hat with a pink ribbon, and wore high-heeled French shoes, which evidently inconvenienced her very much—not to mention her garters, an evident source of worry; at one time

during her visit the prime minister was seen trying to arrange them more comfortably for her. Moe was dressed in black silk, and the third lady in pale yellow grenadine, with white embroidered petticoats. The queen fidgeted about all over the ship, and, taking Beatrice by the hand, made her show her everything. She was delighted with the piano, kicking her feet about in time as it was played. Before leaving she asked the girls to go and see her in the afternoon, which they promised to do, so after lunch Beatrice and Miss Power went off to return the visit. They found she had taken off her grand dress and put on a loose native one, and, later on, when we called for Beatrice in the galley, we saw the queen, having got rid of her visitors, racing about with bare feet in comfort. The next day was a Sunday, and from the deck we saw the people flocking into chapel at 7 A. M., and again at ten; for Sunday is kept here very strictly, and the people are very orderly and quiet. At 8 P. M. every night a bell is rung, and at nine it rings again, after which hour no one is allowed to be out. It was a damp muggy morning, but cleared sufficiently for us to have service, to which the queen, attended by her ministers and six chiefs, came; also, Mr. Blackett. The chiefs all looked remarkably uncomfortable, three of them in high black hats, one in an old opera hat, another in a pith helmet. Their clothes, too, were of every cut and material and of the seediest description—but they will serve for years yet, as no doubt they are only worn on grand occasions."

Mr. Lambert has no word of praise for French "protection" in the Marquesas and Society Islands, to which he attributes, probably with justice, the "disease, drunkenness, and immorality" prevailing there; and he earnestly prays that Borabora, which is still independent, and which is, at present, "a happy little kingdom, with a people leading a sober, righteous, and godly life," may be "spared from French protection, civilization, and misrule."

In the Fiji Islands the voyagers found much o interest them in the natural resources of the country, which are being gradually developed under English influence, especially the sugar culture, and also in contrasting the government and system in English hands with that of some of the French-ruled islands they had visited shortly before. It is but five years ago, says the narrative, since this country was cannibal, and it appears from what follows that the native epicures still cherish very savory memories of joys that they have tasted in the happy past. One of these informed the party that the human "fat is yellow, and smells like roast duck, and that the prime parts are the arms and thighs." It has been stated, on the authority of other leading cannibals, that the palm of the hand is unsurpassed for juicy tenderness and delicate flavor; but doubtless even cannibals have their preferences. Another old chief, who was introduced as one who had clubbed and eaten many men in his day, on being asked if that were so, "answered, smacking his lips and rubbing his old stomach, 'Yes, many, in old time; very good.' This dreadful old man gave us a curious little wooden dish, something like a flat, shallow sauce boat, in which many good bits of humanity had been placed, nicely roasted." The old white-haired and nearly blind ex-king Thakombau, "a fine old man, very upright and not wanting in a certain dignity of gait and manner," is said to have eaten "hundreds of human beings, and the only favor he now asks of the Governor is to be allowed to eat one more man before he dies."

The visit to Hawaii had another object than curiosity and pleasure-seeking. It was to place a memorial stone upon the grave of a son, Charles Lambert, who, at the age of twenty-four was drowned while bathing at Kailua Bay in 1874, and who lies buried in the churchyard at Kona not far from the spot, memorable in the history of the islands, where Captain Cook met his death.

The book is a very handsome one, abundantly illustrated, containing, besides many woodcuts, twenty-three colored plates—with one exception, by Mr. Pritchett. These, though perhaps slightly extravagant in color, have a generally pleasing effect, somewhat marred, here and there, for the critical eye, by the blemish of a misspelled word in the title, as "Attol" for Atoll, "Kilaua" for Kilauea (the crater). The text itself, though generally free from typographical errors, shows some inaccuracies in the rendering of proper names, such as "Kilaua" for Kailua (one of the bays of Hawaii), and others due to inattentive proof-reading, as "Panmotu" and "Paumutu" for Paumotu, "Savau" for Savaii. The book, though offered to the public, is doubtless more particularly intended for the relatives and friends of the voyagers, to whom it will be a pleasant souvenir of a happy and memorable cruise

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 6, 1883.

The Week.

In his report of last year, the Comptroller of the Currency said that it would be better to abandon the national-banking system altogether than to attempt to carry it along without bond-security for the circulating notes. This view he supported by strong but not wholly conclusive arguments, the most weighty being his belief that the existing system had so entirely won the confidence of the people, through the absolute security of the notes, that the door to endless fraud and swindling would be thrown open if the bond security were withdrawn. He did not believe that the banks would ever agree to guarantee each other's notes, and he could not imagine any other effective insurance fund to take the place of the existing security of Government bonds. He failed, however, to point out what would come after the bond security should have disappeared through the extinction of the national debt, and he fails to do so now, although he hints that the thing most likely to happen will be the revival of the old State-bank system through the repeal of the 10 per cent. tax on their circulation. In his present report he says: "Other propositions have been suggested in order to postpone or prevent the contraction of national-bank circulation, but the Comptroller considers that, so long as there is a sufficient amount of United States bonds outstanding, legislation should be so shaped as to continue them in use as a basis for national-bank circulation."

With this postulate everybody except the Greenbackers pure and simple will agree. The legislation which he suggests is to repeal the 1 per cent. tax on national-bank circulation, and to allow the issue of notes to the extent of 90 per cent. of the market value of the bonds deposited, instead of 90 per cent. of their par value. These measures, he says, would suffice to maintain the circulation at its present aggregate, by enabling the banks to buy the 4 per cent. bonds at the present high premium, or even a higher one, to take the place of the 3s, which are now in course of extinction. How long a time the circulation could be maintained would depend upon the policy to be adopted by the Government with reference to the 4 and 4½ per cent. bonds, after the 3s are all called in. Some people assume that when the 3 per cents are all paid, the Government must fold its hands and wait till the year 1891, when the 4½ per cents mature. This idea garnishes Mr. Blaine's project for turning over the proceeds of the whiskey tax to the several States. Mr. Knox does not overlook the likelihood that the Government will have surplus revenues after the 3 per cent. bonds are paid off, and that it will make use of them by advertising for bids for the sale of bonds to the Treasury, as was done by Secretaries Boutwell and Bristow when there were no bonds upon which the option had matured Therefore Mr. Knox hazards no opinion as to the length of time that the national-bank circulation might be maintained if the curative measures which he recommends were adopted. He barely suggests that the time for paying the principal of the public debt might be postponed, but he evidently does not have sufficient confidence in the plan to embody it in a formal recommendation.

The report of the Postmaster-General on the postal service contains several recommendations, the most important of which are that the unit of letter postage should be made one ounce instead of a half-ounce, and that the rate on transient newspapers and periodicals should be one cent for every three ounces, instead of one cent for every two ounces as at present. The reasons in favor of these changes which Mr. Gresham gives are simple and strong. He argues that the raising of the unit for letter postage will not make much difference in the receipts, since the greater part of all letters mailed weigh less than half an ounce each. Less than six per cent. of them weigh more than that, and require double postage. With the rate fixed at two cents an ounce both the public and the post-office would be saved a vast amount of trouble. The same thing would be true of the change in the newspaper rate. Mr. Gresham says truly that the current impression is that one cent per copy is the uniform rate for newspapers, although many weigh more than that; and that persons who deposit those weighing more with only a cent postage stamp attached, complain because they are not forwarded. The reduced rate would bring all newspapers within the one-cent limit and remove all chance for misunderstanding. With these minor reductions the Postmaster-General thinks the Department should rest for the present. He estimates that the deficiency in the Department for the coming fiscal year will be nearly $3,000,000, owing mainly to the reduction in letter postage. For this and other reasons he opposes the establishment of the one-cent rate for drop letters in cities. On the question of a postal telegraph, he maintains the authority of Congress to assume control of the business, but does not think the evils complained of in the present management are sufficiently grievous to call for Congressional legislation.

The comments of the press of the country upon Mr. Blaine's whiskey-tax scheme show unmistakably that he has overshot his mark, as usual. Instead of impressing the country with his statesmanship, he has merely strengthened the prevalent suspicion of his sensational unsoundness upon all public questions. The public recognize in this tax-distribution scheme the same dangerous "brilliancy" which was shown in the South American diplomatic manœuvres, and they do not like it any better now than they did then. The principal "slogan" of the letter, "Is it wiser to tax whiskey than to tax farms and homesteads and shops?" is, we are happy to notice, taken for precisely what it is—a piece of clap-trap pure and simple. When the Wharton Barker plan was first broached, its advocates made little concealment of their belief that it would become popular chiefly because the ignorant masses would look upon it as an escape from taxation. In other words, it was based on the supposition that the people are mostly fools. Mr. Blaine's plan was merely a modification of Mr. Barker's, and was conceived in the same spirit. It is a most encouraging fact that both plans have met with instant condemnation and failure.

A prospectus for an International Bi-Metallic Monetary Association has been issued. The call is signed by General Grant, Mayor Edson, and thirty-eight other gentlemen, most of whom will be recognized as eminent in their respective vocations and in society. None of them, however, have acquired any reputation as economists or made any pretensions to distinction in that way. The principal object of the association is to establish the free coinage of silver on the same terms as gold, by international arrangements, and to co-operate with associations abroad having the same object in view. This is the proper course to be pursued by those who think that bi-metallism is practicable and useful. Bi-metallism by one country is an acknowledged absurdity, and has been condemned by all the bi-metallist authorities in Europe and America. "Birds of a feather flock together," said Lord Dundreary, "for how could one bird flock all alone by himself?" The mistaken attempt of the United States to "flock all alone by itself," furnishes a good starting point for the labors of the International Bi-Metallic Monetary Association. The first step to be taken to secure their end is to stop our coinage of two millions per month, so that the pressure of this amount of silver may fall upon foreign countries as well as upon ourselves. Of course England and Germany will do nothing so long as we voluntarily assume the burden of carrying all the surplus silver produced in the world. We trust that General Grant, Mayor Edson, and their associates will look sharply into this matter, and read carefully the writings of Cernuschi, Horton, Walker, and other bi-metallists, at home and abroad, who have borne valuable testimony upon this point.

Ohio politics are full of surprises this year. It has been generally believed that Senator Pendleton had small chance for reëlection, but the latest advices from the State are to the effect that the combinations against him have fallen through, and that he has more strength than any other candidate. It was thought that his solitary position as the only active civil-service reformer in his party had retired him permanently from politics, but the hostility toward him on that question seems to have been much more bitter among the Democratic politicians and newspapers than among the

people. His return to the Senate in January would give his party, what it has not now, something to "point to," as evidence of a friendliness toward civil-service reform. The claim could then be made that the author of the present Civil-Service Reform Law had been "endorsed" by his party.

The literature of the "Mormon problem" has been enriched by several new contributions during the past few days. The Rev. Dr. Armitage has produced the suggestion that polygamy is probably a species of "constru ctiveslavery," and therefore obnoxious to the Thirteenth Amendment. General Rosecrans, who is a member of Congress, takes a different view, and has prepared and published a constitutional amendment prohibiting polygamy throughout the United States, and giving Congress power to deal with it, which he will introduce into Congress at the earliest possible moment. There seems no reason why this should not be adopted at once, as polygamy is already an indictable offence, punishable by fine and imprisonment (U. S. R. S., sec. 5,352). The General's idea must be that a Mormon who would not shrink from polygamy as a crime, would quake with horror at the idea of having unconstitutional wives, and at once abandon the practice. It looks as if all discussions of the Mormon problem ought to be prohibited by law, unless accompanied by a careful statement under oath of what those who undertake to solve it believe the problem to be. "Troops" might be used against any man or body of men found thinking in violation of this rule.

The "National League for the Suppression of Polygamy," organized in October last, promises, it is said, to become large and powerful. It is described as a secret, oath-bound society, the members being pledged not to disclose its proceedings, nor to make public the names of the members. The only reason that we can imagine why anti-polygamists should get up secret organizations is because they know that their arguments or proposals are likely to be such as will not bear examination. The day for a crusade against the Mormons seems to be over, for a conflict between them and the Gentiles could only result in Utah being held temporarily by troops, who would restore order; but, after order is restored, all the wives will come out from the closets and from under the beds again, and polygamy will go on just as before. In fact, with troops in the Territory, the Mormons would probably be safer than they are now.

The divorce problem was discussed by the Congregational Club on Monday night, and the Rev. Mr. Dike, who has devoted a great deal of time and attention to it, delivered an address. He recommended changes in the State divorce laws, all of which would no doubt do good, but none of which would insure a permanently uniform systemall over the country. It is this fact which makes the discussion of the problem look sometimes as if it was carried on for its own sake, or as if it were thought that a solution of it might come to some one in the course of the discussion by inspiration. The Rev. Dr. Ingersoll, who is feeling about for a solution of this kind, suggested that "the craze for divorce ran in channels, like malarial fever, and, like that disease, it would die out in time."

Mr. Arnold's lecture on Emerson appears to have been a great success, and is itself the most complete refutation that could have appeared of the silly story that it was some "old" thing which he had brought over to "unload" on the American literary market. It is, in fact, a beautiful and delicate piece of criticism, such as no other Englishman or American, save perhaps Lowell, could have produced, in the course of which he succeeded in doing what few critics attempt and still fewer achieve—we mean, in giving a just estimate of his subject's place in philosophy and literature (necessarily a lower one than that which most of his admirers would insist upon) to an audience made up in large part of these admirers, and yet so as to please and delight everybody who heard him. His comparison of Emerson to Marcus Aurelius, as not so much a philosophy-maker as "the friend and aider of those who would live in the spirit," was a singularly happy critical suggestion.

The success of Mr. Cable's readings has drawn attention to the old question of a Southern literature and the literary differences between the new and the old South. Before the war the attempts of the South to produce a literature were failures, though it had apparently a good many qualifications for the task—a very peculiar civilization and institutions, a population ardently patriotic, and an educated class possessed of considerable refinement and leisure. It was badly handicapped by the fact that it could not tolerate any accurate description of itself, and a love of this sort of description is essential to any genuine modern literary growth. The thing that Southerners were most thoroughly agreed upon was that the South should not be seen as it actually was, and this led them to develop tastes in literature the exact opposite of those of the world around them. While Europe and the North were becoming more and more realistic, they fondly clung to romance. As Mark Twain somewhere puts it, they were led into secession and their consequent ruin by their blind affection for Sir Walter Scott. Southern novelists at least got from Scott notions of chivalry and romance which they misapplied as fatally as Southern politicians did their ideas of patriarchal institutions. The war swept all this away, and, as might have been expected, one of its most natural and interesting results is the appearance of new writers, who, like Mr. Cable and Mr. Harris, have completely broken with Scott and the middle ages, and are trying to make known to the world the real South.

The discussion over the rules of foot-ball at Harvard will probably result in the adoption of more stringent regulations than ever, and the fact seems to be that the game as now played is so violent, at best, that nothing but rigid supervision will prevent serious injury or loss of life. The distinction between legitimate play and "throttling," etc., though perfectly plain on paper and before the game begins, is sure to be lost sight of in the excitement of a rough-and-tumble struggle over the ball. The class foot-ball games at Harvard twenty-five years ago were simple fights, in which nearly everything short of gouging was legitimate, and they were in consequence peremptorily forbidden by the Faculty, and the game of foot-ball was practically banished there till the period of the great athletic revival after the war again brought it into fashion. The Harvard-Yale match, on Thanksgiving-day, which seems to have furnished a good day's sport, was regulated in advance by the Faculty. The old idea of the American professor that the athletic sports of undergraduates were something beneath his dignity, and with which he had nothing to do, is fast dying out, and the wholesome feeling of a common interest in the matter taking its place.

The suggestion that American girls of note should place their photographs on sale is one which certainly deserves consideration. The arguments in favor of it are, first, that it would add to their incomes and thus enable them to dress more extravagantly; second, that some of the English professional beauties are said to derive a revenue from this source; and third, that there is no question that actresses and prima-donnas do it. Against it, it is urged that hawking your face about the streets is not a nice thing for refined girls to do. This objection will only have weight, however, in refined families, and, as we have frequently pointed out in these columns, the great advance made by society in our time has been in the steps taken to recognize the claims of the vulgar. The refined have had the making and interpretation of the social code in their own hands for a long time; but the turn of the other side has come at last.

The white citizens of Copiah County, Mississippi, who were recently obliged to kill "Prent" Matthews, their sheriff, for voting, or attempting to vote, have held a mass meeting, and passed resolutions on the subject, but they seem to take it for granted that it was generally understood outside of Copiah County that "Prent" would have to be destroyed if he came to the polls; for the resolutions, instead of mentioning the facts which made the taking of his life necessary, mainly consist of a warning to his family that, if they do not "keep out of politics in Copiah County," they will be killed too. A committee was appointed, as is the custom in the case of obituary resolutions, to present a copy of the warning to the brothers and sons of the murdered man, and the Vicksburg *Herald* declares that the murder of Matthews is "not an event calculated to excite any regret outside of his immediate family circle." The main reason given by the *Herald* for the murder is that Matthews "kept Copiah County in a muss," or, in other words, made himself disagreeable to his neighbors. "The shedding of human blood is always to

be deplored," is the sentiment, it is hardly necessary to add, with which the *Herald* introduces its account. This sentence is, we believe, kept standing in every well-regulated Southern newspaper office.

A vindication of Governor Begole of Michigan has appeared. He was accused of having solicited passes for himself and Mrs. Begole from a railroad company, while recommending the company not to let the members of the Legislature have any. His friends now say this is a slander or "a deliberate lie," started by what they call the "Detroit Smut Mill," commonly known as the *Post and Tribune*. They say that the pass he asked for was due to him by the railroad company under an agreement with his firm for the transportation of freight, and that Mrs. Begole's was part of the same transaction, and was to be charged for in his current account with the company, and that he never used his ticket book for public business.

O'Donnell's conviction is a most satisfactory close to the horrible Phœnix Park tragedy. Five persons have been executed for it, and the informer whose testimony brought them to justice, and who was undoubtedly the worst of the lot, and whose escape from the gallows was a disappointment to all civilized men, has been murdered in cold blood. His murderer has now been convicted and will be hanged in the course of the present month, so that the full measure of justice will then have been meted out to all concerned. One deplorable result, however, will remain. The whole affair has brought discredit on the Irish people, which we fear will not be effaced for many a day, not so much because of the original murders—for conspirators as ferocious and senseless as the Phœnix Park ruffians could be found in any country—but because of the sympathy with which they have met from Irishmen all over the world. It is this, of all things connected with the crime, which has disgusted the civilized world, and in its eyes lowered the Irish people in the scale of civilization. We doubt if there ever was a good cause which met so little of the sympathy of humane and enlightened men everywhere to-day as the Irish cause, and this, almost wholly, because of the brutal and anti-social doctrines preached by so many of its advocates, and the base character of the instruments they are willing to use. No readiness to shed blood profusely in any cause degrades people in the eyes of mankind, as long as it is shed in open fight; but those who make heroes and martyrs of skulking assassins, cannot escape the scorn or detestation of the best portion of the human race.

In this country $47,000 were raised for O'Donnell's defence, but it must all have gone in counsel fees, for he called only one witness, and the despatch of General Pryor was probably the most expensive item in the account. What good General Pryor did beyond making whispered suggestions in court, does not clearly appear. He now says that he did not apply to be heard and have his application formally refused, because he was advised by counsel that it would prejudice the prisoner in the eyes of the jury if an American, employed by Irish-Americans to come over here and defend him, made any appearance in the case at all. To find this out, however, it was hardly necessary to go to England in person and take the opinion of counsel. It might easily have been discovered by writing to England, and getting an answer, at the small expense of ten cents, by any one who did not possess the elementary knowledge of the practice of English courts, and of the organization of the English bar, which any American lawyer ought to possess. The truth is, however, that the subscribers to the fund really sent him over, not so much to defend the prisoner as to do the very thing which he now excuses himself for not doing; that is, getting up and making a row in the court-room. The probabilities are that the value of his services would have been greatly enhanced, in their eyes, if he had sworn at the Judge, and had himself dragged out, neck and heels, by the police.

The quiet and almost unobserved retirement of Sir H. B. W. Brand from the Speakership of the House of Commons, compared with the excitement attending a corresponding change in the Speakership at Washington, furnishes a striking illustration of the difference in the position of the Speaker in the two countries. In England the office has now been for a long time a judicial one, almost as judicial as any judgeship in the courts of law. The Speaker appoints no committees, and, in fact, has no opportunity of favoring either one party or the other, except in allowing or not allowing his eye to be "caught" by would-be orators. Even as to this, however, he is furnished with a principle of selection by the custom of the House, which puts the leading men of both parties in seats near the Chair. The leading requisites of a Speaker are, therefore, easily agreed on both by Liberals and Conservatives. He is seldom, if ever, a great statesman or politician: neither party can spare such a man from the floor of the House. But he must be what Mr. Gladstone calls "a great gentleman"—that is, a man of independent fortune, and of high character and social position—and be gifted with tact, ease, polished manners, and readiness both of mind and speech. A man who has these, whatever his political antecedents, is sure of permanence in the place. Sir Henry Brand was for many years the Liberal "whip," that is, the gentleman who performs the onerous and unpaid duty of keeping the supporters of the ministry in good humor, by watching their whims and weak points, and seeing that they are present at divisions on important occasions. Nevertheless he was elected Speaker without opposition in 1872, and again when the Conservatives came into power two years later.

In the November *Fortnightly*, Mr. Charles Waring examines the Suez Canal question in an ably written article, and reaches the conclusion that England ought to buy the canal and enlarge or duplicate it, and then throw it open to the free navigation of the world. Such a consummation would undoubtedly solve all doubts and disputes which now disturb the ship-owners and the Canal Company, and would furnish an example of munificence and magnanimity of the most refreshing character. Mr. Waring believes that M. de Lesseps would sell out at some price, and that British commerce would gain all that the British Government would lose by the operation, and much more. He adds that the Government and British shareholders together own more than one-half of the property now, and that the acquisition of the remainder would not entail an excessive charge on the Treasury. The whole number of shares in the company is 400,000, of which the English Government owns 172,000. The latest quotation of the stock on the Paris Bourse was 2,175 francs per share. At this price, the cost of the 228,000 shares not owned by the Government would be about £20,000,000 sterling. Counting the Government shares at the same price (although they do not participate in dividends till the year 1894), the proposed donation to the world would amount to £32,000,000, not to mention the cost of the new canal, estimated at £8,000,000 more. Four-fifths of the resulting gain would be reaped by British merchants and ship-owners, and one-fifth by those of the Continent. The charges for transit should be sufficient merely to keep the canal in repair and pay the cost of administration.

M. de Lesseps's conferences with the ship-owners and commercial bodies of London, Liverpool, and Manchester have apparently not brought about an agreement of views. It appears, also, that there has been a hitch in the councils of the Khedive on the subject of the new canal, and that difficulties have arisen in the money market as a consequence of the political embarrassment in Egypt. In short, M. de Lesseps is in the situation of a private individual having to deal with three governments, yet having none of the attributes and powers of a government to enforce his own views. His claims rest upon moral grounds altogether, and here unquestionably he finds his only effectual support in the British Government. If this support were withdrawn the Egyptian authorities would sell a concession for a new canal over his head in a twinkling, and pocket the proceeds with a grin. France might protest, but she would never go to war to prevent the opening of a new canal. In such a situation, M. de Lesseps will probably find reasons for lowering his demands. The point in dispute between himself and the British ship-owners has been narrowed substantially to the question of dividends on the canal shares. The ship-owners are willing to concede 20 per cent. per annum—all receipts in excess of this amount to be applied to the reduction of tolls. M. de Lesseps contends for a division of the excess between the shareholders and the shippers, but will surely yield in the end, seeing that a new canal must be had, either with his consent or in spite of his opposition. Under a less conscientious government than that of Mr. Gladstone, his claims would have been brushed aside the day after Tel-el-Kebir, and a new canal would now be in course of construction under the protection of British guns.

MR. CARLISLE'S ELECTION.

THE election of Mr. Carlisle as Speaker of the House of Representatives is the outward sign of a reaction against the existing tariff which has been gathering force for some years, and of which the Tariff Commission of last year was itself a symptom. The Commission was an acknowledgment by the Republican party that the protective policy had been pushed to unjustifiable and unbearable limits. It was composed, in its *personnel*, of chiefs of the protectionist school and representatives of the principal protected trades. Their report began with an admission that the time had come for a relaxation of the severe restrictions put upon foreign trade, but when they came to details they failed to justify their own conclusions. The reduction of duties which they proposed was too faint to do more than set the country thinking, while in some directions they recommended an increase of duties which caused genuine alarm and roused stubborn and effectual resistance. Regarded as an educational measure, the Tariff Commission was extremely useful. Mr. Carlisle's success must be in part attributed to it, but both the Commission and the Speakership contest are the result and outgrowth of a public conviction that we have had too much tariff, and that the present bad state of trade is largely the consequence of it. The recent great meeting at Cooper Institute in favor of revenue reform is another sign of the strength of this movement. Five years or even three years ago it would have been impossible to bring together one-half the number of people who attended this meeting, and gave their assent to the principles which it was called to promote.

We do not look for any immediate radical changes to follow Mr. Carlisle's elevation to the Speaker's chair. His election signifies the direction in which the thought of the country has turned in respect of its tariff policy, rather than any determination or desire to knock away at once the crutches upon which so many of our crippled industries are hobbling. No revenue reformer, if a *carte blanche* had been given him to write a tariff upon, two years ago, would have proposed a scale of duties which would compel the steel-rail manufacturers to sell at $35 per ton, as they are now doing. Still less would he have proposed a policy which looked to shutting up three-fifths of the iron furnaces of the country. These interesting results, which have been brought about under the reign of the protectionists, prove that the tariff has done its best or its worst for us, and that nothing which the revenue reformers ever threatened can be so harmful as the condition we have actually reached after twenty years of extravagantly high duties.

The Philadelphia newspapers take a view of Mr. Carlisle's election which people in other cities and States can scarcely comprehend. They assume that the country is so enamored of a scale of duties averaging 47 per cent., that the mere suggestion of a change, however small and however adjusted, will defeat the Democratic party next year. "The result," says the *Press*, "simplifies the issue between the two parties, and makes a straight, direct fight on the command ing issue of protection." The *Times* is even more extravagant. It says that the only chance the Democrats have is to nominate Mr. Randall for President. Philadelphia seems to be a sort of blue grotto where there is no diversity of color, but everything wears the same cerulean tint. Protection, in the view of the *Press*, is evidently the highest rate of duty on any article which anybody desires to have. Mr. Carlisle's supporters might easily say that they think $18 per ton on steel rails too high, when the domestic article is selling at $35 and the lowest price abroad is $23. They might argue that a duty on lumber which sets a premium on the destruction of our narrowing forest area is unjustifiable and ought to be at once repealed. They might argue in the same way concerning the duty on copper. They might even attempt to justify the action of the last Congress (Republican in both branches), which lowered the duty on wool nearly two per cent. In short, they might be so unreasonable as to deny that protection has any of the elements of a "straight, direct fight" in it, and to insist that the issue is wholly one of percentages, as, whether silk shall be taxed 60 or only 50 per cent.; whether common table crockery shall pay 70 or only 60 per cent.; whether the whole canning industry of the country shall be sacrificed to the whim of some firm that wants to make tin plates, but can only do so at a loss, etc., etc. Before any issue can be made on protection, protection itself must be defined, and this will involve as many figures as are to be found in a table of logarithms. We can see nothing in the prospective overhauling of the tariff which need terrify the Democrats or greatly elate any Republican newspaper.

For the present, however, the Democrats are to all outward appearance committed to the policy of a gradual reduction of the tariff in the direction of a tariff for revenue only. There are two ways for the Republicans to meet this. One is to test Democratic sincerity by co-operating heartily in the careful and moderate reduction of taxation, which it is now very clear the country demands. The Republican party built up our present system of taxation, and has gone a good way toward paying off the war debt; it should, therefore, make a special effort to take the lead in bringing back that system to the normal peace footing, even if that be a protectionist footing.

The other way is to shirk all discussion of our present system of taxation by denying that there is any fault to be found with it, either as regards its incidence or amount, and by pretending that, such as it is, the prosperity of the country has been wholly due to it, and not at all, or only in a very small degree, to our national resources, or to the skill or industry or ingenuity of the people. This ground once taken, of course other absurdities will have to follow. The sectional issue is to be revived by declaring that Mr. Carlisle's election, although he was a Union man throughout the war, means another collision between the solid South and the solid North, and that therefore Republican voters, instead of expressing an opinion at the polls upon the amount of duty which should be levied on foreign imports, must again "vote as they shot" and "make it hot under the old flag." It appears, too, that the Irish voters in the manufacturing towns are to be called to the polls, not to express their opinion about the taxes they ought to pay in their adopted country, but to express their hatred of England and their undying remembrance of "six hundred years of wrong." In short, the strongest sort of appeal is to be made to what is most irrational in their mental constitution, and to the passions and prejudices which most seriously diminish their value as American citizens

The history of the Democratic party, however, during the past twenty years ought to be a solemn warning to Republicans against trying to live by clap-trap or dead issues. The Republican party is likely to fail far worse in any such undertaking than even the Democrats did, because of its great dependence on the independent vote. The force with which it wins at elections is now made up almost wholly of a class which cannot be humbugged or hoodwinked by appeals and fallacies which seem to be intended for European peasants rather than for American citizens. Moreover, the revival of old cries is still less open to it than to the Democrats. The sectional issue was abandoned in 1880 for the simple reason that it was worn out. It would never have been abandoned by a certain class of politicians for any other reason. It would take another war to give it any value now. If Republican politicians should be set to work to revive it during the coming year, on the stump, they would make the party so ridiculous that it would be overwhelmed long before November, 1884.

MR. BLAINE'S WHISKEY SCHEME.

MR. BLAINE'S letter recommending the distribution among the States of the proceeds of the Federal tax on whiskey, in order to relieve them from the burden of their local expenses, has probably answered nearly the whole of his purpose in writing it, by becoming the subject of an article in nearly every paper in the country. As materials for "copy" it has been a remarkable success. It was exceedingly shrewd of him to produce his plan as an amendment to the scheme of the Pennsylvania Protectionists for dividing redundant revenue among the States. By pointing out several serious objections to this, Mr. Blaine gives a delightful air of judiciousness and moderation to his own. A man, every one will say, who sees so clearly the defects of the Wharton Barker plan cannot but have carefully considered the whole subject, and anything he says about it must be worth weighing.

His suggestion is that the Federal Government should not go into partnership with the States in levying taxation, which it would have to do if it were to surrender the redundant revenue generally to their use; but instead of this should hand over to the States the entire proceeds of a particular tax, to be levied on one very hurtful, not to say immoral, product. From this tax he estimates a yield of about $86,000,000 annually, which he proposes to divide among the States in proportion to their population. This would relieve the great

majority of them of the whole burden of local taxation, and at the same time discourage a very hurtful branch of industry.

It is difficult to say, at present, how much need there is of stating the objections to this scheme. At present it does not seem, much more than the Wharton Barker scheme, to lie within the domain of practical politics. The constitutional argument against the power of Congress to levy and collect taxes for such a purpose is probably not overwhelmingly strong. To raise money for distribution among the States may possibly be providing for "the general welfare of the United States," even in the strict sense of the term. But there are a great many things which are constitutional and at the same time highly inexpedient, and even sometimes ridiculous; several which Congress undoubtedly has the power to do, but which no sane man would advise its being permitted to do. It might maintain an army of 500,000 men so as to be wholly independent of the State militia, either in executing the laws of the Union, suppressing insurrection, or repelling invasion; but no one would advise its doing so, and the people would certainly not permit it to do so. Probably it would be difficult to devise anything which would constitute a more decided step toward centralization than the assumption, which both Mr. Barker and Mr. Blaine propose, by the general Government, of the payment of the local expenses of the several States. In other words, the really serious objection to the Barker plan is the really serious objection to the Blaine plan, but Mr. Blaine has got the better of Mr. Barker by producing his scheme as part of a great work of moral reform—a piece of strategy which Mr. Barker overlooked.

Whether the money which the Federal Government is to furnish the States, is raised from whiskey, or from tapioca or arrowroot, really makes very little difference. The consequence in either case would be that the local government would be relieved of one of its most useful and serious responsibilities, in the careful assessment and proper and honest collection of the taxes for local purposes. There is nothing more essential to the safety and perpetuity of free government in the United States than the imposition on the inhabitants of the several States of the duty of providing the money which is to be spent on local objects, and looking after its careful and honest expenditure. If this were taken away, only a mere simulacrum of local government would remain; and if local government be not necessary to the existence of a healthy and intelligent interest in politics on the part of the people, and to the maintenance of ordered freedom, then the Constitution itself is a huge mistake, and nearly everything that has been written by the friends of republican government as to the conditions necessary to the success of republican institutions, is a delusion. No matter whether the States got their expenses paid out of the whiskey tax or out of a silk tax or a sugar tax, as long as the tax was levied by Congress, Washington would become the great and central source of political interest and political intrigue, to which all men's thoughts would be turned, and the State governments would be converted into mere almoners of Federal bounty. In fact, a very few years of living on the contributions made by drunkards in other parts of the country would kill utterly the already too feeble interest which the best portion of the population in many parts of the country now takes in real politics, that is, in measures of legislation and administration as distinguished from the nomination and election of officers.

The *Sun* has pointed out the absurdity of the Blaine plan in the case of prohibitory States like Maine, which, if their own laws were faithfully executed, would under it be drawing all their expenses from the drinking people of other States. It is to be hoped, and indeed expected, that, with the progress of civilization and the spread of education, the consumption of liquor in all the States will decline. No patriotic man will reconcile himself to the thought that the United States shall continue to receive $86,000,000 from the whiskey tax. Unless all that is best in our institutions proves a failure, this source of income will decline. If there is to be any serious improvement in the mental and moral condition of the great mass of the people, it must decline. Every lover of his race must believe that Americans will consume hereafter less and less whiskey, and ought to strive to that end. What are we to think, then, of a Sage who deliberately proposes a change in the manner of raising the local taxation of the country, which would give every State the strongest possible interest in having the consumption of liquor all over the country maintained and increased, and which would make the distillery one of the most valued instruments of government?

THE PRINTERS AND THE PRESS

THE recent printers' strike, which, as far as the *Evening Post* is concerned, has proved abortive, has to a good many people been full of suggestiveness as to the nature of the present and future relations between the printing trade and the press, and more particularly the newspaper press. We have been asked again and again, during the last fortnight, how it happened that the morning papers of the city, which discuss with such fulness and freedom strikes that occur in other branches of industry, and especially railroad and telegraph strikes, should have preserved such deep silence with regard to the printers' strike, although it had taken place in nearly every one of their offices, and had ended in every case, except that of the *Evening Post* and *Mail and Express*, in surrender to the strikers' demands. This surrender must have been due to one of two causes—that is, either to a conviction that the tendency of wages in all branches of industry, printing included, was at this moment upward, or that the consequences of resistance, as regarded the newspaper business in particular, were too serious to be faced. As a matter of fact, it is notoriously untrue that the tendency of wages is upward. On the contrary, the tendency is downward in nearly all branches of business, and the coming winter promises to be a very trying one for workingmen. A strike was threatened a few weeks ago by the compositors of the Chicago *Tribune*, and the question whether an advance of rates was justifiable in the present and prospective state of the labor market was, by mutual agreement between them and the proprietors, left to the decision of three arbitrators, who unanimously decided in the negative, and their decision was accepted by the men. It is fair to presume, then, that the surrender was due to reluctance on the part of newspaper proprietors to face the immediate loss and inconvenience which a strike would undoubtedly have inflicted. The public, however, has a deep interest in knowing how great this reluctance is, and how far it will be carried, or, in other words, what are the exact nature and extent of the power possessed by the printers' trade union over the newspapers, and whether, if the newspapers succumb to it, it may not make itself seriously felt among the books also.

That the press should be controlled, even in a small degree, by any trade or industry, so as either to suppress or modify its utterances on any question of the day, whether political, social, or economical, would be a serious matter. No organization, however mischievous, can do much harm by having an organ of its own, as long as the organ is recognized as such. But the possession of a silent, unseen influence over the press in general, and especially the metropolitan press, by any organization, however respectable or meritorious or enlightened, either in its management or in its aims, would be very disastrous, not only for the readers of particular newspapers but for the country in general. There are not many things either in the political or industrial field so important as that the newspaper publishers, at least, should be masters of their own business, and, therefore, fully responsible for the use they make of their power. Whether they are so now in this city we do not take upon ourselves to say. But that they cannot continue to be so if their present apparent reluctance to resist the demands of the Typographical Union continues, is very certain. That these demands are growing and will continue to grow with each success the Union achieves, is also certain.

What its influence on the press would be we may guess from the manner in which the Union is managed, as illustrated in the case of the *Evening Post*. The methods employed to bring it to terms were such as only thoroughly unscrupulous and unprincipled men would resort to, and in the hands of such men the great body of the printers in the city have practically placed their freedom and independence. We do not believe that any demand upon the proprietors of the newspapers would be too daring or too mischievous for the managers of the Union to make. It is folly to suppose, if they find they are invariably successful in extorting an increase of wages by sheer trickery and intimidation, that they will hesitate for a moment in asking for anything else they take a fancy to—the dismissal not only of men who do not choose to join the Union, or of a foreman who does his duty, but of an editor whose writing they do not like—or that they will refrain from putting a veto on an article or on a topic of discussion. We ven-

ture to say that this tyranny already exists in some offices in this city to a greater extent than the public imagines, and to a very dangerous extent too; that is, that in a large number of them an article such as we published in our issue before the last, or even a much milder one, which criticised unfavorably the methods of the Typographical Union, could not be put into type or printed. Under these circumstances it is, of course, questionable how long the public can expect any free or profitable newspaper discussion of trade unions or their methods, or how long the Typographical Union will confine its censorship of the press to matters immediately connected with the printing business."

Its activity has in various parts of the country already taken the form of open attempts to muzzle the press by other methods than strikes in the printing offices. It has in Washington made efforts to "boycott" a newspaper by getting other trades to join in discouraging or preventing its sale. We have heard of one instance in which it has refused to set up advertisements of a particular class. The spirit which instigates such performances is one which everywhere grows with success. We do not mean to cast any special blame on the Printers' Union in this matter. There is hardly any organization in the world, which suffers directly or indirectly from the press, that would not muzzle it if it could. Any usefulness which the press possesses in the present state of society is due to the fact that it has grown too strong for nearly all special interests to meddle with it. The printers are the only class now which can directly interfere with its utterances, and it remains with the newspaper proprietors to say whether they will allow this new yoke to be put on their necks, or, by opposing it vigorously now, at the outset, compel printers to submit, in their business relations, to the social and moral obligations by which men in other callings have to be governed.

THE ADIRONDACK FORESTS.

The condition of the Adirondack forests is alarming. The remoteness of the region occupied by these forests from the great lines of commerce, and the inferior quality of the material they yield, have had the effect of long postponing their inevitable destruction. Within the last few years, however, changes have taken place in the values of forest property, which must appear marvellous to those persons who can remember the price of good pine lands in Maine, Michigan, or Pennsylvania twenty-five years ago, or who have been accustomed, up to a much later day, to find comfort in the stories of our inexhaustible forests. No forest is inexhaustible. Wasteful and negligent management will in time destroy any forest, as the American people are just now finding out. The great changes which have taken place in the value of forest property and forest products make it profitable to operate now in forests which a few years ago possessed little commercial value. This is already true of the forests in the northern part of the State of New York. As long as first-rate pine was plenty and cheap in other parts of the country, there was little inducement to cut inferior pine or spruce in a region where the facilities for lumbering are not great. At the present time, however, spruce lumber, and even the lowest grades of pine, command prices which make it profitable to cut off these Adirondack forests. Several large mills have been erected during the past year at different points in this region; the Adirondack Railway has been extended several miles into the forest for the purpose of transporting logs and lumber, and it is proposed to extend it considerably further next season. It is therefore perfectly safe to predict the entire extermination of the Adirondack forest within a comparatively short space of time unless vigorous measures can be taken to prevent it. Fire, as is always the case in this country, will be pretty certain to follow close behind the lumberman and destroy what is spared by the axe. Fires succeed fires, and the burning over, year after year, of the light sandy soil of this part of the State, will render it entirely barren, and unfit for agricultural purposes or even to produce another crop of trees.

Twenty-five years ago, the State might have acquired this whole territory at a merely nominal price. To-day, when the necessity for preserving these forests is at last really felt, it will be found an exceedingly difficult and expensive matter to place them beyond the danger of destruction. If this, however, is to be done, it must be done at once. If a delay of even another year is allowed to occur, the amount of forests to preserve in the northern part of the State will be so much reduced, and the market value of forest lands will be so much enhanced, that the possibility of treating this question in any comprehensive or proper manner will be gone. The real question now before the people of this State is, whether the preservation of the Adirondack forests is desirable upon grounds of public expediency; that is, whether the public can hope to obtain sufficient benefit from the expenditure which it will be necessary to make in order to obtain possession of these forests, to justify them in making it. In order to decide this question it will be necessary to consider what benefits the State at large may expect from the maintenance of a large area of forests about the head waters of its principal streams; and what evils may be expected to follow the destruction of these forests.

The climatic influence of the Adirondack forests, beyond their immediate neighborhood, is probably not great, so that the whole question resolves itself into a discussion of their effect upon the water supply of the State. What we must determine is whether forests in general influence the flow of rivers; and then what effect the destruction of these particular forests is likely to exert upon the water supply of the Hudson, the Mohawk, and other streams heading among them. If we turn to Europe we find that the destruction of forests has had a most disastrous effect upon the condition of innumerable rivers; and that where mountain forests have been destroyed freshets have developed torrents, towns and villages have been swept away, and valleys buried deep under heaps of stone and gravel. Such torrents have exhausted, in the course of a few weeks, the supply of water, sufficient under normal conditions to flow continuously throughout the year. Great streams have become dry or nearly dry for months every year; and agriculture, commerce, and manufactures have suffered as severely from an insufficient supply of water at one season as they have from too much water at others. Such have been the results of excessive and improper forest destruction in many European countries. The United States happily has not yet experienced such serious fluvial irregularities as have long wasted Southern and Central Europe. This is not owing to any difference in the relations between European and American forests and rivers, which are the same in all countries. It is probably owing to the fact that nowhere in this country has any very serious damage yet been inflicted upon the remote and often inaccessible mountain forests, in which most of our important streams take their source. The time, however, is fast approaching when it will be found profitable to the lumbermen to cut off even our least valuable and most remote forests. When these are destroyed, there is no reason to doubt that precisely similar calamities will follow their destruction as have followed the destruction of forests similarly situated in other countries.

A small portion of the Adirondack forest has yet, comparatively speaking, been destroyed; but nevertheless the water supply of the Hudson and the Mohawk has been seriously affected. There is already danger that the streams which furnish water to the Erie Canal will not be able much longer to maintain the supply, and that as soon as the forests are stripped from the steep slopes of the high ridges and peaks of the Adirondack Mountains the small streams which feed the canal, and the bed of the upper Hudson itself, will become filled with stones or sand-bars, and rendered unfit for navigation. The preservation of the Hudson River and the Erie Canal is of vital importance to the prosperity of the State of New York, and if it can be shown that they are in any way dependent upon the maintenance of a growth of forest in the Adirondack region, it will be the duty, and the first duty, of the next Legislature to take the necessary action to preserve this forest. We have examined this subject carefully in all its various aspects; and, looking at the matter in the light of the experience of other countries, and judging by the effect already produced upon the water supply in our rivers by forest destruction in this State, we believe that there is no exaggeration in stating that the future prosperity and even the commercial existence of this State are bound up with these forests, and that, unless we are prepared to abandon the natural advantages which made New York what it is, we must stop, and stop at once, any further destruction of the Adirondack forests.

THE GERMAN CROWN PRINCE'S VISIT.

The reception of the Crown Prince of Germany in Madrid has been such as to make it clear that he is looked upon by the Court, the army, and the people of Spain, not merely as

an illustrious guest, but as a future ally. That he came to show himself in the latter capacity, to render the friendly relations—not to say alliance—recently entered into at Berlin by King Alfonso and Emperor William popular among all classes in Spain, and especially in army circles, is more than probable. Mere courtesy and court etiquette did not require so speedy a return of a royal visit. Nor was it necessary—a journey of the nearly nonagenarian Emperor being out of the question—to burden the Crown Prince with the personal delivery of international compliments, at a moment when the oscillations of sentiment in Spain in regard to the new attitude of her Government toward France had not yet subsided, and when many a Spanish democrat might still be inclined to give vent to his sympathies for the French Republic, and to his antipathy against her Prussian despoilers, in the manner in which "the Uhlan King" was lately received by the populace of Paris. To unpleasantnesses of this kind, which are not always mere trials of stoic indifference, personages of such high standing do not expose themselves without an important motive.

But what can be the practical value of a Spanish alliance for Germany, or, more properly speaking, for Prince Bismarck's Central-European coalition? Does the coalition meditate an unprovoked attack upon France? There is not the least reason, not the least indication, to make one suppose it. And if it did, is there any probability of its being able to drag Spain, in spite of all her French and democratic leanings, into an offensive war with the neighboring republic? What has Spain to gain by it? Is Béarn, is Roussillon, to be conquered? The time for such conquests has long gone by. Louis XIV. was egregiously mistaken when he said, in placing a scion of the House of Bourbon on Spanish soil, "There are no Pyrenees any longer." They continue to be a most powerful barrier, both national and strategic. No Marshal of Spain will dream of fighting another battle of Toulouse; when Wellington fought his in 1814, the military power of France had totally collapsed. An attempt to invade France will be deemed fratricidal by the Spanish nation, and must prove suicidal to the Government. Or is the value of the alliance a negative one? Is the consummation of a Franco Spanish alliance feared, or rather the adhesion of Spain to a Franco-Russian alliance which might be formed one of these days? The addition of a Spanish army corps to the forces of France on the Rhine would be of very little significance. Nor could Alfonso be persuaded to aid the French republicans, by landings in Italy, in revolutionizing that peninsula against the Sardinian dynasty, or the Spanish people of to-day be induced, should a monarchical restoration succeed in France, to join in a French crusade for the reëstablishment of the Papal power, as it did in 1849. All such contingencies are so highly improbable, and so remote, that sacrifices and efforts to prevent or counteract them appear decidedly unworthy of so serious and bold a diplomacy as is the Prussian.

There is, however, another field where the military activity of Spain might become exceedingly useful to the coalition erected by Prince Bismark as a bulwark of Central Europe against Russia and France combined, and where the moral support of the coalition would be still more important to Spain. We mean Northwestern Africa, as a possible theatre of Spanish warlike expansion. Spain has small possessions, some interests, and bases of operations there; she is anxious for colonial acquisitions on her side of the Atlantic, which might compensate her for all she has irretrievably lost on the other side; and her generals can find no other field for earning laurels by the sword, unless it be in civic contests. In Morocco moulder the bones of King Sebastian, and of so many other Spaniards who have fought for the Cross against the Crescent, down to the times of Prim and O'Donnell. This land of the Moors, from which came the foes with whom she contended for eight centuries, Spain looks upon as her lawful prey. The conquest of Algeria, the ancient Numidia, by the French, sharpened her desire for the conquest of the adjoining ancient Mauritania. In the same way emancipated Italy longed and expected to unite Tunisia, the land of ancient Carthage, with her dominions. The treacherous snatching away of this prey by France drove Italy into the alliance with Germany and Austria-Hungary. It equally exasperated Spain, who now finds that France is bent on seizing alone all the heritage of decaying Islam on the African shores of the western Mediterranean, with the hope of one day converting the latter into "a French lake."

To persuade Spain to resume and steadily to pursue a bold and aggressive policy in Morocco, and thus make her suspend her sword over the right flank of the French in northern Africa, while Italy, powerful in her ironclads, would menace the left in Tunisia, would be a permanent weakening, if not disabling, of the Republic for warfare against a powerful enemy in Europe. To begin such a policy, Spain needs only the promise of Germany, which might be readily given, that a violent opposition to it on the part of the French would be deemed by the Empire a wanton provocation of the Powers allied for the sake of peace. Germany may be inclined to promise more direct co-operation with her fleet, for which she is said to be anxious to acquire a station, such as the port of Mogadore, on the Atlantic shore of Morocco. Aggressive operations in Morocco could be begun by Spain without a direct challenge to France—however threatening they might appear to her—and thus without a challenge to the Spanish democracy. The Cabinet which initiated them would strengthen its position; success would strengthen the throne. No more propitious time for beginning such a policy could be found than the present, when the anti-French animosity is still lively among the majority of the Spanish people, and France is inextricably entangled by her adventurous undertakings in the far East. These considerations seem to us to offer a plausible explanation of the German Crown Prince's visit to the Court of Spain and of his choice of the moment.

ORANGE ACTION IN ULSTER.

DUBLIN, November 17.

THE United States and the British Colonies are perhaps as much interested as we are in the solution of the Irish problem. The unsettlement and demoralization at home are confined within the limits of the British Islands. But to you and the Colonies are being carried principles and modes of thought which, so long as they are nourished from here (and probably long after), will take root and flourish and bear bitter fruit over vast territories and amidst untold millions of people. A heavy responsibility rests upon the public opinion and journalism of the United States. Nations owe duties to each other just as individuals do. How much the unity of Italy was promoted by the moral support of Great Britain! How much the anti-slavery cause owed to its British allies! The South would scarcely have attempted secession if it had not relied upon the sympathy of the governing classes in the United Kingdom.

So is it at present with the Irish question. You have opportunities of judging more coolly and broadly than we can; and we know that if the public opinion of the United States be clearly and steadily against us on any important point, we are pretty sure to be in the wrong. And yet even your judgment must often be warped. For instance, the leading organs of Protestant England and Ireland may naturally unduly influence you, and it is to be feared that the samples of Irish you have in your midst are too often not fairly representative of our real character and capabilities. One of my best friends in the United States lately wrote, "I no more think of your being Irish than of your being a Malay." On the other hand, you may perhaps bring to the solution of the problem theories regarding the rights of men and of nations which are not applicable in the case of Ireland and England. And since the majority in every country take sides from interested motives, your politicians are not peculiar if they try to advance their party or their personal aims by an easy acquiescence in cries or measures which affect a distant body politic, and can never, as they suppose, react on themselves. Still, I cherish a profound confidence in educated America arriving at a clear and helpful average opinion upon the subject. Your unimpassioned distance may outweigh in advantage our more intimate acquaintance with facts, blinded as we are by the heat and dust of the conflict.

The proceedings of the Government with regard to late events in the North appear to us Nationalists most unfair. You are aware how the matters stand. There is an open agitation in Ireland under the auspices of the National League. The objects of this League are to secure for Ireland self-government in local affairs perhaps such as your States have, and a system of peasant proprietary such as exists in nearly every part of the civilized world except the United Kingdom. No one believes that these changes can be effected by force of arms. Our weapons are words. In the course of the agitation there is much said that ought not to be said; but we can hardly expect here the ordinary moral responsibility for language such as there is in a free country. Everything written or spoken passes through Government sieves. The Government can at its own will, at any moment, forbid any meeting, silence any newspaper, and cart off the plant of a printing-office to the vaults of the nearest police station. Government reporters attend every meeting. The language for which Mr. Hartington suffered three

months' imprisonment in convict's dress, with plank bed and oakum-picking, is of course stronger than it is safe to utter upon any Irish platform. His words have already appeared in your columns; but I may be permitted again to quote them:

"I advise the tenant-farmers of this locality to come forward zealously, and give a fair day's wages for a fair day's work. The agitation which has been carried on for the last four years will be turned against them if they do not come forward now and assist the laborers in their hour of need. I have learned since I came here (the county of Westmeath) that a great many of the farmers had got a reduction of from ten to twenty-five per cent., and they should come forward now, and assist the laborers in their hour of need."

Our minutest actions are watched by the police. We are liable to arrest if out of doors after certain hours. A word, a look, the refusal to sell to a customer, the whistling of a tune, may at any moment subject a man, a woman, or a child to imprisonment with hard labor. It is under these conditions that public meetings are held throughout Ireland. I have never heard it asserted that the language uttered on such occasions has been exceptionally violent in Ulster, or that meetings have there been attended with disorder. And then the Orangemen, headed by Lord Rossmore, Lord Ernest Hamilton, deputy-lieutenants, magistrates, and gentlemen step in and declare they will have no more National demonstrations in "their" province. Not content with holding meetings of their own, which they would have a perfect right to do, and in which they would be supported to the last by the Government (and which some of the most trusted National leaders have pledged themselves to insist on their right to hold, in any part of Ireland), these Orangemen have waited for National meetings to be announced, some in almost purely Catholic districts, have then issued proclamations, called their followers together, by road and rail, and assembled at the same spot and hour, with the declared determination to prevent the announced demonstration. They have resorted to open force upon more than one occasion. They have used language in comparison with which Mr. Hartington's is "as moonlight unto sunlight, and as water unto wine."

Under such circumstances the duty of the Government would appear to be plain, to mete out the same measure to Protestant noblemen and gentlemen, in Ulster, as it metes out to the mass of the people throughout Ireland. Lord Ernest Hamilton and Lord Rossmore are as fair game as Mr. Davitt and Mr. Healy. The Orangemen tried their Derry tactics in Glasgow the other day, and placarded their intention of preventing a lecture which it was announced Mr. Sexton, M. P., would deliver. Whereupon the Lord Provost did what the Irish Government, with its 50,000 troops and police, and a dozen coercion acts at its back, failed to do—declared his intention of supporting liberty of speech. He called on the military and police to protect the hall, and Mr. Sexton gave his address unmolested. Now what has been the action of Mr. Gladstone's Liberal Government in Ireland as administered by Earl Spencer and the biographer of Macaulay and Fox? It has done precisely what the Orangemen wished it to do, "proclaimed" the National meetings. It has been fair in this respect as regards the County Fermanagh—it has forbidden the carrying of arms to both parties alike; but we may feel sure that few of those gentlemen who lately advised their adherents to bring with them "their sweethearts and plenty of provision" (meaning revolvers and ammunition) will be refused licenses. It will be interesting to hear what defence the Government will make when Parliament meets. The *Times* is of course well satisfied, as it always is when force is applied to the solution of the Irish problem. It says: "The decision of the Irish Executive . . . has been welcomed with unalloyed satisfaction by sensible men of all parties." How do the American people and press feel in this matter? I am reminded of Gibbon's words: "As they punished only their enemies, they were obeyed only by their adherents." A high official in Dublin Castle told a friend of mine a few days ago that "Earl Spencer was rapidly following in Mr. Forster's footsteps."

In considering the question, you must remember that while the reported language of too many of the Nationalists is violent and in bad taste, often addressed as it is to inflammable audiences, the private sayings and attitude of their opponents are worse and more irritating. Many of the most violent Nationalists show themselves in private conversation to be reasonable men, while the freely-expressed extreme opinions of the ascendency party in Ireland appear ingrained in their very nature. I have never heard more wicked utterances than in private, at eating-houses, in public conveyances, against the tenantry and people of Ireland. Whether from conscience or policy such language is seldom uttered in public, but this vindictive and contemptuous attitude of mind must make itself felt, and with the most baneful results to the community. Moreover, conservative public pronouncements of this character are not exposed like the extreme words of Nationalists. The *Freeman's Journal* prints both alike, but I have turned to the *Daily Express* in vain for reports of such speeches—as one in which, the other day, the nominee of the Constitutional party for the Mayoralty denounced Mr. Gladstone as "a traitor to his country, and a traitor to his God"; or as another in which on Thursday evening, at a Conservative gathering, a professional man heaped the vilest insinuations upon Mr. Parnell and some of his party.

I will conclude this letter with a portion of a speech delivered the other day, by a Belfast Protestant manufacturer, to his 300 Protestant workpeople, who had persecuted from among them a few Catholic girls. It shows that while religious bitterness has for the most part died out in open party warfare, it still subsists among the population from whom the Orangemen are recruited:

"I have little doubt that you all feel very happy and delighted at having, by cruel intimidation, driven a few quiet, respectable, and inoffensive girls from these works, and are under the impression that you have accomplished a glorious victory, of which you are exceedingly proud. Is this not so? Your doing so has forced me to believe that you are just the right sort to tyrannize over the weak and helpless, and who would, if you dared, establish an inquisition where you would try and condemn Papists to be burned, and for a pastime hunt and hang Presbyterians. . . . You are a disgrace to Protestantism, and had you lived in the times of this good king (William III.) who fought and won the battle of civil and religious liberty, you would have been found in the ranks of his bitterest enemies." D. B.

THE LUTHER CELEBRATION AND ITS SEQUEL.

BERLIN, November 14.

THE last fortnight of our (and of a great part of European) life has been taken up with Martin Luther. Demonstrations and festivals of all kinds were celebrated all over the country and abroad. The old towns and places interwoven with the prominent events in Luther's history, such as Eisleben, where he was born and died; Erfurt, the university where he studied; Wittenberg, where he passed the best part of his hard-working life; Worms, where he stood before the Emperor and uttered the immortal words: "Here I stand; I cannot do otherwise. So help me God, Amen"; the Wartburg, where he translated the New Testament, and the old castle of Coburg, in the solitude of which he continued his studies—all these, with more or less pomp, splendor, and taste, celebrated the 400th anniversary of the great reformer's birth. They were joined, of course, by all the Protestant cities of the Empire. The German Lutherans in Catholic towns and provinces did not stay behind, and with spontaneous enthusiasm did honor to the great national hero. In non-German countries, as in the Russian Baltic provinces, in Norway and Sweden, Denmark and England, Holland and Switzerland, the interest of the people was as genuine as in the districts where the Reformation originated, suffered, and only partly triumphed.

In Prussia, the leading Power of Protestantism, the most orthodox wing of the Lutheran Church tried to make capital out of the great national movement for its own selfish ends; but its designs were baffled, first, by the Crown Prince, who invited the Liberal Protestants to join him at the first Wittenberg celebration, and proclaimed mutual good-will and forbearance as the duty of every patriot; and next by the masses, who cared more for a national than for a sectarian commemoration. Thus the good sense of the Crown Prince and the current of popular feeling proved stronger than the arrogance of intolerant clergymen and reactionary country squires. In Berlin, the University and city authorities vied with the Government in making the celebration an imposing holiday. Although the Berlin Mayor is a Roman Catholic (but not of the infallibility stamp), the President of the Board of Councilmen a Jew, and although three of the State Ministers are Catholics, entire harmony of feeling prevailed. One of the finest features of the day was the procession of about 100,000 school children, who in large squads marched to the churches and were presented each with a popular biography of Luther. All classes of the people appreciated thoroughly the importance of the day and looked happy and elated. Flags waving from housetops and towers; music playing the great hymn of the Reformation, "Eine feste Burg," and chorals; banners stretching from one side of the street to the other; fresh green wreaths and garlands decorating private houses and public buildings or thrown on the pavement, made a highly festive impression.

The conduct of our Roman Catholic brethren was not what it ought to have been. While nobody expected them to participate in the celebration, they were likewise expected not to manifest their anger toward it. It was only a practical joke that Herr Windthorst, the leader of the Ultramontanes, half clown and half statesman (imagine such a compound!), proposed a day of Roman Catholic humiliation and prayer for the sins of the followers of Luther, and for their return to the bosom of their loving mother. This comical proposition, of course, was laughed at by the Protestants, and even not heeded by the most bigoted Catholics. The attempt of the leading paper of this city, the *Germania*, to renew at the end of the nineteenth century a style of warfare which, more than two hundred years ago, was initiated by the Jesuits, and even then derided by all except the mob, likewise proved futile, although dozens of pamphlets followed in the wake of the *Germania*. There is no foul slander, no mean epithet in the German language, which was not used in their attacks upon Luther's character. They transformed his name into "Luder," which means carrion—an invention which, however, has not the merit of being new,

as it was manufactured at the outbreak of the Reformation; represented his father as a murderer and his son as a rebel, a robber, and a usurper. The actions of such a criminal were of course dictated by low ambition or lust, and his heroic life was nothing but a mixture of treachery and meanness. It is not quite certain, says one of these pamphlets, published in the Prussian city of Treves, whether this unprincipled monk (Luther) died of debauchery, or whether finally "the devil came for him."

So far as I know, there was only one prominent Roman Catholic who appreciated the full importance of Luther—I mean Ignatius Doellinger, of Munich, perhaps the greatest scholar in the history of his Church. He wrote to a friend that Catholics too were obliged to do homage to one of the greatest sons of Germany, and that they, as well as Protestants, ought to celebrate the 400th anniversary of the day on which Luther was given not only to his own country but to the whole civilized world. Of course Doellinger is right. We all—our modern civilization—stand on the shoulders of Luther. It was he who, in overthrowing the despotism of Rome, did away with the Latin dogma and reconquered the liberty of conscience and the autonomy of the individual. It was he who thus aroused the world from mental slumber to intellectual activity, and made the Teutonic race the leader in modern history. I cannot dwell at length upon the history of the Reformation, its spread to England and America; but your own political development is based on it. I think you will agree with me, that that grand thesis of ninety-five paragraphs which, on the 31st day of October, 1517, Luther nailed on the chapel door at Wittenberg, finally, after more than two centuries and a half, found its synthesis, when, on July 4, 1776, in the State House at Philadelphia, the young rising republic of the West made its Declaration of Independence and established liberty of conscience in politics. Thus Wittenberg and Philadelphia stand in close connection. Luther and his co-workers were the originators of the Reformation of the Church—Washington and his compeers, of that of the State.

But, even his merits as a reformer set aside, Luther has other peculiar claims on the gratitude of the German people. Our language would have been stifled in a dozen different dialects if he had not elevated it by his classical translation of the Bible and by his hymns; our schools would never have reached their comparatively high standard if he had not established them on a sound pecuniary basis, and extended the sphere of their useful activity. The Roman Catholics also ought to revere him, as his fierce warfare on the old Roman Church did away with the wicked Popedom of the Middle Ages, and effected the so-called Catholic counter-reformation.

It is a pity that in the present exasperation of minds, and in the midst of a conflict which for the past ten years has been raging with almost mediæval passion, greater stress had to be laid on Luther, the reformer and manly fighter, than on the patriot, the scholar, and the peaceful organizer. On the whole, the sacerdotal character prevailed in the festivity all over Germany, and introduced a certain narrow-mindedness which manifested itself even in Berlin. The old Emperor, who was present at the services in the St. Nicholas Church and the Cathedral, on this occasion considered himself merely as the high bishop of the Protestant Church and invited only Protestant dignitaries. Besides, the speeches and sermons of those days abound only in monotonous praise. Why not represent Luther as he really was? Why whitewash his stubbornness and other faults; why conceal his shortcomings and chiefly attack his opponents, who in a great many instances stood above him? Take only Zwingli!—not to speak of Thomas Münzer and Karlstadt! A really great man, such as Luther is and always will be, still remains great even if he often errs. Not a word was said about the phases which he underwent in his long life. From the time when he first (on October 31, 1517) attracted public attention in Wittenberg, down to his appearance before the Diet of Worms, in April, 1521, he was the great national hero. From 1521 to the outbreak of the great Peasants' War, in 1525, he was the great revolutionary leader who appealed to the masses for the support of his work, and obtained it. These eight years, from 1517 to 1525, are the most fascinating and the noblest period of his life, during which he was the most popular and the most respected man of Germany and of Europe; but then he became afraid of the consequences of his own doings, cried for the police against Münzer and others, became an established clergyman, and cared only for securing his religious reformation under the shelter of petty princes, who protected him for a very valuable consideration, namely: the confiscation for their sole profit and interest of the estates of the Church. Nevertheless, Luther is one of the representative men of history.

Awakened by the enthusiasm of the Luther commemoration, some plans have been formed to perpetuate the memory of the present celebration. First, it is intended to erect a statue of the reformer in a most conspicuous place in Berlin, as the largest Protestant city of the Continent and the capital of the German Empire. The principal promoters of this plan are the members of the Gustav Adolf Verein (the Liberal wing). Some propose to place the statue opposite the Great Elector on the King's Bridge and fronting the finest part of the old Castle. The collections promise rich results; they will at least produce a sum sufficient to pay for a first-class work. All the Berliners can desire is that the statue to be cast shall equal Siemering's statue of Luther which, on the 10th instant, was unveiled at Eisleben. It is really a masterpiece of sculpture. By the way, this Prof. Rudolf Siemering is at present engaged in modelling a large equestrian statue of Washington for the Philadelphia Cincinnati. In my opinion it is equal to Rauch's Frederick the Great. Besides, a committee has been organized for the collection of a capital of several millions for the education of the sons and daughters of poor teachers and clergymen. The ultra-Orthodox wanted to confer this benefit only on the sons of clergymen who should become theological students; but the more liberal men succeeded in having it conferred also on children of teachers, and in not limiting the stipend to theologians, but in allowing all the stipendiaries to follow any trade or profession. This movement too, spreading all over Germany, and headed by the most influential gentlemen, will be a decided success.

It is, however, more than doubtful whether a third plan will safely reach port. It contemplates the erection of a new "Luther Church" in this city. There is no sympathy for it, for the reason that the first idea was advocated by our Orthodox, who play the part of black gendarmerie in our political life, and that Berlin has already too many churches, which are far from being filled. Some years ago, when the Berlin Magistrate was applied to for a contribution for the erection of a church which was to be built in one of the new suburbs, an inquiry was made in order to ascertain whether or not the neighboring churches could accommodate a few hundred more new comers. The Committee found that in one of these churches the highest number of visitors was eleven, and that in the other it amounted to twenty-three. Among the latter were sixteen old ladies, who took their nap; five gentlemen, who liked the cool air in the heat of the summer day, and two baby Christians with their mothers. The Magistrate accordingly refused to act in the premises, and in the present instance, I apprehend, the pious Berliners, too, will decide that there is no need for a new church, even if it be for Luther.

Let me finally call your attention to some prominent publications on Luther's life. The best and most complete of all is 'Martin Luther: Sein Leben und Seine Schriften,' by Dr. Julius Köstlin, Professor at the University of Halle, in two large octavo volumes, which has just been published in its third edition. The first appeared in 1876, and the second last spring. For the thoroughness of its investigations, the accuracy of its details, and its fine style, this standard work was crowned with a prize of 1,000 thalers by the Prussian royal committee which had to decide on the merits of historical works which had been published between the years 1870 and 1880. An epitome of this larger work has just been published for the anniversary, and has been translated into English. It is well worth reading. A work not less conspicuous, and perhaps more comprehensive, is that which Prof. Max Lenz, of Marburg, Professor of Modern History, has written for the Magistrate of Berlin, who has distributed it in the higher classes of the gymnasia. In my opinion it is best adapted for the general reader, as it represents Luther in the light of his time. It does not fill more than 300 pages, 12mo, and ought to be translated into English. Popular and cheap pamphlets for schools have been written by the court preachers, Rogge and Frommel, of which several hundred thousand copies have been distributed. They are finely illustrated, and cost only twelve cents and six cents apiece respectively. The best contribution, however, to the glorification of November 10 is Herrman Boehlau's new critical edition of Luther's works, in royal 8vo, to be published in about thirty-five volumes, at twenty marks each, and superintended by one of the most learned Luther critics, Mr. Knake of Drackenstedt. Theological seminaries, students, and libraries cannot in future dispense with this new edition of Luther's works. In New York it will be found at E. Steiger's, who has taken thirteen copies, as I see from the subscription list.

† † †

Correspondence.

THE SPEAKER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I imagine that many if not most of your readers, in following the fierce struggle over the Speakership as reported from Washington, have wondered what there can be to cause so much excitement in the mere office of presiding over the business of the House of Representatives. They are perhaps not aware that the Speaker is by far the most powerful individual in the Government, much more so than the President or any member of the Cabinet. The Speaker makes up absolutely at discretion all the committees which do the business of government, subject only to the established custom of naming a fair minority from his political opponents. When it is considered that these committees, working in secret, have, to say nothing of their positive power in shaping the policy of the Government, a nearly perfect negative power of stifling any movement or action which they do not like, it

becomes evident how important is this function of the Speaker. Add to this, that after the committees have reported, the Speaker, through his power of "recognizing" at his pleasure members desiring to speak, can throw the chances of political manœuvring very largely in favor of his political supporters. With all this power the Speaker is completely irresponsible either as regards the nation or the Executive. He is bound only to the party majority which has elected him, and after such a conflict as the present we may be sure that to them he is bound hand and foot.

It is a curious instance how, in spite of all our dread of one-man power, our affairs tend to drift steadily more and more in this direction. The fact is that there is an absolute necessity for some organized leadership in Congress. A passing comment of Mr. E. A. Freeman, in his "Impressions of the United States," is very much to the point:

"One incident specially struck me as illustrating the constitutional provision (*sic*) which shuts out the ministers of the President from Congress. One representative made a fierce attack on the Secretary of the Navy, and the Secretary of the Navy was not there to defend himself. Generally, I should say, the House of Representatives and the legislative bodies which answer to it in the several States illustrate Lord Macaulay's saying about the necessity of a ministry to keep a Parliament in order. One result of its absence is the far larger powers which in these assemblies are given to the Speaker. And this is again attended by the danger of turning the Speaker himself into the instrument of a party."

G. B.

Boston, November 30th.

THE SOUTH IN THE NATIONAL REPUBLICAN CONVENTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As you have correctly pointed out in your paper, there is a strong effort made to repeat, in the 1884 Republican Convention, the spectacle of a solid Republican South. This result will be inevitable if the President continues in his policy to take advice, as to the South and Southern officials, from those who at present control Southern Republican patronage. It seems from the choice of such advisers: 1st. That the President either does not know or does not believe there are any decent Republicans in the South. 2d. That, at court, an impression seems to prevail that there are no Republicans in the South worth consulting, except those who either seek or hold office. 3d. That the policy pursued by certain Southern politicians in preventing any decent accessions to the Republican party, so as to keep it, as to numbers, within such a compass that there shall be no more white Republicans than necessary to give each of them an office, is especially approved of by the President and his advisers, or is acquiesced in by them from an ignorance of the true state of the facts. Just think how untrue it is, and how much more untrue it becomes every year, that we exercise the right of free citizens in the choice of our officers. It is the same from the President down to the constable in the smallest civil district. In no case has the popular voice any real choice. Look at the composition of a National Convention. Ward politicians and local wire-pullers make politics so disgusting that no decent gentleman has anything to do with them. Under this state of facts local conventions, to appoint first State and then national delegates, are held by these ward politicians and local wire-pullers. The delegates thus constituted meet and agree upon a choice, in which the people have to acquiesce. Now that is not enough. It so happens, in the circumstances herein suggested, that the choice of nearly one-half of the delegates, or at least of a respectable working minority, is made up from the Southern States, where none but office-holders or office-seekers control such affairs. And that is called a National Convention of the party of great moral ideas!

Is it not time that the tide of these evils should be checked? If the President really does not mean to work for a renomination, or if he intends to be renominated only if it can be done fairly, why does he not examine the true condition of the Republican party in the South?

Unus.

Nashville, Nov. 24, 1883.

OUR REPRESENTATION IN ITALY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In anticipation of the meeting of Congress, and that information may not be wanting as to the state of our relations with Italy (though with faint hope that either public opinion or official wisdom will be moved by what is to be said), I beg to call attention to our official representation at Rome. Last year I showed that, owing to the ill judged attempt of our Government (properly, I suppose, a Congressional committee) to force the hand of Italy, the Italian ministry had refused to recognize as Consul-General the gentleman appointed to that office, in pursuance of the economical policy of accumulating the offices of Consul-General and Secretary of Legation on one representative. The Italian Government has from time immemorial refused to recognize a consul as a diplomatic officer, and even, until Mr. Marsh induced them to relax the rule, to allow the consulate-general of any foreign country to be established in the same place as its legation; and when our Government, ignoring (as it has done during the past year) the rebuff in its attempted violation of Italian official etiquette, persisted in forcing on the recognition of Italy a consular officer accredited with diplomatic functions, the King's Government replied in the only way left it, by refusing to recognize the consulate-general, and has ever since ignored it completely, requiring the authentication of signatures, etc., as far as official recognition is concerned, to be made by the legation—*i. e.*, officially cutting the consulate dead. I suppose that our Department of State cannot be ignorant of the egregious discourtesy involved in thus persisting in a pretension which in the beginning was an act of impoliteness, such as in private intercourse the rudest member of Congress would hardly venture on; but the Department has been in many cases, and I believe was in this, overruled by the action of men utterly ignorant of diplomatic etiquette. It is just as well, therefore, that the country should be advised that the Government of Italy has not relaxed, and will not relax, its regulations; and that our Consul-general does not, and under the present régime will not, exist for it; and that instead of economizing, as Congress intended, we are wasting the salary of the Consul-General, and keeping up an insulting farce at the court of Rome, thus augmenting the reputation of America for a lack of either politeness or intelligence. The only step our Government can take in common decency is to move the consulate-General to some other city—Turin, Milan, Florence, or Naples. From its general convenience for Americans and central situation, of course Florence would be the best, and doubtless the most grateful to the Italian Government.

But this is not all the story. The present state of our aggregate representation illustrates curiously the awkwardness of our position. We have at this moment no proper official representative at Rome, unless either the Minister or the Secretary of Legation has very recently returned, of which I am not informed. Mr. Astor and Gen. Richmond are both away on leave of absence—there is no Consul-General or Consul, and the Vice-Consul-General is Mr. Hooker, a banker, who of course, as any banker would, values the connection at so many francs a year in the business of his bank. The respectability of allowing our official character to rest in the hands of any banking establishment is questionable, but here we have the legation and consulate mixed up with a banker who was, during our war, known as the most actively disloyal Northern man in Rome. In his hands is now the entire dignity of the United States of America. I believe he gives a room in the bank for the use of the legation, and the arms of the United States serve as the sign-board of his bank. We have a consular clerk who is appointed and paid by the Government, and is, I believe, a most competent officer and actually performs all the duties of the consulate-general; but he is, by our ingenious system, not recognized as a public official, and for the Government of Italy does not exist.

I have nothing to say of the *personnel* of our official representation. The position is not of their making, and they are not responsible except for the anomaly of the Minister and the Secretary being absent at the same time; but it is clear that if our national character is of so little importance that it may be left in the hands of a banker for months at a time, a wiser economy would abolish it altogether. To suppose that Congress will pay any attention to the dignity of the country abroad, is doubtless a dream; but then let public opinion insist on respectability or economy. It is probably to the hammering of exasperated Philistines and outsiders like myself, that we owe the slight reform in the consular and diplomatic service—a reform which, as to the personality, is considerable, and most grateful to one who remembers it in past years, but which, so long as the system is not legally reformed, secures nothing. Let it be made a law that no man in trade, no banker or shopkeeper, or man interested in any business in the place where the consulate or legation is located, shall have any official connection with it. We are not so poor that we cannot pay our representatives. We do not at present pay them enough—in many cases not living wages to an *honest* consul; but we can at least keep our name abroad from being "put up the spout," either by paying or abolishing the places we can't pay.

W. J. S.

November, 1883.

DEFECTS OF THE HOMESTEAD LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a report to the United States Land Office, on the working of the homestead law, by Mr. E. T. Bickford, it is stated that a large proportion of homesteads in Dakota are claimed by persons who are not actual settlers. One need not go as far West as Dakota to find a similar state of affairs. It may safely be said that 25 per cent. of the homesteads in the State of Wisconsin are claimed by lawyers, merchants, tradesmen, and other people, who do not at all intend to make their homesteads their homes. They erect a rude log-cabin on their claim, in which they spend a few pleasant summer days every year, and, five years later, offer to make final proof. Any one of their neighbors is ready to bear witness that they have complied with all the requirements of the law. I recall the instance of a widow lady from New York, who used to spend the summer with her friends in this village. She claims to be the legal owner of a fine homestead in this county, yet I doubt whether she has ever so much as seen the place. Our homestead law

certainly needs an alteration.—Very respectfully,
ERNST BRUNCKEN.
MEDFORD, WIS., Nov. 22, 1883.

LITERARY RESEMBLANCES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The tribulations of authors will apparently never cease. Here is an English correspondent of the *Literary World* writing from Germany of the appropriation, by the veracious Charles Reade, of an incident in one of Grimm's Fairy Tales, and of its interweaving by that fertile author into one of the innumerable stories which he is flinging off right and left—this time into the columns of one of the Harper publications.

The object of this letter is not nearly so wicked, but simply to recall to some of your German-reading readers the remarkable resemblance between a picturesque incident in Mr. F. Marion Crawford's 'Roman Singer'—the story of Nina's love-confession to Hedwig von Lira—and Grimm's "Dornröschen," in which the hedge grows up around the enchanted castle, and suddenly, on the approach of the lover-prince, breaks into blossom. I do not assert that this is a case of plagiarism, but the incidents are sufficiently alike in the two stories to haunt one with a feeling that one may have suggested the other.

J. A. H.

LEXINGTON, VA., Nov. 25.

THE SENIOR SOCIETY EVIL AT YALE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is certainly no good reason why secret societies should exist in any college. Without doubt the element of secrecy works a great harm both at Yale and elsewhere; but that Yale in particular is handicapped by its society system is not true. The writer, an undergraduate and a non-society man, is greatly surprised to learn, through the correspondence columns of the *Nation*, that he and the majority of his classmates are under a tyranny of two senior societies having a membership of thirty, about equally divided between the best and the very weakest men in the class. So much of your correspondent's letter is absurd. And in regard to another part of it, I speak for a large number of my classmates when I say that as long as we have minded our own business we have not been in the least annoyed by mystic scarf-pins or the increasing size of "Bones" hall. Furthermore, after nearly four years of college life, our loyalty to Yale is by no means destroyed because we do not happen to be members of this or that club or society. As to the statement that it is useless to appeal to the Faculty for redress of grievances because half the members of that body were society men in college, it strikes us as rather severe on the rest of the Faculty.

But without taking too much space, we wish to offer a few disconnected facts, which do not go to show that the secret societies are on the whole a benefit to the College, but which may temper the impression conveyed by the letters you have published. In the first place, Yale men generally agree that the strong class feeling here is, as a professor recently said, "a grand good thing." It promotes the democratic spirit for which the College is remarkable; and hence the class system of societies is at least more desirable than one which might tend to break up this class feeling. Again, the senior societies hold out elections as incentives to good literary work and success in athletics; for the valedictorian, the salutatorian, junior prize-man, successful college journalists and writers, and the men who distinguish themselves by faithful work in foot-ball, base-ball, and rowing are generally sure to "go" to either "Bones" or "Keys." This is the only real excuse for their existence. As to the death of "Linonia" and the other debating societies, they died a natural death here, as in other New England colleges. Indeed, debating societies seem to have followed the Star of Empire, and to day they flourish in Western universities.

As I said in the beginning, there is no reason why secret societies should not cease to exist in all colleges. But the point that I insist on is that the reform must come not from within, as "Graduate" suggests, but from without. The evil which your correspondents mention so indefinitely is simply the toadying of a considerable number in every class to a few members of the class above; and the harm done by the societies is that they encourage this toadyism, or "suping," as it is here called. These societies will cease to exist just so soon as a healthy college sentiment comes to recognize the fact that the traditional secrecy of fifteen or thirty college seniors is a very silly thing at the most.

SENIOR.

YALE COLLEGE, Nov. 27, 1883.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a graduate of Yale I rejoice at the opening in the columns of the *Nation* of the discussion of what is aptly styled the "Senior Society Evil at Yale." No one can pass four years as a student in that institution without becoming deeply sensible of the overshadowing influence wielded by the two senior societies. If his judgment is not warped by a consuming desire to become a member of one of them, I venture to say it will be equally impossible for him not to recognize the fact that the influence of these societies is highly detrimental to the best interests of the College. There is not a detail mentioned in the recent communication of an undergraduate that is not borne out by the experience of every non-society man who goes through Yale.

To attempt to explain just why the College world should be so dominated by the small body of men who compose the membership of "Bones" and "Keys," would be a difficult task. There is no valid reason why thirty men should so largely control the minds of six hundred. The absurdity of the thing, however, makes it none the less a fact, and one which, as remarked by "Graduate," vitally concerns the welfare of Yale College. The tyrannizing tendency of the societies is no myth. It is as real as any influence that one feels at college, yet can with difficulty be described. The shackling of the College press is complete, and the high-spirited undergraduate feels the galling weight of the "society influence" when he learns that the columns of the College press, ostensibly organs for the free expression of College opinion, are closed to him if he desires to call the attention of his fellow-students to some subject which the mighty powers of the societies decide shall not be discussed. If the College community may be considered a world in miniature, and the College press as relatively the same to this little world as the public press is to the world at large, the simple fact of interference with the free working of this organ of public life should utterly condemn the system responsible for it. No one can conceive of an institution so beneficial in other respects that we should be willing to give into its unlimited control the press of the country; nor should a similar state of affairs be tolerated in a college, by those who profess to have at heart the interests of the institution they serve. I lay stress on this particular phase of the "Senior Society Evil" because it is in this way that the societies largely exert their deadening influence on the growth of an independent manhood at Yale. From the time of entering, the undergraduate, if he desires to secure a place in one of these gatherings of "the most distinguished men of his class," is subjected to a course of imposition, and if he dares call his soul his own he is at once set down as having "ruined his chances." As a consequence, where we should see manly young men we see too often only "supes."

That the loyalty of the Yale graduates is greatly lessened by the continued existence of the senior societies is a fact patent to all who are not wilfully blind. I was informed recently, by a Yale man, of a graduate (at the head of a preparatory school) who said that so long as the secret societies existed at Yale he should exert his influence against sending his boys to his Alma Mater. It is a question for the Faculty and Corporation to consider whether they can afford to ignore the existence of this sentiment among the alumni—a sentiment that must, if continued, be injurious in a high degree. "Graduate" suggests that, instead of abolishing the societies, they be entreated to discard their infantile regulations; but I think if they were to do this and also cease to be exclusive, they would scarcely have a *raison d'être*.

Gentlemen of the Faculty, you have in the bosom of Yale College an enemy to her progress. The feeling in regard to the society system may be unreasoning, but it exists, it is on the increase—and what do you propose to do about it?

EIGHTY-THREE.

MEDIA, PA., Nov. 24, 1883.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The senior societies of Yale have their advantages. Membership in them is an object of ambition to most underclassmen, as, *prima facie*, it is an evidence of superiority in learning, culture, good-fellowship, muscle, or wealth. The fraternity spirit in these societies is very strong, and one who has passed the mystic portals receives benefit therefrom, social or other, throughout his life. But, taken all in all, these societies are not an unmixed good. Till the close of the junior year, when the elections are given out, the student ambitious of being a senior-society man may be spurred on to extra exertion in some way that promises to win for him this honor; but, after election, this impulse is gone, and these societies cease to have any appreciable beneficial effect. It may well be doubted whether in any practical sense the members realize the ideal educated gentleman any more fully than they would have done had there been no such society. On the other hand, these societies are hurtful to their members, to those not members, and to the College at large. The last point has been sufficiently elaborated in these columns already, and all that has been said on this head is only too true.

According to Thackeray's definition, the senior-society man is essentially a snob, and the sentiment that makes him such is encouraged by his fellows to a point beyond the limits of absurdity, and becomes a source of constant annoyance and irritation to those without the pale. This spirit of snobbery breeds toadyism in underclassmen, and tends to paralyze independence and to prevent the development of true manliness. It makes invidious distinctions. It is undemocratic. It creates an aristocracy in what should be a republic. The Faculty and Corporation, almost to a man, are members of these societies, and are so biassed by their fraternal feeling that, in the distribution of honors, they are too often led into doing injustice to those not of the elect. The time is near when these societies must be reformed, or they will irreparably injure the College.

H.

ST. LOUIS, Nov. 24, 1883.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The communications attacking the "Senior Society Evil" at Yale, which appeared in the last two numbers of the *Nation*, have been read with much attention here. They have started anew the old discussion as to the good or evil of the present societies, and it is with a view of opening up the other side of the question that this letter is written.

At the outset I shall make the declaration that the senior-society system is an admirable thing. These societies are an incentive to men to work—an incentive the power of which cannot be appreciated by any one who has never lived beneath Yale's classic elms. From the day the freshman sets foot upon the campus to the day of the senior elections, he has something before him to work for—a distant goal, to attain which all his best qualities and powers must be directed. It is a race for glory, fame, honor—moreover, it is a race in which all start on an equality. The poorest freshman is on a level with the wealthiest, provided he uses his powers judiciously. It is human for man to wish to appear well in the eyes of his fellows, to win their commendation and respect; and such is the end which each man of spirit has in view who strives for election into the senior societies. It is a race in which the best men win. All that is admirable in man is brought into play to reach the desired goal. Excellence in scholarship and in literature, success as a skilful and well-trained athlete, a polite and ever gentlemanly deportment, the possession of a strong, manly character—these are the qualifications for election, these are the paths open to the undergraduate to pursue; and if one will look over the members for past years, he will find that nearly all shone under one or more of these heads. I say nearly all, for there will of necessity be some few men elected on petty considerations, but yet even these will be found to have been not without some merit. Ancestry and wealth have from time to time been qualifications for election. But can the upper classes be held culpable for taking men whose fathers and grandfathers have been honored members, or for taking men for their money when they also take deserving men too poor to pay dues, and whose expenses must be met by some means or other? I reassert then that the present system is a good thing, for it induces men to work for worthy ends, it encourages them to work in directions profitable to themselves and to the College; it frowns upon excessive dissipation—in fine, it develops and brings to light the good that is in a man, and sends him forth into the world far the better for his college experience.

The writer in the last *Nation* on this question offers some very sensible thoughts, but he errs sadly when he draws a picture of 150 out of a class of 180 rendered non-loyal to their Alma Mater after the bestowal of the coveted elections. In the first place, there have never yet been 150 men "left" in any class. In the second place, there have never been (to make the largest estimate) more than sixty men considered as at all eligible. There is in every class a large majority of the members who never stand even the slightest chance. These include the "digs," the fast men, the indifferent men, the lazy men, the independent men, the retiring men, and the class blockheads and fools. These men, I say, make up the majority of the members of each class. The remaining members are the candidates for elections, and in no class of my own experience could they muster over fifty men. Thirty of these, then, become the happy recipients of mystic emblems, leaving twenty "soreheads" rendered disloyal (as "Graduate" puts it) to their Alma Mater by their failure of election. These, and these only, are the men who return here to find this once dear campus without a charm for them; these are the ones who are "glad to get away from their college haunts." There is, I admit, on the part of this few a lack of patriotism toward Yale which shows itself in many ways after graduation. But the great body of the class has no such feeling of disloyalty. Any one who has been at Yale knows that he cannot hope for a senior election without some praiseworthy distinction of one sort or another. Those who do not try cannot expect to be rewarded. Poor taste indeed is it in any one of this class to raise a cry about the evils to the college of a system which bestows its honors on the deserving, and on them alone.

A secondary purpose for which this letter is written is to say a few words regarding the new senior society. The long-felt need of a third society at Yale has been met by the enterprise and courage of members of the last and present senior classes. To found a society in the face of the prestige sustained by the old societies by virtue of time and prominent graduates is no small undertaking. But the founders feel that with proper judgment and judicious foresight the enterprise promises well. At any rate, the foundation of a third society is assured. For the past two weeks building has been under way, and a society hall will be finished during the winter. That there is room for the coming society is universally admitted. It will fill a position in college life necessary to the welfare of old Yale. It will serve as the remedy which "Graduate" calls upon the Corporation and Alumni to supply. It will unite a certain number out of each class under a common tie, and prevent the decay of undergraduate enthusiasm. In general, by enlarging the field of contest and bestowing honors upon more men, it will create a healthier, less antagonistic feeling on the part of every undergraduate. X.

YALE COLLEGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am glad to see, at last, in your columns a discussion of the evils of the secret society system at Yale, for I believe that system works great detriment to the true interests of the University. The absurdities of etiquette which those societies force upon college society at large are most puerile. For example, while rooming with an editor of one of the college papers, I found in the library an old Dissenters' Hymnal of a century or two ago. I was asked to write a brief article upon the book, giving extracts. I did so, choosing, of course, such portions as most sharply contrasted the then with the now. When the article was done, the editor singled out one extract with the remark, "That cannot be published." "Why not?" said I. "We should be in trouble at once," replied he: "Skull and Bones would think it was meant as a direct insult to them." The offending extract happened to contain the innocent phrase "dead men's bones" in such connection that only a hyperæsthetic vanity could have discerned a covert allusion. Yet it had to be suppressed. A lady, conversant with the circumstances, is my authority for the following. An acquaintance of hers was visiting in New Haven. At the friend's where she was stopping there called a member of "Scroll and Key." During the evening the young lady was asked to sing. Seating herself at the piano she innocently began "Gaily the troubadour," when to her astonishment she saw the gentlemanly (!) senior turn on his heel and make for the door without even the formality of an "Excuse me."

While we may laugh at the conceit that seeks to throw a quasi-sacred halo about social clubs of half-grown youths, by tabuing every word or phrase that the supersensitive self-consciousness of the adolescent devotee can by any possibility twist into an allusion to the pin he so conspicuously displays upon his necktie, there is a serious side to it as well. It was notorious ten years ago, that while the ostensible basis of election to "Bones" was scholarship, members were but too apt to choose as their successors those who had been their "heelers" in the contests of "college politics," making that which is from the first held up to the student as one of the highest college honors the reward not of merit, but of trickery. The letters you have published would seem to indicate that such an impression still obtains among the students. How far this four years' practical training in the "spoils system" has influenced the position of Yale alumni in national and State politics, would be an interesting field for inquiry: but no one who has carefully watched its effects can doubt that it lowers the tone of college morality and college honor. It is for this reason that, though my personal memories of New Haven are pleasant, and though I have influenced more than one to attend the post-graduate courses of the University, I have uniformly, when consulted, advised parents *not* to send their sons to Yale for their college course.

Very respectfully yours,

L. B. TUCKERMAN.

CLEVELAND, O., Nov. 26, 1883.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter of "Harvard Graduate," in No. 961 of the *Nation*, seems quite to overlook the essential difference between the society systems of Harvard and Yale. At the latter college only thirty men out of each class—that is, about one-fifth—are admitted into the societies in which membership is so highly prized. At Harvard, about a hundred and forty men, or two-thirds of the class, find a place in one of the three mutually exclusive societies. There is doubtless toadying here, as in other parts of the civilized world; but there is no abject servility toward a few men in the senior class, for the simple reason that the societies are too large for any control of the elections of new members by a knot or clique.

As for "secret societies," in the sense in which that term is usually applied in American colleges, they have never taken root here. There are at present three "Greek-letter societies," of which one has never had a close connection with the fraternity, one is literary, and one is moribund.

H.

CAMBRIDGE, Dec. 3, 1883.

THE DISCIPLINE OF SCIENCE STUDY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me a word in reference to Mr. Frederick G. Bromberg's article in the issue of Nov. 15, upon the "Study of Greek." With the writer's main proposition that the true end of all culture is to "teach the future man to think," I am entirely in accord (indeed, I hold all teaching that falls below this to be not alone fruitless, but vicious); but in the demonstration of this proposition there are two points which seem to me open to criticism.

I presume I believe as fully as Mr. Bromberg in the study of language for discipline or utility; but that science cannot and does not, under proper conditions, subserve "the true end of all culture," I believe to be a mistake. "No one can do original thinking in any department of science who is incapable of making original investigations therein. Original investigations cannot be made by children." Of course no child can, at a single bound, rival the masters

in science, but every child is placed, with reference to any science, where the most brilliant investigator started—at the beginning. To make my meaning clear: A flower is given to the child. He knows nothing about it; he dissects it, noting everything that comes under his observation; with each repetition of the process new discoveries are made; and finally the child knows one plant, not from having read a description of it in some text-book, but from actual contact with it, through his senses. Or, in a similar way, he may make a study of the corresponding parts of different plants, as stem, leaf, petal, stamen, etc.

A child thus taught is an original investigator. He may not add at all to the world's knowledge of plant life, but, for himself and for the development of his own mind, he is as much an original investigator as the most profound student of modern botany. To be sure, he will make mistakes, and often fail utterly to grasp the meaning of his subject; but we have seen Virgil and Homer most horribly mutilated at the hands of classical aspirants. If, now, he be required to express his ideas of what he has learned "in appropriate language of his own," is he not taught "both to think and to express his thoughts in words"? What is true of botany is still more true of other departments of science; especially may the elements of physics and chemistry be so presented that the pupil is constantly an original investigator.

That science has not in the past held the place it deserves as a disciplinary study, and does not now hold that place, is because of the manner in which it has been presented. Lay aside all text-book cramming, and let the young pupil learn the great facts of science from a natural and objective point of view, and we shall hear of great minds whose diet has been science. If the young mind needs concrete objects for its contemplation, where will it the more readily find them—in nature ever calling for investigation, or in the ὁ, ἡ, τό of a Greek grammar? And whether it will be more helpful for the practical man, in his every-day life, to be familiar with the great laws of the world around and above, or with the proper accentuation of Patroclus, seems apparent.

For those sciences which are more strictly mathematical, Mr. Bromberg would substitute language because they are too abstract and demand only "a very limited vocabulary and the use of very bald sentences." On these very grounds I would defend the study of mathematics. No one can lay any claim to a disciplined mind who has not acquired the power of abstract thought. Like the power of original investigation, this does not come at a single step; it is a long process and the result of years of toil; the child can and should make a beginning. Though the vocabulary of mathematics is limited, it is exact; and for this reason mathematics is invaluable for the young student. Nothing has more constantly to be checked than looseness in thought and expression. For developing clearness of thought, closeness of reasoning, and conciseness of expression, there is nothing like the cold logic of mathematics.

In thus arguing for science as a disciplinary study, I do not mean to decry language, ancient or modern. The fully-developed men will have both. I only claim for science due recognition. We can ill afford to sacrifice either; surely we ought not to sacrifice the living facts of science for a smattering of a dead language.

FAIR PLAY.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & Co. will publish shortly 'An Illustrated Guide to Mexico, for Tourists, Settlers, and Invalids,' by Alfred R. Conkling; 'Anecdotes of the Civil War,' by Maj. Gen. E. D. Townsend; 'English Lyrics,' in the Parchment Series; 'The City of Success, and Other Poems,' by Henry Abbey; 'The Organs of Speech,' by George Hermann von Meyer; and 'Body and Will,' by Henry Maudsley, M.D.

Prof. Herbert Tuttle's 'History of Prussia to the Accession of Frederick the Great'; 'Characteristics,' by A. P. Russell; 'Excursions of an Evolutionist,' by John Fiske; 'A Roundabout Journey,' by Charles Dudley Warner; and 'Tennyson's "In Memoriam," A Study,' by John F. Genung, are among the immediate publications of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The same firm have just issued a lithographic life-size portrait, uniform with their *Atlantic* series, of Nathaniel Hawthorne, drawn by Mr. J. E. Baker, after an English photograph. The expression is remarkably animated, free from anything morbid or sombre, and so in marked contrast to the better-known likenesses of later date. Mr. Hawthorne's family are more than pleased with this reproduction, and we have little doubt that the public will show a similar partiality for it.

Thomas Whittaker will shortly publish 'Doctrine and Duty, or Notes on the Church,' twenty-five sermons by the Rev. Geo. F. Cushman, D.D.

'Times of Charles XII.,' the third volume of Topelius's "Surgeon's Stories," is about being published by Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago.

The November *Bibliographer* (J. W. Bouton) announces that the first part of the Philological Society's English Dictionary will soon make its appearance, containing A—Ant, and covering 352 pages.

The American Institute of Instruction offers a prize of $60 for the best essay, without regard to length, on "The New Education: its Origin, History, Principles, Methods, and Results." Essays must be sent to the Secretary, Mr. Thomas B. Stockwell, Providence, R. I., on or before April 1, 1884. The vagueness and vastness of the subject, and the smallness of the premium (which is also the purchase money of the favored MS.), do not promise great results.

James R. Osgood & Co. have issued in an attractive shape the letters of Abelard and Heloise, with an introduction by Mrs Abby Sage Richardson. She narrates the familiar story forcibly, but with so little knowledge of anything but the bare facts as to be superficial and misleading. The letters are given in an English version of the last century. A new translation is needful if the reader of to-day is to understand their pathos and power. It is not that St. Benedict would not be recognized as St. Bennet, nor that *preposterous*, used literally, is now absurd; but that what was thought needful polish a hundred years ago seems only to weaken thought and feeling to a generation that prefers the vigorous directness of the Latin.

It is hard to understand why the late Prof. Amos Dean's little compendium, 'The British Constitution' (Townsend MacCoun), should be given to the public, apparently without revision, nearly twenty years after its author's death. The observations of a lawyer of high standing upon the legal features of the English Constitution will not readily lose their value, and there are many paragraphs here which we can read with pleasure and instruction; but the inadequacy of the historical part will be seen at once when it is noticed that neither Stubbs, Freeman, May, nor Bagehot, nor, we think, Hallam, is referred to as an authority. The need of revision is further shown by the presence of such slips as (p. 70) making Charles II. brother of Charles I., and (p. 73) making the Electress Sophia daughter of James I.

Recent French translations of two American books deserve record. One is Col. Higginson's 'Life in a Black Regiment,' which appears as 'Vie Militaire dans un régiment noir' (Paris: Fischbacher: New York: F. W. Christern). The translation is the work of Mme. la Comtesse Agénor de Gasparin, who had previously rendered into French Mr. Frederick Douglass's autobiography. The other is Mark Twain's 'The Prince and the Pauper,' which appears among the first half dozen of a new "Collection des chefs-d'œuvre des littératures étrangères" (Paris: H. Oudin et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern). It is called 'Le Prince et le Pauvre.

The great French publishing house of Firmin-Didot & Cie., having completed their magnificent edition of Sir Walter Scott's novels with new and plentiful illustrations, have now begun a companion edition of Fenimore Cooper. The first volume, 'Le Dernier des Mohicans,' is to be illustrated by M. Andriolli, and will appear at once (New York: F. W. Christern). This is additional evidence, were any needed, of the very high place Cooper has always held in the estimation of Continental critics.

The veteran French abolitionist, Victor Schœlcher, has given to the National Library his large and extremely valuable collection of anti-slavery works, containing many rarities, and in addition his collection of works relating to the *Coup d'État* formed during his exile. The former, says *Le Livre*, is unique of its kind.

A new evidence of the rapid differentiation of science in our day is afforded by the announcement from Germany that the firm of Cotta proposes to publish a magazine to be devoted exclusively to the scientific treatment of financial questions. The new periodical is to be called *Das Finanzarchiv*. The editor-in-chief is Professor Schanz, of the University of Würzburg, and among his assistant editors we notice the name of Dr. E. J. James, Professor of Finance and Administration in the University of Pennsylvania.

— *Harper's* and the *Century* always make a special effort in December, and their Christmas numbers this year are certainly very good. The race is pretty even, but the *Century* still gives evidence of being a little ahead, with *Harper's* pressing it close. With these two for favorites, and no field—for the other magazines can hardly be said to encroach upon their domain at all—the result will be watched with interest, no matter what it may be. Charles Reade is writing short stories for *Harper's*. Howells contributes a play ("The Register, a Comedy"); William Black some, "Gossip about the West Highlanders." Mr. Reade is unfortunately out of fashion. There was a time when the announcement of short stories from him would have been a great literary event, and we hardly know why it is that those he is now writing attract so little notice. They are very much the same as what he used to write when 'Peg Woffington' and 'Christie Johnstone' were thought to be among the prettiest tales in the language; but they are not the same, because we have changed ourselves. We ask for more analysis and subtlety, and Reade seems hardly any longer a contemporary. He has actually become in his own lifetime a survival. Mr. Black tells some curious stories about the West Highlanders, whom he knows very well. To Americans all Scotch are alike, and rarely known at all except through the caricatures of *Punch*. But the Scotchman whom the Englishman ridicules is usually the

Lowlander, and the Highlander is a very different creature—more amiable, childlike, and primitive—a clansman and a Celt. The illustrated articles this month are exceptionally good.

—The *Century* has the effect of greater luxury in the editing than any of the rival magazines. Without undertaking to express a technical opinion as to its illustrations, or other details, it is certainly safe to say that the wayfaring magazine reader feels as if its subscribers must be marching along in the foremost files of time, so far as magazine literature is concerned. The object of an illustrated magazine is chiefly entertainment, and entertaining the *Century* always is. Its frontispiece this month is a striking picture of the late Peter Cooper, reinforced by some "recollections," by Susan N. Carter, who dwells with perhaps needless iteration on his benevolence—a quality which, in a philanthropist, may to a certain extent be taken for granted. Literature is represented chiefly by the concluding instalment of Mr. James's clever "Impressions of a Cousin," a sketch of life in New York which shows his usual ingenuity. It contains an excellent picture of a familiar New York character—the defaulting trustee—accompanied by another of a much more uncommon type, namely, the good brother who saves the defaulting trustee from ruin and exposure by the sacrifice of his own property. Mr. Robert Grant has added himself to the lengthening list of American novelists (his "Frivolous Girl" could hardly be called a novel), contributing the opening chapters of "An Average Man." It would be worth the while of some one with a fondness for statistics to make out a list of American novelists. It is hard to recall any large number of the younger generation of literary men—or women—who are not writing a serial. The capacity to write a novel of some sort seems to be very widely distributed, but, of course, this makes it all the more difficult to attain eminent success in it. The production of plays is a matter of far greater difficulty.

—In the December *Atlantic*, Mr. R. G. White discusses "Some Alleged Americanisms" in an entertaining manner. The subject is an old one with him, and the view which he holds with regard to it has become, partly through his efforts, a very generally accepted one. Nevertheless, we think we may point out an aspect of the matter which he now and then overlooks, and which accounts for the curious fact that English people of education continually talk and write about "Americanisms" which Americans declare to be nothing more nor less than English. "To stamp a word or a phrase as an Americanism, it is necessary to show that (1) it is of so-called 'American' origin—that is, that it first came into use in the United States of North America; or that (2) it has been adopted in those States from some language other than English, or has been kept in use there while it has wholly passed out of use in England"—points which, as Mr. White says, are very difficult of sufficient proof. But in a multitude of cases, unless we are greatly mistaken, English writers, when they talk about Americanisms, mean something different from all of this. For instance, he refers to an English critical review of high standing, which, in discussing Walt Whitman's prose, speaks of "scooted" and "out of kilter" as "American slang." Now "scoot" and "kilter" he shows to be English words, or provincialisms; consequently, he says, they cannot properly be regarded as American slang. Notwithstanding which, we venture to assert that if Mr. White were wandering in far Cathay, or on the banks of the White Nile, and should there fall in with a total stranger, who should suggest that as things in that part of the world were rather out of kilter' they had both better just scoot, he would, without hesitation, pronounce his new acquaintance an American. What would make him so sure? Because he would expect from a casual English acquaintance phrases entirely different. Without going into the matter too minutely or curiously, Mr. White seems to overlook, at times, the fact that a mere difference in use may give a word or phrase, for the time being, a sufficiently distinct American character to justify its being called an Americanism, or at any rate to prevent the calling it an Americanism being such utter folly as it seems to him. When we talk about the current use of language, we certainly get upon very debatable ground. Another striking article is an account by Mr. Emerson of Mary Moody Emerson, his aunt, and her religious eccentricities.

—"Doctor and Count Mattei" is the title of an article in *Lippincott's* by Marie L. Thompson, on the great Bolognese "electro-homœopath," Count Cesare Mattei, and incidentally on the trade of the old-fashioned charlatan, as it is still plied in Italy. The Count, it should be understood, is the originator of a system of medicine which is something quite different from medicine as ordinarily practised by any known school. The principle of electro-homœopathy (which should not be confounded with that of homœopathy) was, it seems, discovered twenty years ago by him, but, as so often happens, most of the people who have occupied themselves with it, instead of being willing to see that it is "the greatest boon which God has yet sent upon earth," and consequently ought to have been "widely diffused by all who had the sentiment of duty and honor," have simply looked into it "for the purpose of falsifying it." This makes it the less surprising that, as the Count's 'Guide Pratique' says, all the books hitherto written on electro-homœopathy have been written in ignorance. The simple fact is that the Count's medicines, manufactured by himself, and which he declares have hitherto "defied analysis," restore a patient to health by "renewing the normal action of the diseased organs." This certainly seems to be what medicine ought to do, but then it must not be forgetten that in treating a sick person with electro-homœopathic remedies it is necessary to know whether he is of a sanguine, or lymphatic, or "mixed" temperament. The reason that the medicines have defied analysis is that the Count has never revealed the secret of their composition; and it is hardly necessary to say that the story that "certain medicinal herbs, or the essences of such herbs, form the base of the Mattei globules and liquids, essences which act upon the system like morphine, strychnine, etc.," is a malicious slander got up by rival physicians and druggists. Altogether, electro-homœopathy promises well for those who know how to make use of the new science.

—The November circular of the Johns Hopkins University has just appeared. The number of students is 233, an increase of twenty-nine over last year. It is worthy of note that for the last five years the increase has been almost entirely among the graduate students. They number at present 148, more than half the entire body of students—a fact which has, as a matter of course, a strong effect upon the tone of University life. Among the States represented, Massachusetts shows its usual avidity for learning; not content with its own colleges, it sends, after Maryland, the third largest number of students to Baltimore. No other college, probably, gives a student so large a portion of an instructor: the catalogue shows that there are only five and a half men to each member of the academic staff. The principal accession to the corps of instructors this year is Dr. Paul Haupt, formerly professor of Assyriology in the University of Göttingen. He has organized classes in Hebrew, Arabic, Assyrian, Ethiopic, and Sumero-Accadian. Among the losses, actual and possible, are Dr. Sedgwick, associate in biology, who has gone to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Dr. Hastings, who has just received the appointment to the chair of physics in the Sheffield Scientific School. The circular gives official information of the resignation of Professor Sylvester, who has held the chair of mathematics from the opening of the University, and who has been a chief element of its fame. His lectures during the present half year are on Multiple Algebra, a subject which is almost entirely his own creation, and in regard to which he says: "To me it seems that this vast new science of multiple quantity soars as high above ordinary or quaternion algebra as the 'Mécanique Céleste' above the 'Dynamics of a Particle' or a pair of particles." The students of the University and a small portion of the general public have had this year the rare privilege of listening to a short course of informal but most eloquent and impressive lectures on history and politics by Professor von Holst; and more recently have enjoyed the no less enviable opportunity of hearing Professor Bryce on Roman Legal History.

—Mr. D D. Lloyd, the Washington correspondent of the *Tribune*, has written or, it would be more correct to say, compiled a play, which was first produced last week in that city. With the exception of the leading character, the parts are the stereotyped figures with which many generations have been more or less amused; the scenes consist of the most threadbare of situations and the clumsiest of stage contrivances; the dialogue is hardly more connected, or original, or artistic than the anecdote column of a country weekly—that of one scene, in fact, being bodily lifted from one of Mark Twain's 'Sketches,' while another is boldly borrowed from "In Paradise." To complete the defects of the play, as presented, the acting, with the exception of the leading part, was uniformly bad—not merely crude and awkward, but often coarse. In spite of all this the play seems to be a success: the theatre is filled, the President honors it by attending it, members of the Cabinet and "retired statesmen" like Mr. Blaine sit through it with, apparently, great enjoyment. It is true, doubtless, that had not the part of "*General*" *Limber*, the politician, been acted by J. T. Raymond, no one would have gone to see it, but even a first-rate actor cannot make a success of a play unless it has something which appeals to popular sympathy. To this sympathy was primarily due the success of the same actor's *Colonel Sellers*; but "The Gilded Age" was not only a far better play, from both a literary and a theatrical point of view, but there was much originality and attractiveness in the Colonel's character as a person, aside from his representing the type of optimistic speculator, which we are all said to be in embryo, and in which we naturally take a hearty interest. But not even Mr. Raymond can give a personal interest to the hero of "For Congress," who is a mere bundle of attributes—the "stock Congressman of the writers of fiction," minus the interest which belongs to the latter as one of several characters who collectively work out the story. He is a mere country politician of the lowest rank, the puller of the most obvious and familiar wires, the mouthpiece of the most hackneyed noble sentiments, familiarity with which, as political devices, has destroyed in him even the consciousness of their incongruity. His cynicism, indeed, is so open as to be without humor

while the best touch of nature in *Colonel Sellers* was his childlike confidence not only in himself, but in his schemes.

—It is, therefore, sympathy of a different kind which connects actor and audience in "For Congress." It is not to what they are, but merely to what they have seen or heard, that the actor's successful appeal is made. We might dwell upon the moral, implied in this statement, that politics must indeed be in a bad way when good-natured contempt for the political class is so universal as to make such representations acceptable. We prefer to remark upon their picturesqueness, without which mere truthfulness would fall far short of success. The politician (in the East, at least) is far more familiar than the speculator, and, judged by the standard of the plays and novels commonly presented to us, he is as original as the red Indian ever was. Mr. Henry James has told us that the difficulties, usually insuperable, of the American novelist are owing to the absence of social distinctions, without which are impossible light and shade. Mere wealth does not appeal to the imagination, and is therefore useless to the novelist. But the politicians form a "class" whose literary merits are only beginning to be appreciated. Though their eminence is usually self-created, it is undisputed, and the feeling of the public with regard to them is, not like, certainly, but perhaps analogous to, that felt by the European middle class for those of whose nominal superiority they are at once conscious and resentful.

—The *Deutsche Rundschau* for the present month begins the publication of "Ivan Turgeneff's Recollections of Life and Literature." Those to whom French is easier reading will derive much gratification from two articles in the November *Livre*—"Ivan Tourguéneff raconté par lui-même," by Michael Ashkinasi, and a further discourse about the same genius, apparently (to judge by the initials) from the same pen, under the rubric of Foreign Correspondence. In the latter so-called "biographical study" we are treated to an almost entire translation of the appreciative and discerning estimate passed by Bielinski on the rising novelist in 1848. One sentence from this critique is as follows: "The principal trait of his talent is his inability to create a character that he has not met with in real life." Turgeneff himself confirms this in a sentence quoted by Mr. Ashkinasi from his 'Recollections': "I must confess that I have never tried to create a character unless based, not on an idea, but upon a living person"—for example, Basarof in 'Fathers and Sons.' Bielinski did not overlook, either, "the art with which Turgeneff paints the scenery of our country. He has an artist's love of nature, depicting it not exclusively in its poetic aspects, but just as he sees it. His paintings are always truthful, and you will always recognize our dear Russian nature." Ashkinasi, reminding us that Turgeneff was a man of gradation, not of revolution, hazards the conjecture that some posthumous work may be discovered, in which it will appear that he *could* paint the "veritable Russian revolutionist" of to-day, though he avoided doing so during his lifetime. His descriptions of the personal appearance of Pushkin and Gogol, his experience with the censorship—one K. changing the phrase "This young girl was a flower" into "This young lady resembled a splendid rose"—his love affair with a young English woman, broken off by a nameless "accident très-vulgaire et très-grotesque" in a boat excursion on an Italian lake, his indignation at Russian Jew-baiting, his resentment against foreign traducers of his native land—such are some of the topics touched upon more or less fully by his admirer. Add to all this a most interesting etched portrait of the sad-eyed author of 'Virgin Soil.'

—Some forty years ago, Johanna Schopenhauer, mother of the philosopher, published the charming reminiscences of her youth which, gracefully abridged by Mrs. Austin, formed the most interesting chapter of her volume on 'German Society.' The time and scene of the reminiscences are the last quarter of the 18th century in Danzig—then as picturesque socially as it was (and is) architecturally. One of the incidents related by Mrs. Schopenhauer is how, as a little girl, she was one day playing in the house of an old lady, Mrs. Chodowiecki by name, when a great disturbance arose, caused by the sudden arrival of the old lady's only son. The boy had left Danzig thirty years before, with nothing in his pocket but his talents, and not much hope of turning these to advantage. But fortune favored him, and he became a prosperous portrait-painter and book-illustrator. In 1773, he made the above-mentioned visit to his mother, during which he kept, both with pen and pencil, a daily record of all that happened within his vision. At his death, his sketch-book passed into the possession of the Berlin Academy, from whose archives it was recently disinterred by the director of the institution. Chodowiecki sketched everything, beginning with the farewell to his family; and his sketch-book, as published, is said to be unique in its faithful portraiture of manners and customs. Pictures of ostensibly the same character were previously known, but they occur chiefly as illustrations of the absurdly artificial and conventional fictions of the time, the illustrations of which, had they depicted real life, would not only have burlesqued the text, but would have shocked the sensibilities of the romantic readers of the day as much as Trollope's realism shocks Mr. Julian Hawthorne. Historically, the sketches are more valuable than works of genius, such as Hogarth's, since no *arrière-pensée* is involved in them—no intention to point a moral or adorn a tale.

—The sixteenth volume of the Encyclopædia Britannica (Little, Brown & Co.) is preëminently devoted to scientific and technical subjects. The articles "Mineralogy," by Professor Heddle, "Meteorology," by A. Buchan and Balfour Stewart, and "Mollusca," by Ray Lankester, are, in reality, extensive books. Next to these must be mentioned "Mensuration" (Professor Thomson), "Metallurgy" (Dittmar), "Micrometer" (Dr. Gill), "Microscope" (Dr. Carpenter), "Mining," "Mint," "Molecule," and "Morphology." Some of these treatises are richly illustrated. The most conspicuous contributions to philosophy, theology, and Biblical science are by Professor Caird ("Metaphysics," a very extensive treatise), Rev. Dr. Rigg ("Methodism"), Dr. Harnack ("Millennium"), Prof. Robertson Smith ("Messiah," "Micah," etc.), Rev. Dr. Littledale ("Monachism"), and Wellhausen ("Moab," "Moses"). The last-named also contributes an essay on Mohammed, while one of his few rivals as a Biblical and Oriental critic, Nöldeke, treats of the Koran and the Moallakat. Schiller-Szinessy's articles on the Mishnah and Midrash are crammed full of bibliographical details and lexicographical remarks, and, therefore, almost unreadable. Wellhausen's "Moses" contains some interesting special points, but appears to us inadequate even as a supplement to his great article "Israel." Nor is "Moab" full enough, considering that there is no separate notice of Mesha (and his stone). That there is no entry whatever under the latter name is characteristic of the peculiar economy of this Encyclopædia, which in the present volume also omits to furnish any reference or statement to readers who look for information on Miriam, Messalina, or Miaulis; on the island or the Venus of Milo; or on any of the sultans called Mohammed. The sultans will, of course, in due time easily be discovered under "Ottoman Empire" or "Turkey," though undoubtedly not with the necessary biographical particulars, as distinguished from the historical; but Miriam is mentioned neither under "Moses" nor under "Israel," Miaulis is barely alluded to under "Greece," and why is the average reader presupposed to know that Messalina was the wife of the Emperor Claudius, in the notice of whom he may read about her, or that the island of Milo is described under "Melos"? That Mendizabal, Messala, and Mittermaier do not appear among the biographical notices, nor Meudon, Michoacan, and Minho among the geographical, is, perhaps, less surprising. Among the more interesting lives are those of Mencius (by Professor Legge), Felix Mendelssohn, Metternich, Michelangelo (Colvin), John Stuart Mill (Minto), Milton (Masson, 18 pages), and Montesquieu (Saintsbury). Of the articles combining description and history the most important are: "Mesopotamia" (by Socin), "Mexico," "Mougols," "Montenegro," and "Morocco." In all these the more recent history is defective. The late history of Mexico is especially remarkable for its skeleton-like meagreness. The invasion of 1861 and the war of the following six years are told in ten lines, in which there is no mention of Forey or Bazaine, Diaz or Escobedo, Miramon or Zuloaga, or of the siege of Puebla. The geography of the United States is represented by descriptions and very handsome maps of Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, and Missouri. The most valuable maps in this volume are those of Mexico and Morocco.

SEELEY'S EXPANSION OF ENGLAND.

The Expansion of England. Two courses of lectures by J. R. Seeley, M.A., Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge. London: Macmillan & Co.; Boston: Roberts Bros. 1883.

THIS singularly thoughtful and suggestive book abundantly accounts for the interest in historical inquiry which the author has succeeded in kindling among the students of the University at which he lectures upon Modern History. His resolve, indeed, to be independent, to look at history exclusively from his own point of view, is, perhaps, pushed to excess. It causes him to be a little too disdainful of the labors of his predecessors in the same field, and in the result he seems to us to do less than justice to their manner and method of writing history, and, perhaps, to exaggerate the importance of the new views set forth in the volume before us. At the same time there can be no question that their importance is great; that by means of these lectures a novel light is thrown upon the tangled records of English history during the eighteenth century.

The title of the book explains its object. It sketches the enormous territorial expansion of England during the eighteenth century. Having regard to this expansion, Professor Seeley is of opinion that the interest of English history ought to "deepen steadily to the close," but actually, as it has hitherto been written, the reverse of this is the case. "English history, as it is popularly related, not only has no distinct end, but leaves off in such a gradual manner, growing feebler and feebler, duller and duller, towards the close, that one might suppose that England, instead of steadily gaining in

strength, had been for a century or two dying of mere old age." The eighteenth century, beyond all others, has left only

"a faint and confused impression upon the national memory. In a great part of it we see nothing but stagnation. The wars seem to lead to nothing, and we do not perceive the working of any new political ideas. That time seems to have created little, so that we can only think of it as prosperous, but not as memorable. . . . But what we chiefly miss is unity. In France, the corresponding period has just as little greatness, but it has unity; it is intelligible; we can describe it in one word as the age of the approach of the Revolution. But what is the English eighteenth century, and what has come of it?"

The cause of this lack of interest and unity Professor Seeley finds in what he considers a radically false conception of the manner in which history ought to be written. Historians treating of the eighteenth century, for example, have devoted themselves almost exclusively to the task of reproducing the age, and the men and women who lived in it, and the events which happened, precisely as the newspapers of the day looked at and wrote about them. The consequence has been that Parliamentary wrangles, the fall of one ministry, the taking of office by another, and other trifles of this kind have been thrust into the foreground of the picture which ought to be occupied by the story of "The Expansion of England." This expansion, Professor Seeley complains, has barely been regarded as belonging to the history of England properly so called. "Colonial affairs and Indian affairs are usually pushed a little on one side by historians. They are relegated to supplementary chapters. It seems to be assumed that affairs which are remote from England cannot deserve a leading place in a history of England, as if the England of which histories are written were the island so called, and not the political union, named after the island, which is quite capable of expanding so as to cover half the globe." The consequence is that the one fact of transcendant importance—namely, the expansion of England—which all through the eighteenth century was steadily growing to completion, being omitted from the main record of events as without any special significance, what remains to be told is merely details, chronologically arranged, but having no other principle of cohesion.

This expansion took the shape of a struggle between England and France for the mastery in the New World and in India. "The New World, in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, does not lie outside Europe, but exists inside it as a principle of unlimited political change. Instead of being an isolated region in which history is not yet interested, it is a present influence of the utmost importance, to which the historian must be continually alive; an influence which, for a long time, rivalled the Reformation, and from the beginning of the eighteenth century surpassed the Reformation in its effect upon the politics of the European states." So, also, was it in India. The trade rivalries of French and English mercantile companies steadily grew in magnitude and importance until they became a contest in which the two nations became involved as principals, and "probably the great Mahratta war of 1803 seemed to Lord Wellesley to be a part of the war with France; and probably Arthur Wellesley believed that at Assaye and Argaum he struck at the same enemy as afterwards at Salamanca and Waterloo."

The singular indifference to the expansion of England, on the part both of historians and the nation at large, Mr. Seeley attributes to a misunderstanding of the cause which led to the revolt and independence of the United States. This cause is supposed to be involved, so to speak, in the very nature of a distant dependency, and certain, therefore, to operate at some time or other. Sooner or later, this or that English colony will pass from the age of infancy to that of manhood, and as soon as it feels itself capable of standing alone, it will declare itself independent of the parent state. Colonies are not, therefore, an integral part of the British state or the British nation. They are only attached to it for so long as such attachment is convenient and profitable to themselves. Against this conception of the colonial relation Professor Seeley protests with much emphasis. He brands those who hold it as "pessimists." He considers that it is based upon a mistaken analogy, and that the experience of the modern world demonstrates that a vast empire is under no inherent necessity to fall to pieces simply because it is immensely large. It was the old "colonial system" which drove the American colonies into revolt, and, that system having now disappeared, there is no reason to suppose that the colonies which England possesses at present will be driven to act upon that precedent. On the other hand, the existence of the United States and the Russian Empire demonstrates that the problem which the "pessimists" say can be solved only in one way has practically been solved in the opposite way. Here we have two instances of indefinite territorial expansion without loss of unity and cohesion.

"It is curious," writes Professor Seeley, "that the pessimists among ourselves should generally have been admirers of the United States, and yet there we have the most striking example of confident and successful expansion. Those colonists which, when they parted from us, did but fringe the Atlantic sea-board, and had but lately begun to push their settlements into the valley of the Onio, how steadily, how boundlessly, and with what steadfast self-reliance have they advanced since! They have covered with their States or Territories, first the mighty Mississippi Valley, next the Rocky Mountains, and lastly the Pacific Coast. They have made no difficulty of absorbing all this territory; it has not shaken their political system. And yet they have never said, as among us even those who are not pessimists say of the colonies, that if they wish to secede, of course they can do so. On the contrary, they have firmly denied this right, and to maintain the unity of their vast state have sacrificed blood and treasure in unexampled profusion. They firmly refused to allow their Union to be broken up, or to listen to the argument that a state is none the better for being very large."

The Russian Empire also is held up for the confusion and refutation of the "pessimist."

"As soon as it is proved by the examples of the United States and Russia that political union over vast areas has begun to be possible, so soon Greater Britain starts up not only a reality, but a robust reality. It will belong to the stronger class of political unions. If it will not be stronger than the United States, we may say with confidence that it will be far stronger than the great conglomeration of Slavs, Germans, Turcomans, and Armenians, of Greek Christians, Catholics, Protestants, Mussulmans, and Buddhists, which we call Russia."

Professor Seeley, conscious that the pessimistic manner of regarding distant colonies is due largely to a bad habit, conjures his countrymen to abandon this bad habit for a most excellent way. Emigration on any large scale to the colonies is frequently deprecated on the ground that England would thereby be "deprived" of the best and hardiest part of its population, whereas their colonies ought to be regarded by all good and patriotic Englishmen as "simple extensions of the English state and nation over new territory." There is no fear, so long as they are not exploited for the selfish advantage of the parent state, that the colonies will, of their own motion, cut themselves adrift.

"The emigrant who goes out merely to make his fortune may possibly in time forget his native land; but he is not likely to do so. Absence endears it to him, distance idealizes it; he desires to return to it when his money is made; he would gladly be buried in it. There is scarcely more than one thing that can break this spell, and that is religion. Religion, indeed, may turn emigration into exodus. Those who leave Troy carrying their gods with them can resist, no doubt, the yearning that draws them back; they can build with confidence their Lavinium or their Alba, or even their Rome, in the new territory unhallowed before. For I always hold that religion is the great state-building principle. These colonists could create a new state because they were already a church, since the church (so at least I hold) is the soul of the state. Where there is a church a state grows up in time; but if you find a state which is not also in some sense a church, you find a state which is not long for this world. . . . But what is to be found similar to this in our present colonies? They have not sprung out of any religious exodus. Their founders carried no gods with them. On the contrary, they go out into the wilderness of mere materialism, into territories where as yet there is nothing consecrated, nothing ideal. Where can their gods be but at home? If they, in such circumstances, can find within them the courage to stand out as state-builders, if they can have the heart to sever themselves from English history, from all traditions and memories of the island where their fathers lived for a thousand years, it will indeed be necessary to think that England is a name which possesses sadly little attractive power."

This is written in truly choice and felicitous English; it is a pleasure to read, and it lingers in the memory like a strain of delightful music. But it betrays a curious confusion of thought. It identifies the capacity to found an independent state with the desire to attempt it. The American colonies did not revolt because they had gone out from the parent state carrying their gods with them, but because the English Parliament insisted upon taxing them without their consent. And, similarly, if the British colonies of to-day find that their connection with England is either financially burdensome or politically dangerous, they will certainly not be hindered from asserting their independence by the reflection that a state without a church is not long for this world. The very fact that they have gone out into "the wilderness of mere materialism" for the purpose of becoming rich, will aid to make aught which interferes with that purpose altogether intolerable. Apart, however, from this consideration, it strikes us as strange that Professor Seeley should cite either Russia or ourselves as examples of states which have solved the problem of holding together such an empire as that of Great Britain. The Russian Empire, indeed, at the present stage of its existence, cannot be said to have solved any problem of government except, perhaps, the problem of how not to do a thing, and the United States have not been called upon to hold a heterogeneous empire together in the face of that great divider of men, the sea—and how potent an element of division the sea is, is obvious if we compare the relations between England and Ireland with those between England and Scotland.

Professor Seeley attempts to meet this difficulty by saying that modern mechanical inventions have, so to speak, thrown a bridge across the broadest seas, making that close at hand which half a century ago was distant by half the length of the year. But the sea is not a divider in proportion to the number of leagues which separate one country from another, but inasmuch as it, and it alone, creates in the countries thus divided interests and needs which are independent of each other. The United States, notwithstanding their vast extent, are so related to each other geographically that no one of them could be assailed by an enemy without the material interests of all being immediately affected. The circumstances of the British Empire are altogether different. The United Kingdom of

Great Britain and Ireland belongs to a political system towards which the English settlers in Australia, New Zealand, or the Cape stand in no relation. The Indian Empire, again, is exclusively a British interest. Almost the entire foreign policy of Great Britain is regulated by the real or supposed necessities of its Indian Empire. If it should engage in a war with any European Power, it is India that would be the efficient cause of the war. The British colonies would have no voice in either the declaration or the averting of such a war; their own material interests would be in no way concerned in it; but as portions of the British Empire they would, to no inconsiderable extent, be compelled to participate in its dangers and burdens. The mechanical inventions which have bridged the ocean would make such liabilities of a far more menacing character than they bore a century ago. Their commerce would be liable to be swept away by the enemy's cruisers, and their seaports bombarded and pillaged by the enemy's ships of war. It is surely a reasonable conclusion of the pessimist to anticipate that if the choice lie between the endurance of such inconveniences and the setting up in life for themselves, the British colonies will choose the latter alternative.

Professor Seeley shrinks from this prospect because he fears that when she is shorn of her colonies and India, Great Britain will sink to the level of such states as Holland and Spain, whose history is, as it were, wound up, and which have only the memory of a great past to live upon. But to think thus, it seems to us, is to fall into that very mood of pessimism against which he is elsewhere so careful to warn his readers. Spain's history is not wound up because she has lost her American colonies, but because the genius and the energy of her people have been withered under the combined influence of persistent misgovernment and religious superstition. Great Britain nurtures her colonies in to strength, so far as that can be done, by feeding them with emigrants, but she derives no strength in return; and unless her colonies take to maintaining standing armies and iron-clad navies for the purpose of coming to the assistance of the mother country in the hour of her need, it is difficult to see of what service they could ever be to Great Britain. Englishmen hold their own among the nations of the world by reason of their own inherent strength and moral and intellectual capacities, and all these would remain unimpaired if her colonies were simultaneously to repudiate their allegiance to Queen Victoria. To us it certainly appears that Great Britain and her colonies will both benefit greatly when the slender tie which still binds them together is severed. So long as that tie remains, the most populous and flourishing colony will not be able to develop those higher moral qualities which come from the dignity and responsibilities of independence; and Great Britain will herself be burdened with cares, and distracted with fears, which divert her attention from the growing wants of her population at home.

The second course of Professor Seeley's lectures is taken up with an investigation of the causes which led to the growth of British power in India. This investigation is remarkable for the same freshness of view and independence of judgment which are to be found in the earlier course, but also, it appears to us, for a curious unwillingness to contemplate the darker aspects of that marvellous history. The truth is that Professor Seeley, notwithstanding his exhortations to study history in a scientific and dispassionate spirit, is himself partially enthralled by a prejudice in favor of large empires. He does not like to think that the day will ever come when the British Empire will extend over a fewer number of square miles than the United States or the Empire of Russia; and, under the influence of this feeling, he has been unconsciously led to emphasize unduly all that tells in favor of unity, and to throw into the background the facts and forces which tell against it.

Scotland in Pagan Times: The Rhind Lectures in Archæology for 1881. By Joseph Anderson, LL.D. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1883. 8vo, pp. 314, with 265 illustrations.

THIS book, consisting of a series of lectures delivered under the auspices of the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland, is the second instalment in a course of prehistoric research of which 'Scotland in Early Christian Times' was the first. Ostensibly it refers to the epoch or phase of civilization that lies between the close of the Bronze Age and the introduction of Christianity, but in point of fact it only covers the latter portion of that time. Roughly speaking, this whole period, so far as Scotland is concerned, may be defined as beginning some two or three hundred years B. C., and reaching down to the ninth or tenth century of our era, though, like all such efforts, this attempt to assign fixed dates to archæological epochs is, necessarily, vague and elastic. In the present instance, however, it is rendered less uncertain by the fact that our author evidently intended to make his definition broad enough to include not only the time of the Roman occupation, but also that of the Vikings, and thus to bring it down to a period long after the Gospel was first preached on Iona. Of course, during much of this time Christian convert and pagan devotee must have lived together in Scotland as contemporaries if not as neighbors, and hence the difficulty of drawing a hard and fast line between their arts and their industries. To obviate this difficulty, our author classifies the relics that have come down to us, according to the burial customs that are supposed to have characterized the two forms of religion—ascribing all those interments that show signs of cremation, or in which are found articles intended either for use or ornament, to a pagan origin; while those in which there are no such deposits of grave goods, or in which the articles found have an evident connection with the new faith, are assumed to belong to the Christian period.

This is, no doubt, a sweeping generalization, in view of the fact that weapons and other insignia of office are still occasionally buried with military and ecclesiastical dignitaries; but under the circumstances it is, perhaps, as satisfactory a basis for classification as any that could have been devised. At all events, it is decisive as to a class of burials containing articles which belong unmistakably to the pagan times of Scandinavia, or which, differing from these in form and ornamentation, are yet possessed of characteristics, or were found under conditions, that can only be referred to the same time and people. So, also, and for the same reason, it is believed to be conclusive as to certain groups of relics, in stone and metal, which "present in their forms and their decorations features which we have learned to recognize as belonging to the school" termed "Celtic," and which is said to have been "the precursor and parent of the greater school of Celtic art of Christian times." Reduced to plain English, these are but other ways of saying that an article, made and used by a people who had never felt the influence of Christian civilization, must have been of pagan origin; and this of course is a truism and decisive so far as it can be made to apply to any given specimen. But while cheerfully conceding this point, we must be permitted to protest against that style of reasoning which is wont to infer a phase of civilization from the form of an implement, a style of ornamentation, or a fashion in decoration. These are stages in the progress of art, and while they must have coexisted, in time and place, with certain conditions of social and of religious development, there is no necessary connection between them, and hence the presence of the one is not, of itself, decisive as to the existence of the other. Indeed, the facilities of intercourse, even between barbaric tribes, are and always must have been so great, the survivals and revivals in art so frequent, as to make it unsafe to say of any style of ornamentation and, *a fortiori*, of any mere fashion in decoration, that it is characteristic of any particular "province," or that it belongs to any particular period, in time or phase, of civilization. For this reason, then, we must decline to follow our author in all that is said upon this point. That a pattern in ornamentation, as, for instance, the zoömorphic, might have originated in Scandinavia, as he (p. 93) intimates, and been transplanted in pagan times to Scotland, where it continued to flourish until it reached its full development in the Christian period, is, of course, very probable; and it is also possible, as these periods were contemporaneous and the provinces conterminous, that the process may, to some extent, have been reversed: but if the terms Scandinavian, and Pagan and Christian or their equivalents, Early and Late Celtic, when applied to art, mean distinct things, as they do when applied to a people or a religion, then it is difficult to understand how one and the same style of ornamentation can be characteristic of all three, or how it is possible to say to which one of them it properly belongs, since it is found under circumstances that lead to the belief that it was common in all.

In dealing with the architectural remains of this period—the lake-dwellings, hill-forts, and earth-houses—our author is more successful; and especially is this true of his treatment of that large class of ruins known under the local name of "brochs," or burghs. Of this group, the burgh of Moussa is the best-known representative, and with this as a type they may be briefly described as circular stone towers of dry-built masonry, enclosing central areas or courts, and with their chambers, stairs, and galleries contained within the thickness of the walls. Though differing thus widely, in interior arrangement and in the method of construction, from the tall, slender lime-built towers that dot the opposite shores of Ireland, they undoubtedly owe their origin to the same cause; and if they do not represent the same phase of religious culture, they belong, chronologically, to the same period. Upon this point there is no room for doubt. The character of the articles, particularly the Samian ware found amid their ruins, shows conclusively that the people who sought shelter in them lived after the time of the Romans; and this circumstance, taken in connection with the fact that, like the towers of "ecclesiastical construction" on the coast opposite, their range is limited to the regions that were most exposed to the piratical attacks of the Vikings, would seem to be decisive as to the time and purpose for which they were built, even without the confirmatory evidence of the sagas.

In justice to our author it must be said that in order to appreciate this work it should be studied in connection with its predecessor, and should be considered, not so much a series of oral lectures as a special treatise upon the particular period to which it refers. Regarded in this light, the details with which it is, at times, too much crowded to suit our American ideas

of what a lecture ought to be, will be seen to have their uses; and the numerous and well-executed plans and engravings, which add so much to the interest and value of the work, will be found to take their proper place in illustrating the arts and architecture of a period which, however interesting, seems to have been but transitional.

A Book of Sibyls: Mrs. Barbauld, Miss Edgeworth, Mrs. Opie, Miss Austen. By Miss Thackeray. Harper & Bros.

THE four sketches which make up 'The Book of Sibyls' are only the more welcome because already known in the pages of the *Cornhill*. The book is beautifully inscribed to Mrs. Oliphant: "Dear Sibyl of our own, . . . as I write your name, I am grateful to know that to mine and me it is not only that of a Sibyl with deep visions, but of a friend to us all." The essays are not mere collections of facts, nor are they meant as literary criticism, but they give what is infinitely more precious than the one, and, in its way, more rare and more exquisite than the other. They seem to catch and to embody for us that subtle something which we name but do not define when we call it charm.

Miss Thackeray, by some gentle witchery, has made real and living for us the grace and the winsomeness that made these ladies so attractive to their own generation, and their memories so delightful to us. Such work is most happily suited to her style, a style which it were needless to praise, were it not that Mr. Trollope's recent criticism will be remembered here. There is, we admit, a carelessness about her style. But there is negligence and negligence, as there are styles and styles. Many are learned from books. They are not necessarily pedantic or stiff, but they have a completeness, a deliberateness, that remains even when a definite form of expression has become second nature. Others are learned from people, or rather developed from an intercourse with wise, bright men and women, that plainly must have been life-long. To this class belongs Miss Thackeray's, and its faults are exactly the faults of conversation—the lapses, the little reversions, the repetitions. A methodical writer like Mr. Trollope cannot forgive such mistakes, but, for all that, the very carelessness gives such a style a grace all its own.

For the sketch of Miss Edgeworth, Miss Thackeray was allowed to quote from a privately-printed volume which appears not to have been known to any of her biographers. It was written by the last Mrs. Edgeworth, for the use of her children, as a record of "a friendship lasting for over fifty years" between Maria and her father's wife. For the others, the chief materials were already familiar, but the rich store of personal recollection and association which Miss Thackeray has to draw upon give vivid reality to the portraits. With her we climb the old high road to Hampstead and walk with Mrs. Barbauld. We sit at the lunch table where all but one, and he a Frenchman, know Maple Grove and Selina. We hear Lady S—— describing her uncle Edgeworth: "If you had known him, you would not have wondered at anything." Miss Thackeray remembers Mrs. Opie—"the straight-cut figure of a Quaker lady standing in the deep window of an old mansion that overlooked the Luxembourg Gardens, with all their perfume and blooming scent of lilac, and sweet echoes of children, while the quiet figure stood looking down on it all. From —— to a child—such an immeasurable distance." From out the lumber-room of that same house came the old brown volume of 'Popular Tales.'

The little anecdotes and allusions that occur on every page are slight and modest enough, but as the eye catches them one after another they suggest what a painter would call a secondary color in the picture. We find that besides the portraits of the four ladies we have much that could make an autobiography of Thackeray's daughter. It begins in childhood, when she lived "in company with a delightful host of little playmates, bright, busy, clever children: . . . simple Susan, lame Jervas, generous Ben"; and ends at that lunch table where, we may be sure, the party was of people who (to borrow her own felicitous phrase) belong to the *agreeable* classes. There is a beautiful suggestion of personal experience in the constant and tender recognition of the peculiar ties that may bind father and daughter. Is it true that a woman of unusual power is likely to be what is called "the father's child"?

There are some bits of critical judgment that are well worth considering. Of Jane Austen: "In her special gift for organization she seems almost unrivalled." Of Miss Edgeworth: "One very distinctive mark of her mind is the honest candor and genuine critical faculty which is hers"; and "a power of versatility, an interest in subjects for their own sakes, not for the sakes of those who are interested in them, was essentially hers." This last, the gift of looking at things impersonally, is, we fear, but rarely possessed by women in general. "The authoresses of that day [the close of the last century] were rather literary women than creators of literature." . . . "This simple discovery, that of reality, was one of the last to be made by women." We close with one comment on character for the sake of the contrast, which is drawn more acutely and more delicately than we have ever seen before, between the two lives possible to a woman: "Her life [Miss Edgeworth's] was now shaped and moulded in its own groove. The consideration, the variety, the difficulties of unmarried life were hers; its agreeable change, its monotony of feeling and of unselfish happiness, compared with the necessary regularity, the more personal felicity, the less liberal interests of the married."

English Style in Public Discourse: With Special Reference to the Usages of the Pulpit. By Austin Phelps, D.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

DR. PHELPS prefaces this publication of his Andover lectures on rhetoric with the statement that the chief features of the culture of theological students, when they come from the colleges to the seminary, are "a limited knowledge of English literature, a more limited acquaintance with the philosophy of language, a still more partial familiarity with the English pulpit, etc." He remarks further on "the necessity of a great deal of *elementary* instruction" in this branch, and concludes by saying that his object will be gained if his book has any influence among such students, "to expand their English culture, and diminish the inevitable waste of their early years of professional service by helping them to begin it with a scholarly ideal." This introduction (and no one can speak with greater authority on the subject than does this experienced professor) gives an unfavorable impression of the material out of which the ranks of the clergy are recruited; but it was required in excuse of the exceedingly elementary rules of composition, old as the rhetorical art itself, which make up the substance of the teaching, although they are treated of in a vigorous and thoughtful way, very different from the petty pedagogic style of most manuals. Were this all, however, there would be no need of noticing the volume, which will easily find introduction as an educational work for its special purpose. The secular mind is more interested in the advice which this veteran of the pulpit addresses, at considerable length and without caring where he hits, to the novices in his charge. Not to enter on the matter in detail, he insists on the importance of raising the intellectual standard of sermons, partly as an antidote to the excessive emotional tendencies of Christianity, partly in rivalry of infide brains. He discourages all violence, whether in the form of denouncing vengeance or dogmatizing in speculative theology. He seeks to destroy the sentimental hallucinations that gather about "the sacred calling," and warns the young men that they must take their chances and win respect among educated men and influence over the people, as other gentlemen do, by good sense, good taste, and good manners. In short, the tendency of all that is said is toward more learning, seemliness, and tolerance in the profession. The striking thing in this, the sign of the times, is, that these young men are instructed, on the question of tact—the practical question how to meet a modern audience—that they should adopt an attitude very different from that which was the ideal before the new scepticism came in. Here is the voice of one of the elders within the church, counselling less rigidity, less social confidence, a more secular learning, a milder persuasion, and yet without implying the need of any revision of doctrine unless it be that of original sin. Such a change in the mode of presenting truth by the preacher indicates a much greater difference, already acknowledged, in the way in which truth is held by the disciple; it is a rearrangement, and practically a reform, of the creed itself. Men not unfrequently change their minds without knowing it at the time.

As literary work Dr. Phelps's book deserves a word more. The force he displays in thinking leads him occasionally to boldness in rhetorical statement often happy but sometimes amusing. Dr. Johnson, we fancy, would have been more startled by the following than by "Goldy's" original joke: "In his [Dr. Johnson's] conversation he was an antelope: in his books he was a whale." The author elsewhere calls the venerable Doctor's style that "of a crocodile." He betrays, too, seemingly, a prejudice against Carlyle, Emerson, and other writers of markedly original expression. The color of it is seen in the following curiously-elaborated censure of Lowell for the coining of such words as "other-worldliness": "If an orthodox minister should coin them, the author of the 'Biglow Papers' would be the first to satirize them as tokens of the barbarism of the pulpit. He knows, and the world of scholars knows, that his own scholarly reputation will bear such occasional departures from good English, somewhat as a very saintly man can bear to be seen carrying a flask of brandy in the street." With the exception of this modern liberal class of writers, literary men are sensibly estimated in point of style. We cordially commend the book to its own audience.

Curious Epitaphs. Collected from the Graveyards of Great Britain and Ireland, with Biographical, Genealogical, and Historical Notes. By William Andrews, F.R.H.S. London: Hamilton, Adams & Co. 1883.

To the manifold works which he enumerates in his tentative bibliography of epitaphian literature Mr. Andrews has made a substantial addition. Soldiers and sailors, musicians and actors, parish clerks and sextons, sportsmen, traders, printers, topers, punsters, and what not, all figure in his pages as the subjects of eccentric epitaphs, not a few of which were written by themselves. And odd indeed are many of the things which his researches, at first or at second hand, among the tombs have dragged to light. The

philologist will learn from him, though, possibly, not to his complete conviction, that there stands inscribed on the gravestone of a hawker of fish, at Preston: "Beneath this stone are deposited the remains of Richard Turner, author of the word Teetotal, as applied to abstinence from all intoxicating liquors, who departed this life on the 27th day of October, 1846, aged 56 years." Fragrant to vegetarians (however suggestive to carnivorous, ornithophagous, and other species of human kind, of the odor of frequent cabbage and onions) must be the memory of the sturdy and much enduring martyr regarding whom is to be read, in the churchyard of Uley: "Underneath lies the remains of Roger Rutter, *alias* Rudder, eldest son of John Rutter, of Uley, who was buried August 30, 1771, aged 84 years, having never eaten flesh, fish, or fowl during the course of his long life." "Dump" (as "dumpling" is called in Roger Rutter's native Gloucestersbire) is said to have constituted, in its varieties of "plain dump," "hard dump," with a change to "apple dump" on high days and holidays, the principal food of this man of monotonous diet. In the epitaph on Daniel Lambert, the obese, it is recorded: "He measured 3 feet 1 inch round the leg, 9 feet 4 inches round the body, and weighed 52 stones 11 lbs. (14 lb. to the stone)." The explicitness of the information given in brackets reminds one of the pious widow who, in praying for a competency, was careful to specify that what she intended was "five hundred pounds sterling per annum, in quarterly instalments, to be paid in advance, and without deduction for income-tax." At Sculcoates, Hull, is an epitaph of the last century on Mrs. Jane Delamoth, described as "a poor sinner, but not without holiness," in short-hand. It is supposed to be unique of its kind. In connection with an epitaph in Warwickshire, on a young woman, Mary Ashford, who was murdered in 1817, we are told that her brother, on the acquittal of the assassin, Abraham Thornton, sued out an appeal against him. Thornton, in preference to undergoing a fresh trial, claimed the privilege of wager of battle, and challenged the brother, who, however, being unwilling to fight, was obliged formally to "cry craven." Lord Ellenborough had, with reluctance, previously acknowledged, to general amazement, that Thornton was entitled to the option which he demanded. It was not till two years later that, by an act of Parliament, the ancient legal barbarity of which Thornton had availed himself was expunged from the English statute-book. With the transcription of a graceless epitaph, A. D. 1804, on an attorney at Castleton, in the Peak of Derbyshire, who apparently hoped that wit would be discovered, by the discerning, in his posthumous impudence and irreverence, we close our notice of an entertaining little volume, which may be recommended to all who are interested in tomb-stone literature:

"Quid eram nescitis;
Quid sum nescitis:
Ubi abii nescitis.
Valete."

Addresses, Delivered on Several Occasions by Alexander Hamilton Bullock. With a Memoir by George F. Hoar. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1883.

THE preparation of this volume must have been a labor of love to Senator Hoar. One can easily gather from these speeches what a refined and elevating influence emanated from Gov. Bullock, and the affectionate relation in which he stood to the community in which he lived—qualities in which we believe American gentlemen of the best class are surpassed by those of no other nation. The addresses themselves, while not marked by very spontaneous or commanding eloquence, are polished and cultured in tone and sentiment, reminding the reader very strongly of Edward Everett, whom, indeed, Gov. Bullock seems to have held in very high esteem. Most of the earlier parts of the volume were contemporary with and have reference to the civil war, and it is worth observing how thoroughly even a disciple of Webster and Everett, to whom the Union and peace had seemed inseparable, was stirred to uncompromising resistance. Perhaps only those who are old enough to remember those fearful days can imagine how deeply audiences were moved by such appeals. The eulogy upon Abraham Lincoln, however, seems inadequately to express a full appreciation of a character which could hardly find response in the somewhat aristocratic mind of an old-fashioned Whig. The school of Edward Everett knew but little of the brotherhood of equality with the poorest and lowliest, which was one of the distinguishing qualities of President Lincoln.

One of the most interesting addresses is that on the "Centennial Situation of Woman," delivered at Mount Holyoke Seminary in 1876, in which the position of the female sex, certainly one of the most important characteristics of this country, is strongly set forth; but that the Governor could upon occasion apply the Harvard maxim of *vera pro gratis*, is shown by his taking that occasion to make a strong argument against female suffrage. The "Centennial of the Massachusetts Constitution" is also of interest, especially in view of the events of the past year. It is pretty evident that that instrument will ere long become the object of something besides unmixed eulogy, and that after a century of wear it will need to be hauled up for repairs. It is a curious circumstance that though Governor Bullock was a member of the State Legislature from 1845 to 1849, was Mayor of Worcester in 1859, Speaker of the House of Representatives from 1862 to 1865, and Governor of the State in 1866, 1867, and 1868, he left no more trace upon public affairs than does the passage of a boat through water. The same is true of all the Massachusetts Governors since Andrew. It has come to be considered a gross impropriety for a candidate to urge his personal claims for office. Now, in the address on "Intellectual Leadership in America," Governor Bullock says that "the spontaneous, instinctive acknowledgment of intellectual authority, the law of faith, of confidence in a superior intelligence, is a part of the laws governing public opinion. We are all of us and always under such a lead. And the globe has not borne another people who paid greater deference to such guides than our own." And Mr. Matthew Arnold is reported to have recently said that in England it is the politicians who are the object of interest which in this country seems to be turned towards the literary men. It is safe to say, however, that in this country also eminence in politics would command the attention of ten persons where that in literature attracts one. The jealousy which suppresses the former is, therefore, on Governor Bullock's showing, a violation of the first principles of human nature.

Encyklopädie der Neueren Geschichte. In Verbindung mit namhaften deutschen und ausserdeutschen Historikern herausgegeben von Wilhelm Herbst. Parts 1-16. Gotha. 1880-1883.

THIS work was originally calculated to embrace two large volumes, in twenty *Lieferungen*. Of the latter, however, sixteen have appeared, and they reach only as far as "Heinrich." We may hence presume that the whole will be finished in three volumes. The scope is narrowed down to political history—literature, inventions, statistics, etc., being almost entirely excluded. The history of the leading European nations is most amply treated, and that of the Asiatic and African countries only in its relations to western politics. Biographical articles predominate; in fact, most of the history is told in biographies, the length of which ranges from half-a-dozen lines to about a dozen pages. Completeness is aimed at as to topics, but not exhaustiveness under the single titles. In some instances the collective articles are exceedingly brief, and the needed information is designedly left to be gathered almost entirely from a large number of notices treating of the separate parts of the subject. Thus, while the history of France in the last four centuries—its "modern history," in the sense of this encyclopædia—is presented in a condensed sketch comprising every reign and revolution, the history of Germany must be compounded by the reader primarily out of the contents of the articles on Baden, Bavaria, Brunswick, etc., which are very full. In other instances, the history of what is now a component part of a great state, though it was an independent whole even in modern times, is omitted under its own head. Thus the history of Brandenburg is to be told hereafter under "Preussen." The reader is expected to comprehend the reasons of omission, a considerable amount of knowledge on his part being presupposed in general. A very lucid and elaborate introduction, however—the only contribution of the original editor, who died in December, 1882—is to serve as a clew to the whole course of events, universal and national, as here compassed. A list of twenty-seven contributors (mostly professors of history) to whom special parts have been assigned is a guarantee of careful execution in nearly every branch. The style is almost uniformly good, and no room is wasted.

As an addition to a large universal history, like Schlosser's, or to a good cyclopædia, like Meyer's or Brockhaus's, this publication is highly valuable. Vastly superior in correctness of execution, and partly also in fulness of contents, to the corresponding portions of history in almost all collective works, it also comprises a mass of biographical details such as no connected history can find room for. But, well planned as it is as a complement to works more comprehensive in their scope, even as such it is here and there very defective. Its selection of topics is good as a rule, but unjustifiable omissions are frequent. Thus, the notices of both Abd-el-Kader and Algeria are too brief, Afghanistan appears separately only in a notice of the Afghan treaty of 1869, under "Cypern" there is no mention of the British occupation of the island, and Bulgaria is entirely forgotten. English biography is amply represented in numerous and often lengthy articles, like those on Bacon, Beaconsfield, Bolingbroke, Brougham, the Buckinghams, Cromwell, Elisabeth, or Gladstone; French and Spanish historical characters are equally well remembered, and Professor Schwicker, of Buda-Pestb, does more than his share of the work in extensive and interesting notices of such Magyars as the Báthorys, Batthyányis, Bercsényi, Bethlen, Bocskay, Deák, or Eötvös; but Professor Liske, of Lemberg, leaves out such eminently historical Polish names as Czarnecki, Dwernicki, and even Chlopicki; and North American biography has been unfortunately surrendered to an historian—Professor Hertzberg, of Halle—who does excellent work on Greece and the Ottoman Empire, but has very scanty knowledge of things and men on this continent.

The history of both North and South America is very carelessly treated in this work. The article "Chile" is meagre; and while there is a

notice of Costa Rica, there is none of Bolivia or Ecuador. Colombia and the Argentine Republic are equally forgotten in the first volume, but they may possibly turn up as "Kolumbien" and "La Plata." The notices of European battles are so numerous that even the insignificant engagements of Caldineo, Courbevoie, and Chrobrz are recorded under their own heads, but no separate room has been devoted to Antietam or Chancellorsville—not to speak of Chickamauga or Fredericksburg. The last-named battle is mentioned as that of "Friedrichsburg" under "Burnside," and turned into a two days' fight; the date of Chickamauga, under "Garfield," is changed from Sept. 19–20 into "Sept. 29–30." Under the latter title the battle of Pittsburgh Landing, or Shiloh, is extended into a three days' engagement "at Pittsburgh"; Garfield himself is sketched as panegyrical obituaries described him. Less room is devoted to both Adamses than to Van Buren alone (under "Buren"); and while Aaron Burr, John Brown, and Beauregard are forgotten, a separate title introduces Belknap—in colors little flattering to himself or to his chief, General Grant, who is also severely criticised under his own name. Similar inconsistencies and inaccuracies are incomparably rarer in contributions referring to European subjects, and most of the incorrect dates or names which we have discovered in glancing over the pages of the book may be attributed to slips of the compositor and proof-reader. The greatest editorial slip is the giving of two articles, different in length and composition, on the bloodless war of the Bavarian succession, one entitled "Bayerischer Erbfolgekrieg," and the other "Erbfolgekrieg, Bayerischer." A much more serious war of succession, the Polish, is omitted. The great general merits and usefulness of the work, however, make us easily overlook the defects we have pointed out.

Ancient Egypt in the Light of Modern Discoveries. By Prof. H. S. Osborn, LL.D. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1883. 16mo, pp. viii.–232.

THE recent discoveries in Egypt, which have materially changed the conception of its history held even ten years ago, are scattered over so many volumes that it would be almost impossible for any one but the specialist to keep himself informed of the progress of things in this department; it is therefore a praiseworthy attempt that Mr. Osborn has made to present the new material in small compass and in popular form, and in some respects he has succeeded very well. He gives clear and generally correct accounts of the probable origin of the Egyptian people, of the historical chronology, of the history, the monuments, and the social life. He has almost nothing to say of the religion, and this we must think a fault; but in the descriptive material that he introduces he is commonly clear and sensible —thus, he rejects Piazzi Smith's nonsense about the pyramids, and regards them simply as tombs of the sovereigns. It is to be regretted that he has not confined himself to describing what he has seen; unfortunately, he wanders here and there into the field of historical criticism, where he is not at home. He thinks (p. 224) that the genuine Egyptian coloring of parts of Genesis and Exodus sets aside modern results as to the date of the Pentateuch; following Professor Campbell, of Montreal, he is inclined to hold (p. 201) that the book of Chronicles is "in advance of any other [in the world] except Genesis, so far as historic accuracy and history are concerned," and (p. 200) that "the list of names in the first eight chapters of 1st Chronicles contains a key to universal history." He seems to suggest (p. 217), though his language is here not clear, that the Egyptians and the Iranians were once one people; he thinks it probable (p. 218) that "even before the First Dynasty" divine communications were made to the Egyptian kings, and that this was the origin of what he regards as the primitive Egyptian monotheism; he finds no difficulty in reconciling the Biblical date of the Flood with Egyptian history (p. 103); he narrates as history (p. 186) the story told by Herodotus of the vengeance taken by Queen Nitocris on the murderers of her brother; and he cannot refrain from dealing the doctrine of evolution a heavy blow—"one suggestion," he says (p. 221), "we might drop in passing—to the sorrow of the evolutionist: It is found in the perfectly unchanged appearance [on the monuments] in all the species, both of plants and of animals." These critical crudities mar the usefulness of the book, and we hope that, if a second edition is called for, they will be omitted. Occasional careless and inaccurate historical statements occur: the Ethiopians are called (p. 62) a "mixed race," for which the author quotes Renouf and refers to Lenormant, but there is no ground for such a statement; the date of the Jew Philo, who went on an embassy to the Emperor Caligula, is given (p. 30) as B. C. 20. Mr Osborn puts too much trust in Lenormant, whose unproved and highly improbable assertion that "the Hamitic race of Cush founded a powerful empire at Babylon, and this is a fact of great importance in tracing the migrations of the races," he quotes (p. 56) as if it were an assured fact. A minor blemish is the use of the word "transpire" (p. 43) in the sense of "occur"; and what shall we say to such a sentence as this (p. 103): "So that the agreement between the Biblical date of 1656 and the Egyptian Dynastic date, even if we take them all in such years as we now use, would fully agree, upon the sole condition of altering the date of Ussher, namely, 4004, and not altering the Biblical date of the flood whatever"?

Theory and Practice of Teaching. By the Rev. Edward Thring, Head Master of Uppingham School. The Cambridge University Press. 1883.

A FEW personal words in regard to Mr. Thring may be justified in drawing the attention of educational men in America to the last book which he has written. We have heard a distinguished Oxford professor, well known in America as in England, and who was Dr. Arnold's trusted assistant in Rugby's palmy days, say that Thring had more of Arnold's spirit in him than any schoolmaster left in England. At the Head Masters' Conference, held at Dulwich College, in 1876, Dr. Carver, the President, referred to Mr. Thring as the real founder of the Conference, and as one who could claim the unique honor of having forced an ordinary county grammar school, within his own lifetime, into the front rank of England's great public schools. We mention these facts, which happen to be within our knowledge, merely to show that our author is a man of purpose and personal power, whose thoughts on professional questions ought to be worth reading.

In his book we have something very different from the ordinary work on education. It is full of life. It comes fresh from the busy workshop of a teacher at once practical and enthusiastic, who has evidently taken up his pen, not for the sake of writing a book, but under the compulsion of almost passionate earnestness, to give expression to his views on questions connected with the teacher's life and work. Though written largely from an English point of view and as the result of English experience, it deals with fundamental principles, and discusses questions as interesting to American as to English teachers. The style is at times belligerent. Fighting the battle of what he believes to be educational freedom and truth, Mr. Thring hits hard blows. The reader will sometimes be compelled to qualify an exaggeration of statement, but we doubt if any true teacher will often have reason to question the solid basis of truth on which the arguments are built. He asks pregnant questions: "What, again, is the true price of a teacher in the market, and why? If the true price is not given, the further question arises whether a system which requires martyrs to work it truly, does not in the second generation get worked by cheats." Many of our readers will admit that questions such as these require an answer in America as well as in England.

In part the book is a protest—a protest against the subjection of the skilled educational workman to the unskilled theorist; of the living teacher to the dead and deadening influence of excessive state control. It can easily be imagined that a teacher who frames as his highest definition of education the "transmission of life from the living, through the living, to the living," has little faith in machine systems of education. He is inclined to jeer at the rule-of-thumb applied to this living power dealing with life. He believes that intellectual death is the only possible result that can come from making the teacher a mere machine, with his work and its worth tested and ticketed by another examining machine, which compels all that come under its control to pass through one and the same intellectual hole which it has drilled as a gauge of merit. He protests against the jealous suspicion which dogs the teacher's steps in our modern systems. "It is a strange spectacle," he says, "everywhere seen, though no one sees it—the spectacle of the nation putting their best hope, their children, under the charge of men whom they do not trust to do their work, and so put them under the charge of others." He asks that "freedom should be given, and a belief in skill, and a trust that skill will in the long run know how to work best."

Doubtless modern education has its real Scylla and Charybdis in the two aspects of the examination question. On the one side is that excess of system and supervision which kills true life and original power, and on the other is that lack of system and supervision which leaves room for the grossest quackery, imposture, and waste of means. Against the former of these dangers, as perhaps the more threatening evil of the present day, Mr. Thring raises an earnest voice of warning:

"If education and training are the true aim of mankind, and power in a man's self the prize of life, then no superstition ever ate into a healthy national organism more fatal than the cult of the examiner. Better in its degree the negro bowing down before the ghastliest fetish, than the civilized mumbo-jumboism which thinks it can award over a whole kingdom the palm of mind. Examinations in that case are but another name for death to originality and all improvement that is original."

It is easier to admit the truth of this than to fix the exact point to which the examiner may go without becoming a bane. Our author suggests a pass examination, sufficient to discover culpable idleness or dishonest neglect. This he considers honest for the teacher and not destructive of life. The fatal point is reached when "all the varieties of living growth must be reduced to a lifeless uniformity to make them capable of being appraised by an examiner."

All that we have referred to, however, is secondary to the main purpose of the book, which is to lay down for practical teachers the principles that should guide them in training (not stuffing) the young mind. For suggestiveness and clear incisive statement of the funda-

mental problems which arise in dealing with the minds of children, we know of no more useful book for any teacher who is willing to throw heart, and conscience, and honesty into his work. A few sentences taken at random may serve to illustrate the spirit in which Mr. Thring discusses the work of the schoolmaster:

"The teacher must be full of human sympathy, inwardly exhaustless in kindness and patience—willing to bear anything but refusal to be taught, and fertile in resources even for that."

"A dull boy's mind is a wise man's problem."

"A teacher's first maxim is: 'If the boys don't learn, it is my fault'; his comforting axiom is, 'The worse the material the greater the skill of the worker.'"

"Time and teaching and love—these three can slowly and surely make the eye see, and the mind inspire the eye, and be inspired in return. The slowest can begin, though the swiftest cannot end. Time, teaching, and love—these three transmute all things when life is at work. There is no incapacity which can prevent observation. And there is no inability to enjoy what observers give. . . . The problem of power in a man's self is capable of no hard solution; there is no stupidity."

"Training means accuracy. Observation and accuracy are twins. The beginning of all true work is accurate observation; the end and crown of all true work is an accuracy which observes everything, and lets nothing escape. . . . Observation and accuracy comprise all that it is possible for a teacher to do."

We hope we have said enough to induce some teachers in America to read Mr. Thring's book. They will find it a mine in which they will never dig without some substantial return, either in high inspiration or sound practical advice. Many of the hints and illustrations given are of the greatest value for the ordinary routine work of the class-room. Still more helpful will the book be found in the weapons which it furnishes to the schoolmaster wherewith to guard against his greatest danger, slavery to routine.

Trees, and How to Paint Them in Water-Colors. By W. H. J. Boot. With eighteen colored plates and numerous wood-engravings. London and New York: Cassell & Co. 1883.

Of popular treatises on the art of painting we have rarely before seen one so good as this. While bearing at first glance a somewhat repellent appearance of kinship with the many existing superficial works on the subject, the book soon demonstrates the fact that it belongs in quite another category, and that it possesses the rare merit of stimulating observation of Nature, while it explains, about as well as words can explain, the methods by which the difficulties arising out of her complexities may be measurably conquered. Trees are among the most perplexing objects which embarrass the beginner in sketching from nature. But this author shows that it is possible, in painting them, to proceed in so orderly a way from general proportions and tones to the more particular characteristics of form and color, that these perplexities are reduced to a minimum. Yet no illusive prospect of a royal road is held out. On the contrary, the fact that nothing but close attention and prolonged effort will insure progress is well impressed. It is extremely difficult to convey in words any intelligible or serviceable instruction with regard to coloring, yet Mr. Boot has succeeded so well that, with the help of the colored illustrations included in the book, we think that any young person of intelligence and aptitude might learn from it to do very good work. Certainly, if coupled with faithful practice under guidance of the plates of Turner's 'Liber Studiorum,' a course like this could barely fail to yield excellent results. The illustrations in chromo-lithography, though they possess the imperfections that are inseparable from work wrought by mechanical means, bear evidence of having been executed with care, and are, for such things, remarkably good—quite good enough to be very useful.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Golden Floral. Illustrated. Hymns and Poems. In separate covers. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Guernsey, R. History of the Penal Laws relating to Suicide, in Ancient and Modern Times. L. K. Strouse & Co.
Haushofer, M. Der kleine Staatsbürger. Stuttgart: Julius Maier.
Kingston, W. H. G. From Powder Monkey to Admiral: A Story of Naval Adventure. Illustrated. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 13, 1883.

The Week.

THE President, in his message to Congress, begins as usual with foreign relations. The fisheries treaty with England comes to an end in 1885, and he suggests a commission to consider the "general question." As to assisted emigrants, he thinks the precautions taken by the English Government insufficient, and that legislation may be requisite, but does not say what legislation. The Iglesias Government, in Peru, he says he will recognize if it is approved by the new Congress summoned to meet on March 1. He thinks the Canton indemnity fund ought to be returned to China. With regard to the surplus, he is opposed to the rapid extinction of the national debt or excessive taxation, but thinks that the results of last year's legislation are not yet sufficiently apparent to justify any radical or sweeping modifications of existing law; and until these effects do show themselves, suggests that some of the surplus might be spent upon the navy and coast defences. He is in favor also of "substantial reductions" in the customs revenues, but not yet. He discusses the future of the banking system, and agrees with the Secretary of the Treasury in urging that the tax on circulation should be repealed, and the banks allowed to issue notes to an amount equal to 90 per cent. of the market value, instead of the face value of the bonds deposited as security for circulation. In order to get the trade dollar out of the currency, he would have it received at the Treasury and the mints as bullion, at a small percentage above the current market price of silver of like fineness.

There is no reason, the President believes, to expect any trouble from the Indians, but he calls the attention of Congress to the importance of perfecting the defence of the sea-coast with torpedoes, and urges the reconstruction of the navy. Government control of the telegraph he opposes, on the ground of the increase of the civil-service list it would require. He thinks that Government ought to be authorized by law to exercise "some sort of supervision over inter-State telegraph communication," but does not say what sort. He again submits to the consideration of Congress "whether some Federal aid should not be extended to public primary education." The Anti-Polygamy Act he pronounces a failure, and thinks that the Territory should be handed over to a commission, "with such power and duties as shall be delegated to it by law." He finds the working of the Civil-Service Act beneficial, and advises the passage of the act already adopted by the Senate on the Presidential disability question, and that the Executive should be given the right to veto separate items of the appropriation bills.

This last suggestion of the President has been acted upon by Senator Lapham, who has prepared a joint resolution to amend the Constitution for the purpose. This has brought out the curious fact, according to a Washington despatch, that there is a disinclination on the part of many Senators and Congressmen to amend the Constitution at all. Probably, however, their belief that it is a perfect and unimprovable instrument applies chiefly to those portions of it which give them power. Their right to force the Executive to take an appropriation as a whole, or not at all, is a piece of arbitrary privilege which would probably never have been put in the Constitution at all if the framers of it could have foreseen the way in which Congress would do its work. They looked forward to appropriations being discussed by it as matters of business, and never dreamed that Congress would reach the point of appropriating millions of money against the wishes of the country at large, and the wishes and advice of the Executive which was to spend it.

The Treasury report this year is more than usually turgid, and is in some parts hesitating and apologetic to a painful degree. The long argument which the Secretary spins out to sustain the view that the national banks are useful to the community, and that their circulation ought to be kept going, and that the tax on circulation ought to be repealed "in whole or in part," so that contraction of the currency may be prevented, reads like the production of one who is fearful lest the Greenback-Labor party should presently overrun the country and turn all the good men out of office. In this regard the report is far less satisfactory than the President's message and the report of the Comptroller of the Currency, both of whom recommend the repeal of the tax, in plain English, for good and sufficient reasons, and without apology. The line of reasoning with which the Secretary opposes the Barker-Blaine projects for distributing the surplus revenue among the States is extremely verbose, and reads like a plea in chancery. As regards the reduction of taxation, the report argues both for and against it—for it where the bank question is treated, and against it where the tariff is treated. The conclusion reached, if we may call it a conclusion, is that although the repeal of taxes last year has not lessened the revenue so much as was expected and intended, by $30,000,000, yet sufficient time has not elapsed since the repeal went into effect to determine the ultimate results of the reduction, and that, therefore, "it may not be deemed expedient so soon to make again a revision of the tariff to effect a reduction." Nevertheless, the Secretary adheres to the conviction that "ultimately the just and expedient method of relief from taxation, and of limiting the revenues to the needs of an economical government, must be found in a reduction of the duties on imports."

The more important recommendations of the Secretary of the Treasury are that the trade dollar be redeemed in standard silver dollars and recoined, the bullion contained in them being reckoned as part of the two millions per month now required to be coined; that the silver coinage be suspended except as regards the recoinage of the trade dollar until the public demand for silver dollars overtakes the supply; that the banks be allowed to issue circulating notes up to 90 per cent. of their security bonds, and that the tax on circulation be repealed in whole or in part; that the Hawaiian treaty be continued; and that "there ought to be a reduction of taxation." The last recommendation is, however, qualified by a counter-recommendation that there ought not to be any immediate revision of the tariff; and since all of the internal-revenue taxes have been repealed except those on spirits, tobacco, and bank circulation, the subject of dealing with these articles is confided to the wisdom of Congress, with a suggestion that alcohol used in the arts be exempted from tax, and that bank circulation, as previously mentioned, be exempted in whole or in part. The Secretary appears to be inclined to look favorably upon a total repeal of the tobacco tax, but his argument elsewhere in favor of retaining the taxes on luxuries goes far to countervail the hint which he drops in reference to tobacco.

The conversion of Mr. W. D. Kelley on the silver question, so far as to make him introduce a bill for the stoppage of the silver coinage, is a curious and interesting phenomenon. There are other conversions among the furious silver men of seven years ago, such as that of Murat Halstead, almost equally remarkable. That these gentlemen have been converted is, of course, creditable to their candor and common sense. When they were furiously preaching the bi-metallic gospel they refused to be guided by the recorded experience of mankind, or by the deductions therefrom made by leading economists. They insisted on having experience of their own. Now they have had it, and they admit that they were wrong. It would be ungracious to reproach them for all this, but we must call their attention to the enormous inconvenience of having the affairs of a great nation conducted in disregard of the history of the doings of the rest of the human race. Of course the world goes forward in large part by the trial of novelties, but it would not go forward at all, or would only go forward to a general smash-up, if some things, at least, were not treated as settled and beyond dispute. We hope, too, that the experience of the country on this silver question will produce greater sober-mindedness and moderation in future financial discussions. Mr. Kelley himself, honest man as he is, must feel humiliated and ashamed when he remembers that he delivered a lecture in Chicago, in the height of the silver fever, in which he urged us to adopt the silver standard, for one reason, because Abraham had paid silver shekels for the cave of Machpelah.

It is evident that the first week's discussion of the issue raised by Mr. Carlisle's election has encouraged the Democrats to adhere to their new position on the tariff. They have

found out, evidently to their own surprise, that their attitude in favor of a low tariff is much more popular than they expected it would be. They have met the full brunt of the protectionist attack, and have not been perceptibly injured by it. Mr Carlisle's conservative speech on taking the chair spiked the heaviest protection gun, by showing that he was not a free-trader in the sense that he was in favor of abolishing the tariff at a single blow. The protectionists accuse him of changing his ground in that speech, but all that he did was to show that the ground which he and other tariff reformers occupy was not the ground which the high-tariff defenders had attributed to them. Heretofore, when the protectionists have made this charge, the Democrats have virtually admitted it by running away, instead of standing their ground and explaining. Another gain for them has been the futile use of the sectional issue. It was employed with great vigor by the Republicans for a few days, but has been withdrawn for the present, and, although it may reappear next year, it has evidently lost the greater part of its old "power."

It may be regarded as settled that no surplus-distribution scheme will play a prominent part in the campaign of next year. The Barker plan never gained any foothold outside of Pennsylvania, and Mr. Blaine's modified imitation cannot be said to have gained a foothold anywhere outside the columns of the two or three newspapers which are joint owners in every form of a Blaine boom. The whole press of the country, with these few exceptions, condemned the plan with a vigor and unanimity which were evidently comprehended by Mr. Blaine himself, for he has given semi-official notice that the plan has been withdrawn for the present. In removing it from public view he remarked, with a comical assumption of ruffled dignity, that it really was not worth while for the press to attack it so violently, since it belonged to the future and not to the present. He had merely suggested such a disposition of the whiskey tax when the Government reached the point at which it would be able to get along without it.

The fact that less than six months remain before the customary period for holding the Republican National Convention has occasioned very little remark. It required some outward and visible token, like the assembling of the National Committee, to put people in mind of the coming event. The Committee met in Washington yesterday to prepare the usual call, but their coming together was not attended with anything like the excitement which prevailed four years ago. Indeed, there is no excitement at all, and no considerable interest except as to the place where the Convention shall be held, and as to the mode of choosing the district delegates. It will be remembered that there was a bitter controversy in the last Convention over the contested seats from Illinois, growing out of the attempt of the majority in the State Convention to appoint all the delegates from the Congressional districts, in opposition to the wishes and votes of the nine districts which had chosen delegates opposed to the nomination of General Grant. In order to prevent such disputes hereafter, the Convention adopted a resolution instructing the next Committee to adopt methods and rules which should "secure to the several Congressional districts the right to elect their own delegates to the National Convention." The Committee were required to adopt these rules "within the next twelve months," and it is understood that they did so at a meeting held in Washington some three years ago. The method will be formulated in the call soon to be issued.

The place for holding the Convention is a subject of contest among the hotel-keepers of various cities rather than of rival candidates for the nomination. The "claims" of Chicago, Indianapolis, Cincinnati, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Saratoga are under debate particularly with reference to their accommodations for a crowd. It is rather against Chicago that she furnished too much accommodation the last time, by providing a building of such enormous capacity that the spectators overwhelmed the delegates with deafening and long-continued clamor, protracting the sessions unnecessarily, and at times turning the Convention into a contest of sheer lung power between rival factions in the galleries. It is now pretty generally agreed to avoid such demonstrations and to choose a place of meeting where there will be little more room than sufficient for the delegates, alternates, and reporters. National Conventions of the Republican party have been held in Chicago three times (1860, 1868, and 1880), in Philadelphia twice (1856 and 1872), in Baltimore once (1864), in Cincinnati once (1876). There have always been reasons for selecting one place in preference to others —generally personal reasons, as a belief that the local sympathy would advance the interests of one or another candidate—but it does not appear that local sympathy ever exerted much influence except, perhaps, when Mr. Lincoln was nominated in 1860. Chicago was really chosen by the supporters of Mr. Seward, who did not anticipate that Mr. Lincoln would be a formidable competitor, and who judged rightly that, as against any other candidate, the local feeling would be strongly in their favor. Accordingly they pitched the Convention in the only place where the personal popularity of an opponent could do them much harm.

The proposed change in the basis of representation in the Republican National Convention, which Mr. Frye is said to be pushing, and which is supposed to be in the "Blaine interest," contemplates that the basis shall be the number of Republican voters in each State, instead of the total population. Such a change, if proposed in a National Convention of the party, would commend itself to obvious principles of justice. The basis of representation ought never to have been anything else than the number of persons actually represented—that is, Republican voters. Under the existing and uniform practice of the party, however, an overplus of representation is given to States which always elect the Democratic ticket, and to Territories which do not vote at all. While such a practice is incongruous, and would probably not be tolerated by the party if the question were a new one, it has been so sanctioned by usage that no body or collection of persons inferior to a National Convention should venture to make so important a change. The existing mode of representation has in its favor an unbroken line of precedent, which has become actually the common law of the party. If the Committee should undertake to change the basis without the previous instruction of a convention, individual members of the party would not feel bound by the new rule. It would be quite within the range of probabilities that two conventions would assemble at the appointed time—one chosen on the old basis and one on the new. In such a case the former would have the better claim to be called "regular." On the proposed new basis the Territories and the District of Columbia would be ruled out altogether. There never was any good reason why they should be represented in a convention to nominate candidates for whom they cannot vote. Yet it would be quite out of the power of the Committee to exclude them without the previous instruction of the party.

What is the matter with our friend Mr. Hewitt? On Monday he interrupted the call of the States in the House to offer a resolution, which reads like a burlesque, asking the President to secure such delay in the execution of O'Donnell, the murderer, in London, as will enable him (the President) first to find out whether O'Donnell is a citizen of the United States, and then to examine the records of the court in which he was tried to see whether he was legally convicted according to the English law and "the requirements of international law." In other words, the resolution seeks to have the President make himself ridiculous, and expose himself to insult by claiming the right of revising the proceedings of foreign tribunals in a case in which he is not even sure that the defendant is an American citizen. The mention of international law in the matter is probably based on an ignorant delusion that O'Donnell, if an American citizen, was entitled to a jury half of foreigners. The fact is that this old privilege of foreign defendants in English courts was some time ago abolished by statute. The best way of overcoming that difficulty now is to get Congress to pass an act restoring the operation of the rule in Great Britain, so far as Irishmen are concerned.

Butler seems to have really cut out work for himself for the remainder of his days, for he is organizing a boom of his own to enable him to give himself the Presidency. He has got control of the trades-union organizations all over the country; and one of them, in Massachusetts, the Lynn Workingmen's Association, has issued an address calling for a National Convention, to form a National party, which will "unfurl the banner of labor" and nominate a candidate for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency. The candidate for the Presidency will, of course, be Butler, who is said to feel very enthusiastic over his prospects. In a speech in Boston last week he chuckled over the fact that he should have polled so many

votes in the late election, in spite of the prayers of the clergy. The smallness of the majority against him, he maintains, "proves pretty conclusively that the clergy of Boston have very little influence with the Almighty."

The mere suggestion that the photographs of American girls of note should be placed on sale for purposes of notoriety and gain has been utilized in a way that few persons, except the very sharpest advertisers, would have conceived. The father of a Western girl announces in a despatch, which is sent all over the country on the authority of his full name, that any person found selling or offering for sale photographs of his daughter will be prosecuted to the full extent of the law. In order, probably, that there may be no mistake in identity, the full name and address of the daughter are given, coupled with the information that "her beauty has attracted much notice in Europe." This seems to us a decided improvement upon the old plan of advertising beautiful Western girls by announcing them as engaged to marry Mr. Tilden.

Mgr. Capel, discussing "Marriage," on Thursday night at Chickering Hall, adverted to the old question, Which is the best, the English system of marriages, arranged by the parties themselves, or the French one, of marriages arranged by parents? We trust the time is coming when this problem will be recognized to be practically insoluble. Those who take it up from time to time seem to overlook the fact that unless some way can be suggested in which the French custom can be introduced into England and America, or vice-versa, it is a waste of time to discuss the merits of the two systems. The entire relation of parent to child, the whole of female education, and probably the respective religions of the two countries would have to be changed before the marriage customs could be materially altered. Monsignor Capel is trying to do one of these things in converting America to Catholicism; but even he does not feel that he is paving the way for the adoption of the French marriage system here.

They are having a good deal of discussion in the Boston newspapers over Mr. Matthew Arnold's view of Emerson's literary position, but it is not very edifying or instructive, inasmuch as it consists, on one side, in the main, of simple dissent from Mr. Arnold's position, on the part of gentlemen who have hitherto achieved no reputation as critics, and who really have nothing to contribute to the controversy, except an expression of their dislike to hearing Emerson criticised unfavorably by anybody. It would, however, be misrepresentation to say that Emerson has been criticised unfavorably by Mr. Arnold, in so far as his position in the world of thought is concerned; for the sentence in his lecture which we quoted the other day, that Emerson was "the friend and aider of those who would live in the spirit," is surely the highest of all praise for a philosopher. The notion that you answer a criticism, however carefully prepared or well reasoned out, by expressing simple dissent, is one, however, which is widely diffused, and is, we suppose, part of the general revolt against authority which shows itself in all fields of human activity, whether mental or political. It is well illustrated in the remark of the female champion of woman suffrage who, having had the Apostle Paul quoted against her, answered: "Ah, there I differ with Paul."

The prominent features of the general business and financial situation may be summed up in the statements, first, that there is a large volume of traffic, which is conclusively shown by the increased tonnage and earnings of almost every railroad in the United States, as compared with the corresponding monthly and weekly reports at this season last year. Notwithstanding the great extension of more than 5,000 miles of road during the year, the percentage of increase of earnings has kept pace with that of the mileage. But, aside from this favorable showing for the railroads, all other comparisons are unfavorable as compared with last year. The extra traffic and production are being done by merchants and manufacturers for smaller profits than ever before, and, in many important lines of trade and industry, for no profit at all. This is well known to bankers and money lenders, and hence there is little disposition to advance capital for the further expansion of business; and the surplus capital driven from investment in Government bonds by their continued redemption, and which would, under more favorable circumstances, be loaned for that purpose, lies idle in the banks, which are overflowing with it. There is also a large trade balance due to the United States from Europe, which would come here in the form of imports of specie if there was any employment for the money. But rates of interest in the loan market continue abnormally low, and confidence in railway securities seems to be quite as unsettled as ever, owing to the continued distrust of the management of the properties, and the manipulations of the prices of stocks. There has been a constant and moderate movement of capital for investment in the better class of railroad bonds, and the amount of these afloat in the market has been greatly diminished; but, aside from this, capital still holds the distrustful attitude which it has maintained for the last year. One result of this is the continued decline in the prices of railway stocks, notwithstanding the increased earnings of the roads. Most of the dividend-paying stocks are down to near the lowest prices of the last three years, and a few are lower than they have been before in five years.

The question of minority representation is again undergoing a good deal of discussion in England in view of the almost certainly approaching extension of the suffrage by the assimilation of the county and borough franchise. Nothing very new has, however, been elicited except a suggestion which, if adopted in this country, would be a great relief to "kickers" and bolters, especially in the Republican party. On a good many occasions, during the past twenty years, these malcontents have desired to protest in the strongest way against the nominations of their own party, but only two ways of doing so were open to them. One was, to vote the Democratic ticket—a step which their souls abhorred, and which to many of them was intolerable. The other was to stay at home and not vote at all, but this sort of self-effacement was something to which a great many have always found it difficult to reconcile themselves. The English suggestion is that every voter should have the power of casting his vote as a negative vote—that is, of simply voting against a particular candidate, instead of voting for one. This is then to effect the result by giving the victory to that candidate whose proportion of negative votes is smallest.

About three months ago the Egyptian Government thought it desirable to get an authoritative declaration from the doctors of El-Azhar, the great Mohammedan college at Cairo, upon the pretensions and character of the False Prophet. El-Azhar is the great authority on all matters of Mussulman faith and discipline, and its utterances, though they have not the force of those of the Sheikh-ul-Islam, have probably more weight with all true believers. Mussulman doctors are always consulted by simple questions, which, when they emanate from the Sultan or other Mussulman government, are apt to be leading—that is, indicate clearly the answer that is expected. In this case, however, the field seems to have been left clear for the theologians. The opinion acknowledges that it is orthodox to expect another prophet to be sent by God and protected by Mahomet to sustain the true faith and fight the infidels. This prophet, unlike Mahomet, is to come from Medina and fly to Mecca, and he is to be recognized then by the notables and proclaimed as the true prophet. But he is to appear in the interval between the death of one Caliph and the nomination of another, and the new prophet is then to be offered the Caliphate, but is to refuse it. The consequence of all this is that the Mahdi of the Sudan cannot be the true prophet that is to come, because not only is the Caliph not dead, but this Mahdi, far from refusing the supreme power, seeks it. He is, therefore, a false prophet, and the opinion concludes by declaring that he is a liar, and by citing the verse of the Koran which says that "He who lies knowingly and with premeditation will have hell for his permanent abode." The prospects of the False Prophet, therefore, in spite of his military successes, must be considered decidedly gloomy.

The French Ministry on Monday met successfully the attempt of the Opposition to compel them to withdraw from their operations in Tonquin by refusing the appropriations necessary to carry on the war. They were sustained by a vote of 381 to 146, but M. Ferry, in defending himself and his policy, was compelled to make a kind of appeal *ad misericordiam*, which was probably a great help to him, by pointing out the serious injury inflicted upon French foreign policy by the shortlivedness of cabinets. Against some charges made in the debate, such as concealment in editing the Yellow Book, he really had no defence, and one of his supporters, M. Ribot, was compelled to admit that voting the credits would not be an approval of all the acts of the Ministry,

THE MORMON DIFFICULTY.

It cannot be said that either the President's Message or Mr. Edmunds's new bill gives us much assistance in deciding what further steps should be taken for the suppression of polygamy. Mr. Edmunds's new bill, which may be considered as a formal confession of the failure of the first one, makes the lawful husband or wife of a person accused of bigamy or unlawful cohabitation a competent witness in the prosecution, who may be compelled to testify; provides for the compulsory filing of a written certificate of every marriage ceremony in any of the Territories of the United States; abolishes female suffrage, and declares vacant all elected offices. The Message, on the other hand, recommends the assumption by the National Legislature of the entire political control of the Territory, and the committal of its government to a Commission, with such powers and duties as may be delegated to it by law. Such a Commission might, however, be armed with complete military power to-morrow and put in complete possession of the Territory, and yet we should not be much nearer than we are now to extirpation of polygamy. Moreover, the only way to enforce the registration of marriages under Mr. Edmunds's bill would be to punish the people who do take part in the marriage without registering. But how are these to be got at? Who is going to accuse them? Would it be a particle easier to convict a man (or woman) of failure to register than of polygamy itself? The power to compel the lawful husband or wife to testify does undoubtedly seem to be more nearly effective than anything else heretofore thought of. It is neither more nor less than the power to examine any man in the community as to the number of wives he has, and it may be an experiment worth trying. But suppose the Church were to permit any man or woman examined before a Gentile court in polygamy cases to commit perjury, which it will almost certainly do, how should we meet it?

The more one looks at the matter, and, indeed, the more one hears about it from every quarter, the more satisfied one becomes that the evil, if it is to be put down by law, calls for remedies very much more violent than any yet proposed, for the application of which our Government possesses no adequate machinery. The Mormon problem really brings us, for the first time in American history, face to face with the task of governing a wholly hostile dependency — a task for which the Constitution has made no proper preparation, and which, even if the Constitution had made preparation for it, American manners and ideas would render very difficult. Our experience in the South furnished a fair example of the troubles into which we plunge when we attempt anything of the kind, and yet the South was only half hostile. We had the negroes on our side, and had to deal with malcontents whose religious and legal ideas were the same as our own. Nevertheless, the only way we could manage them was to let loose on them a swarm of rascally adventurers to take possession of their treasury and local offices, and then support these adventurers with our army and navy. The scandals to which all this led are still fresh in everybody's mind. The public soon came to the conclusion that the worst government that the natives could set up was better than that which we tried to impose upon them. The explanation of the matter was that we had no trained body of officials, such as European governments have, to take charge of outlying and subject territories whose populations can only be governed by force, and whose manners have to be reformed and customs changed at the point of the bayonet, like India and Algeria. When we undertake anything of the kind we have to take Tom, Dick, or Harry for the work, and generally select him with but slight reference to his special fitness—generally for considerations connected with the party politics. More delicate work of this kind than the rule of Utah as a conquered province for the sole and simple purpose of reforming its domestic relations, no government ever entered on. In fact, no government has ever before undertaken to suppress polygamy by force, in a case where it was sanctioned by the manners and religion of the people. Such a duty necessarily involves arming the officer in charge of it with enormous discretionary powers. He ought, in fact, to have the power of making an inquisition into every Mormon household, of arresting any man or woman whom he suspects of living in bigamous relations, and examining him or her on oath; and not only this, but of utterly disregarding his or her denials and deciding the case on mere appearances. Who are the men among us, civil or military, lawyers or laymen, whom the American people are willing to see trusted with such powers, or would consider fit to execute them, or would long permit to execute them? Would not attempts to execute them result in such gross and oppressive abuses as would soon make the Mormons, polygamists and all, objects of general sympathy?

At the bottom of the Mormon difficulty, as far as the women are concerned, is undoubtedly the immense improvement in their physical and social condition which the Mormon Church has wrought. In thinking of them and discussing them in this part of the world, we usually picture them to ourselves as persons of some refinement and education, who, in their present condition, are suffering from the pangs of remorse and a deep sense of degradation. The truth is they are mostly European peasants of rather a low class, to whom Mormonism has brought considerable social elevation and great increase of comfort. The experiments hitherto made for their deliverance seem to show that nothing will accomplish it except the offer to them of some equivalent. Hitherto we have done nothing to disgust them with their condition beyond threatening to put their husbands, who are their sole support, in jail, and throw the superfluous wives out upon the world. We have yet to see the effect on the women of something in the shape of real missionary effort, which would combine moral teaching with a promise of material security and independence.

STRIPPING FOR THE RACE.

Mr. James Bryce has been recently giving a lecture in Cambridge, on the way in which a man in England may "become a candidate," or, as we should say, may get a nomination. The system, he says, is as follows:

> "In the majority of cases the initiative must come from the candidates, though they desire to make it appear that the office comes to them. The person who desires to become a candidate looks about for a constituency to elect him. Usually he is not wholly at sea. He generally has some friends or connections, so that he stands a better chance in one place than in others. But if he is wholly at sea, he usually goes to the central office of the party in London, and says that he is a candidate, saying also what he holds as his opinions, and what he is ready to put up."

After this it is no wonder that a nomination, once secured, should be followed by a canvass of a strange sort. It consists of what Mr. Bryce picturesquely calls "nursing" the constituency. The candidate "gets his friends to give dinners"; he opens "bazaars," and "buys at them a lot of ugly things that he does not want and leaves outside the door"; he "meets the ladies," subscribes to horse-races, sometimes buys a fine house and gives entertainments. American candidates for Congress, thank Heaven, do not have to go through any such degrading process, and even in the Presidential field, where we always hear so much nowadays of the influence of money, our system is very different. Among the various symptoms of an approaching Presidential contest, such as is now impending, there are none more significant than certain minor features which begin to appear in the daily life and behavior of the candidates.

When Mr. Randall became a prominent candidate for the Speakership, and through that for the Presidency, there suddenly appeared with him a little feature of his life of which no one had ever heard before, but which, when known, proved strangely interesting. It was the ownership and use of a horse and buggy, and this horse and buggy played a striking part in his preliminary canvass for the Speakership. At first sight it might seem as if the appearance of a man's horse and buggy would throw no light on his qualifications for either the Speakership or Presidency; but the fact is far otherwise. In the first place, the horse was no fast trotter, such as indicates in the owner a passion for money, or display, or coarse pleasures. It was a good, quiet, plain family horse, such as any constituent of Mr. Randall's might drive to church or to a fair without attracting attention. In the same way the buggy was a simple American buggy, of plain native design and manufacture—just such a buggy as a man gets when he wants a good serviceable vehicle, which will run smoothly and carry him safely over the road. The harness was just an ordinary leather harness without any nickel mountings or nonsense, made for steady use, not for ornament or parade. In short, the whole turnout, as it moved quietly and simply through the streets, with the owner sitting in it, or as it stood hitched in front of the store or post-office, while he went in for his mail or groceries, was clearly the property of a man who, however great he might become, would never be puffed up with the insolent pride of

wealth, would never cease to recognize in a constituent a fellow-man, or to meet those whose votes he needed readily and frankly. The buggy had not the air of a political trotting-wagon, with room only for one. The vacant seat by Mr. Randall's side looked as if there was always room in it for an alternate or a proxy; if the horse neighed it was a simple American neigh, such as the horse of the humblest man might give without arousing any resentment among the neighbors. Since Mr. Randall's defeat for the Speakership his enemies have unfeelingly taken to deriding the horse and buggy, and to declaring that as the day for the meeting of Congress approached, the horse and buggy were brought more and more into prominence, and became at the same time the worse for wear and tear, as if, the greater the danger of losing the office, the more plain and even shabby was the turnout made, with a view to endearing itself to a wider constituency than ever, until finally we find it described, just before the election of Mr. Carlisle, as a "rickety old concern, drawn by a horse almost as dilapidated"—an animal probably well calculated to give the lie to the slanderers who went about representing its owner to be the tool of the money-kings and monopolists.

All candidates might of course have a horse and buggy, but they do not. Some use one thing, and some another. The simplicity of Mr. Blaine's character and tastes, for instance, and his plain democratic standard of life, and his consequent fitness for the Presidency, are shown just now in a most effective way by the press accounts of his house and habits. For the former he has taken—rented, we believe—not a big mansion, in which to give banquets, but a small, unostentatious frame residence, in the neighborhood of the White House and not far from the British Legation and other costly dwellings, and in marked contrast to them; and through the windows of this little home he may, to judge by what we hear, be seen any morning seated at an unpretentious study table engaged in historical composition, the very picture of a man qualified for the lofty station which his character forbids him to seek. Every one who has read the biographies of future Presidents knows that, no matter what their financial condition may have become, their career began in an unpainted log cabin, a picture of which always helps to illustrate the volume. If Mr. Blaine were to be nominated for the Presidency, there can be very little doubt that he too would appear to have been born in this nursery of statesmen, and it is very likely his recollections of the simple, unpretentious cabin that make the frame house now so congenial to his tastes. It is at any rate a sort of preparation for the cabin and the White House at the same time.

Mr. Holman, another prominent newspaper candidate, appears to be qualified for the race in the same way. In his case it is, we believe, chiefly his dress and manners which denote his perfect simplicity of mind and heart. He wears plain and inexpensive though perfectly neat clothes, thin in summer and thick in winter, and probably, when cold, warms himself with plain hot air from a plain register with no "frills" about it. He uses plain, direct, and simple language, the language of a man who has no private ends to serve. It is pleasant to think that the one trait which an approaching canvass brings out in all our candidates, of whatever party, is simplicity—a sort of rural or early Christian simplicity and directness which recalls the exhortation of St. Paul: "Seeing we also are compassed about with so great a cloud of witnesses, let us lay aside every weight and the sin which doth so easily beset us, and let us run with patience the race that is before us."

THE LOBBY AND ITS CURE.

An attempt to ameliorate the lobby nuisance will, it is said, be made this winter by excluding from the floor of the House of Representatives the little knot of ex-members who, as such, have the right to appear there and lobby. According to the grave and accurate explanation of this practice given by those who desire to break it up, the origin of the right of the ex-member to ply his trade in the House may be traced to those remote times when the office of a member of Congress was considered one of honor and dignity. It was then regarded a proper mark of respect to the office to give ex-members the privilege of the floor. In course of time, however, as the honor and dignity of Congressmen declined, and the business of lobbying became more profitable, this privilege became a valuable pecuniary right, so that now men get themselves elected to Congress in order that, after they have served their time out, they may make a living by button-holing Congressmen about bills, the office of member being actually a stepping-stone to that of lobbyist.

There is certainly nothing to be said against the proposal to lessen this nuisance by withdrawing the privilege of the floor from ex-members altogether. But it could only have a very slight effect in abating the lobby itself. For this purpose, nothing has yet been found very effective anywhere, though almost every sort of treatment has been tried in the State capitals, where the lobby problem is the same in kind, though not in degree, as at Washington. One means resorted to has been the restriction of special or private legislation by constitutional amendment, the effect of which may be seen in this State in the marked reduction of the annual volume of legislation. But the lobby at Albany is still powerful and well organized, and, within the limits imposed upon it by law, does its work very effectively. Some reformers have proposed—and in one or two States we believe the proposal has been acted upon—to make lobbying a crime, punishable by incarceration in the penitentiary; and the statute-books of all the States abound with enactments directed against bribery and corruption, designed to make the way of the lobbyist hard. In Massachusetts some effort has been made to regulate the practice before committees. A suggestion of an approach to the English system, under which the proceedings in relation to private bills are made as nearly like proceedings in court as possible, was to give all interested full notice of the proposed legislation, and an opportunity to be heard, for and against. In England the Parliamentary bar, as it is called, which corresponds to the lobby with us, is a creature of law, or of Parliamentary regulation which has the force of law, and the introduction of the English system has often been recommended here, particularly at Washington, as likely to have an excellent effect. Thus far Congress has manifested no evidence of a desire to make this change, or of any appreciation of its importance.

The fact appears to be, therefore, that there is little reason, judging from our past experience, to expect much from such direct attacks upon the lobby. The visible and material lobby, with its Bardwell Slotes revisiting the "halls of debate" in the interest of profitable jobs, is but the external sign and indication of a widespread disease, which comes in part from the poverty of a large proportion of Congressmen, the uncertainty of the tenure of office, and the difficulty of finding any other occupation after having once taken to politics, and partly from the vast amount of legislation "with money in it," which now makes up the bulk of the annual business of Congress. Whatever diminishes this takes off some of the pressure of the lobby from Congress; whatever improves the tone of the class from which Congressmen come strikes at the root of the evil. This amounts, of course, to saying that the work of making the relation between Congress and the agents of private interests affected by legislation what it ought to be and what it might be, must be a slow and gradual one, and that the idea that it can be accomplished at one stroke, by some single statute, or constitutional amendment, or change of Congressional procedure, is a mistaken one.

As an illustration of the effect of taking away business from Congress, the Court of Claims shows what may be done. All the business now transacted by lawyers and judges in this court, in a respectable, orderly, and pure way, was a short time ago in the hands of the lobby, and was affected by all the worst influences the term suggests. This branch of the work of reform would be made complete by the transfer of all claims against the Government to the courts. Bills for this purpose have been pressed in Congress, especially by the late Mr. Clarkson N. Potter, but nothing has come of them thus far, Congress being reluctant to part with all control over this seductive branch of public activity. Sooner or later, however, the control over claims must be relinquished. No other modern parliamentary body in any civilized country has retained it to the extent ours has. In the same way the simplification of the tariff will shear the lobby of much of its strength, as every article removed from the list will make one piece of lobbying every winter or so unnecessary.

The withdrawal of patronage from members of Congress will, of course, affect the lobby, because it will enable them to give more time and attention to their legislative duties, and must raise in the course of time the general level of the whole political class. Members of Congress evolved by a machine like that which evolved Conkling and Platt in this State, for instance, would in the natural course of things hardly look upon the lobby

with disfavor. Men elected without this kind of evolution would.

THE PRINTERS AND THE PRESS.

We publish elsewhere a well-written letter from a member of Typographical Union No. 6, which is now carrying on operations against this office, stating the case of the printers as against employers in this city. We may begin by disposing at once of all he says touching the low rate of wages received by printers in New York, which he puts forward as the main justification of the strike. He alleges that the average rate of compositors' wages has been $12 a week, which is low, whether we judge it by the cost of living or by the profit of the publishing business, or by the wages paid in other fields of la bor. To this we answer, that this may all be true, and yet does not in any way affect the controversy between the *Evening Post* and the strikers, because the average rate of wages paid in this office, during the past nine months, proves by actual examination of our books to be $19.81. According to the admission of the strikers before they left, their average pay was $19, which we maintain, as an average rate, is high, judged from any point of view, and, at all events, is nearly double what Mr. O'Flaherty complains of as low. It is a rate, too, paid for agreeable work in a comfortable and well-lighted composing room during a day of nine hours, beginning at 8 A. M., and accompanied by a certainty of permanency for all competent men. Four compositors left this office last spring after more than forty years' service; some among the recent strikers had been here over twenty years, and we doubt if any of them will say that they received while in our employment anything but courteous and considerate treatment.

We freely admit, however, that whether this rate of wages paid by us was high or low, whether the work for which it was paid was agreeable or disagreeable, the compositors had a perfect right, either singly or collectively, to ask for more, and, on being refused it, to strike—that is, to refuse to work for us any longer on our terms. If there be an inalienable right, it is the right to refuse an offer for your labor or for any other commodity which you do not think is sufficient, and to seek a better market elsewhere. The complaint we make of the conduct of the strikers is, that they sought before going to coerce us into paying them what they asked, by intimidation—that is to say, by seeking to inflict serious damage on our property in suddenly and without notice leaving their work, with the design of preventing us from keeping our contracts with our advertisers and subscribers by stopping the issue of the paper. This is the sole object and meaning of the practice of suddenly striking a short time before the hour of publication. Committed against a newspaper, it is an offence not far removed, morally, from smashing a clock with a hammer in a watch-maker's store because he will not let you have it for less than $12, when you are only willing to give $10. It has, however, a worse side than this. When a man enters into any contract with a fellow-man on which he bases business or domestic arrangements, and which he has done nothing to abrogate by misconduct on his part, a sudden failure to fulfil it, with the design of injuring him or compelling him to submit to a new demand, is one of the basest acts of which the member of a civilized community can be guilty, even if it may not be made a criminal act by law. In its grosser forms it is called blackmail, but, by whomsoever committed, whether employer or employee, printer or publisher, bricklayer or merchant, it is indefensible and socially degrading. Of this act we were made the victims by men to whom we had done no wrong whatever in mind, body or estate, and from whom we asked nothing except the liberty to regulate the cost of carrying on our own business. We do not know by what sort of arguments such conduct is defended at meetings of the Typographical Union. Whatever they are, Mr. O'Flaherty has not ventured to produce them in his letter.

Of the gross attempts to intimidate the new men who accepted our terms afterward, and to damage our property, after getting admission to the office on false pretences, we shall not say much because Mr. O'Flaherty does not seek to defend them. But when he tries to repudiate the responsibility for them on the part of the managers of the Union, we shall only say that when we arrested one of the disturbers in the act, he at once sent word to the President, who was apparently waiting for him outside. Since then daily efforts continue to be made to seduce people from our employment, not by the ordinary arts of persuasion, but by false representations of every description, including threats. Within three days an attempt has been made by the President and Secretary of the Union in person to induce our foreman to convert the office once more into a Union office; and it was enforced by the assurance that they would either make it so or "bust up the *Evening Post*." All this is interesting to us now simply as an illustration of the manner in which the Union is managed, and of the character of the rule to which so many highly respectable men submit their conduct in the ordinary business of life. The offer made by Mr. O'Flaherty to pay the damage done us out of the Union funds, can hardly be sincere, because he has apparently no authority to speak for it.

We, for our part, are determined to have no relations with it or with anybody belonging to it, for the simple reason that we will not deal in business with anybody who is not a free agent, or who cannot make his own contracts, or keep them when made, or who is likely to be controlled in any business transaction by somebody outside, whom we do not know or cannot trust. Ours is neither a Union office nor a non-Union office, but a man-to-man office. Moreover, we have now been informed more than once that the control of the *Evening Post* is necessary to the Union as an aid in its movement against the morning papers, which it is apparently determined to force into paying 50 cents. This constitutes another reason of the strongest kind for avoiding all relations with the managers of the concern. The business of this office is the regular and punctual publication of an evening paper, and not participation in attempts to raise or lower wages in other offices, or to regulate the affairs of other publishers. We freely concede Mr. O'Flaherty's claim that the printers ought to exert their due influence on the press. Every honest and honorable man, who fulfils his contracts, gives every one his due, and does as he would be done by, ought to have an influence on the press. Every printer who is such a man ought to share with all other such men in making the public opinion by which the press is or ought to be controlled. But in the character of an intimidator, or blackmailer, or coercionist, a compositor is entitled to no more influence than other persons of the same class. The arts by which attempts are being made by the Typographical Union to subjugate the press of this city are not the arts of honest men, but criminal arts, and it is, therefore, the duty of all honest men to resist them.

THE GREEKS AND THEIR STATUES.

To the various serials now in progress Messrs. Calvary & Co., of Berlin, have added the *Berliner Studien*, under the editorship of Ferdinand Ascherson. Its double province is philology and archæology, and the two departments are represented each by one paper in the first half volume. The first article is an elaborate discussion, by Dr. Wilhelm Gemoll, of the sources, authorship, and time of the 'Geoponica.' The last edition of the 'Geoponica' dates from 1781, so that it can hardly be counted among the popular books; and yet of all the technical treatises of the ancients, the agricultural are among the most attractive for moderns. We Americans are not dead to the feeling, and only a few months since an "officer of the United States Treasury Department" published in New York 'Hints from the "Works and Days" of Hesiod, dedicated to the Husbandmen of America. The bits of folk-lore, the curious items of natural history, the side-lights falling on social relations, requite even the non-bucolic mind for the toil of plodding through much wearisome stuff; and this very collection of agricultural tracts, the 'Geoponica,' is the subject of a study by the French scholar, De Raynal, in the *Annuaire de l'Association pour l'encouragement des Études grecques en France* (1874). But Dr. Gemoll has not been tempted by the example of his predecessor into any effort to make his treatise popular, and we can only give the conclusions which he has reached as to the time and the authorship, or rather compilership, of the 'Geoponica,' which he brings home to Cassianus Bassus Scholasticus. This is nothing new; but Cassianus Bassus Scholasticus passed hitherto for a Christian gentleman of Bithynia, and Gemoll has ruthlessly robbed him of even those little bits of color. The 'Geoponica' was put together between 944 and 959 A. D.

The other article in the *Berliner Studien* is much shorter. Dr. Gemoll takes up nearly three hundred pages in his investigation. Dr. Kuhnert tells us in seventy what he has found out about the care the Greeks took of their statues. The information has been gleaned chiefly from inscriptions, and it is somewhat amusing to notice the truly Teutonic shiver with which the author contemplates the steady increase of new material which will, in a short time, make his essay "antiquated."

The erection of statues was intrusted in Greece to what we may call a Board of Public Works. It was an unpaid commission, which had to contract with an artist, and whose aim was to get

the most art for the least money. The statue was inspected on delivery. If it was approved it was erected on the appropriate spot. Milo, the famous athlete, who had that inarticulate sense of humor characteristic of strong men, carried the statue voted to him on his shoulders to the Altis of Olympia. The modern joke would have been to carry the bill that voted it. To the American mind, opportunities for jobs would seem to be suggested by many of the details. The members of this board were, it is true, among the first citizens, were often the highest magistrates of the place; and when a man had a statue voted him he felt himself much more honored if the procurement of the effigy was intrusted to the chief potentate of the city than if it was committed to a private individual. When Greece became poor the practice of voting statues did not stop. Only, as we learn from Dion Chrysostomus and others, they had a very shabby way of changing the inscription of an old statue. In such cases the most exalted commission conceivable was doubtless employed, to the great delight of the gamins of such cities as Rhodes.

After the statue was safely in place, the next thing was to look after the preservation of it; and statues, in a country where there sometimes seemed to be more statues than men, were exposed to many risks. Sometimes the ornaments were stolen, sometimes the statues were carried off bodily. So in Chios a band of thieves conveyed the statue of their patron god, Hermes, and the fact was jocosely recorded on the base. The gods were theoretically supposed to protect their own statues. The statues of private individuals were not so safe; but the only instance, so far as is known, in which an appeal is made to the public "not to touch the figures," is made by a woman. In all other cases, the inscriptions show that the Greeks believed more in round cursing than in plaintive petition. The legal punishment for mutilating or otherwise injuring a statue, especially that of a deity, was very severe. Even the pranks of childhood were not forgiven, and no one who has read Pausanias can forget the story of the children who found a piece of rope as they were playing about the temple of Artemis, and proceeded to strangle the statue of the goddess in fun, for which they were stoned to death in earnest. It is but fair to say that this summary process was not approved by the highest religious authority of Greece.

Men might be reached by curses and punishments, but jackdaws would steal gold, swallows would commit trespass, spiders would spin their webs as actively and as remorselessly as they do in modern times, and mops and brooms were the only remedy for the desecration. Against earthquakes, an ever-present factor in Greek calculations, nothing was to be done, as Dr. Kuhnert wisely observes. The original office of the temple was to shelter the statue, and even when the *cella* was partly open to the air the statue was under cover. Trees, at first connected in some way with the worship of the deity whose effigies stood beneath them, became in time favorite shelters for images profane as well as sacred, and formed admirable contrasts to the gleaming colors of the statues. Wooden figures being especially perishable, and often especially sacred, needed especial protection from the inclemency of the weather. They were painted, and oiled, and gilded, and at least treated every now and then to a wash in lye-water—the soap question being still in dispute. Marble statues had to run their own risks, and could only be cleaned from time to time. Bronze statues were protected by bituminous coating. Chryselephantine figures required especial care, differing according to the locality. The same rule would not apply to Athens and to Elis.

Dr. Kuhnert next tells us who took care of these details of service, and adds an interesting chapter on the honors shown to the statues—honors which survive in substance to the present day. Immortelles are not dead, and the *bambino* is paraded in Italy as Pallas was in Argos.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF CHARLES DE RÉMUSAT.—II.

PARIS, Nov. 22, 1883.

CHARLES DE RÉMUSAT was, in his earliest youth, enamored of politics as well as of literature and of society. His letters to his mother, written in 1815, give an opinion on all the questions of that time; he follows all the debates of the Chambers; he speaks of the Ministers with a sort of familiarity: "I will take the liberty to say to my father that I don't want a law to suspend, for a year, the irremovability of the judges." It is rather singular that the Third Republic, in 1883, has done, in this question of the irremovability of the judges, what the Government of the Bourbons did in 1815. Rémusat sees the humorous side of things; he laughs at M. de Colbert, "who thinks himself a legislator because he has made a proposition to substitute in the *Code Civil* the words *procureur du roi* for those of *procureur impérial*." This young man—this child, as his mother calls him—is extremely precocious, and his mother writes to him as if he knew everything. Mme. de Rémusat had evidently taken Mme. de Sévigné as a model. She writes to her son: "When my malady of the century of Louis XIV. seizes me, I think you remind me of the Marquis de Sévigné. You are, as he was, gay and natural; a little weak, also, are you not? And you love your mother as he loved his. I will not push this comparison too far, as you might think that I am capable of giving myself too fine a place. God forbid, my child, that I should be so disrespectful to my friend!" She always calls Mme. de Sévigné her friend—the friend.

Mme. de Rémusat owed much to Talleyrand. She hoped that the great diplomat might be of use to her son, and she gives Charles directions with a view to pleasing the fastidious statesman.

"Are you still timid with him? You can unbosom yourself; you have tact, and will not go too far. What he likes better than anything is the *naturel*. He has a very fine scent for the smallest trace of affectation in others, and I never succeeded otherwise than by letting myself go, without choosing my words. Generally, in conversing with him, you must take things largely (*en masse*), hear well and quickly, give occasion for speaking, let fall all you want to say, and what you do not want to be discussed approve with a smile and a look—he is extremely sensible to that. Let approbation and affection pierce without making a show of it, for in his place one does not like strong emotions."

All this is said with the greatest delicacy, and is almost untranslatable. "If you understand something of all this *galimatias*," she adds, "you will be clever." Clever he surely was: he was one of those men who are at twenty what they are at fifty; who do not develop, but flower at once, and of whom it cannot be said,

"Et les fruits passeront les promesses des fleurs."

It is most extraordinary to see this young man of nineteen discussing every possible subject—presumptuous, as all young men are, but really capable of forming and of expressing opinions: witty, ardent, and cool at the same time; worldly, yet capable of judging the world; conducting his own life, as it were, from the outside. It must have been a great pleasure to Mme. de Rémusat to have such a charming and intelligent correspondent in her son; at the same time, her letters are sometimes so perfect in form, and touch upon so many points, that it seems to me that they were written in order to be read (at least in some parts) in some of those select circles where young Rémusat was received. The mother, in this way, helped the son even at a great distance: she contrived to make his friendship desirable, as his friendship involved communication with the most agreeable of mothers.

There is, at times, a singular freedom in this correspondence between a mother and a son. There is nothing to object to when the son only says such things as these, in giving an account of a party at Mme. Suard's (Suard was a member of the Academy, and Mme. Suard was well known for the levity of her conduct): "The good lady comes straight to me and says, with all the expansion which you know, 'Sir, you cannot imagine how much pleasure I have in looking at you . . . !' and there she stopped, and so did I. Fortunately she added: 'It is because it seems to me that I see madame your mother.'" But there are other anecdotes concerning the Suards which are most improper—so much so that I cannot cite them here. The tone of the eighteenth century, which was the tone of Mme. de Rémusat, admitted much liberty, but this liberty did not go so far as to allow a mother to encourage a certain sort of levity in her son, and to hear too much of his love affairs. "You tell me to amuse myself," says the son to the mother. "You are afraid that the monotonous spectacle of politics will make me sad. You are mistaken; politics alone are amusing, and if sometimes they have a sorrowful side, the ridiculous side is there to console me." There are some letters in the correspondence which have really given me pain, and which ought never to have been published, as they ought never to have been written. They make real blots in an otherwise charming book. How much we prefer Mme. de Rémusat when she allows her pen to run on ordinary subjects. "You lose yourself in great speculation, my child, while my politics are very *terre à terre*. I always think that the advantages (or the inconveniences, if you like) of civilization will save us, and there is always some resource in a country where everybody goes home to dinner and to bed." "I see in a newspaper that they announce at the circus a melodrama called 'Clarissa and Lovelace.' Good God, what are we coming to! Are they going to put my friend Clarissa on horseback, and will Mme. Franconi represent her part? Do try to act on the police, and to make them oppose such things. If Clarissa is profanated, there is nothing sacred left in the world. I will sell my estate at Lafitte and go to Brazil." The correspondence is full of such small "nothings," as the French say.

On the 13th of March, 1816, Charles de Rémusat was nineteen years old. He found himself old already. "I don't know much for my age; still, I know too much; I have discovered everything. There is no mystery, nothing unknown, for me." He was studying chemistry with the famous Thénard, and law at the law school; but he was especially studying the world. In literary matters, Mme. de Rémusat was his counsellor, and he could hardly have had a better one. She did not much like Voltaire, having been brought up in Rousseau's school of *sensibility*, but she did appreciate Voltaire, and she judged him thus:

"You are not without a disposition to imitate Voltaire. There will be no harm in this if, while you speak as he does, you take care not always to think like him. The *dénigrement* of Voltaire would have dried up his mind, if his mind had not been genius. The habit of satire sours the thought, pardon me the expression . . . . Still, I am not sorry that you have somewhat imbibed Voltaire's modes of expression: his letters are a model, and nobody possesses as much as he the advantage of an unexpected contrast between a light form and a solid ground."

She was passionately fond of Mme. de Sévigné; she liked the Jansenist writers, such as Nicole, the great moralist. Charles's criticisms on current literature were often good. Speaking of 'Mademoiselle de Clermont,' a novel by Mme. de Genlis, he says:

"I have been a little hard on 'Mademoiselle de Clermont.' It is well written and there are some fine and true reflections. But it smells of the world, and by the world I mean the *salons*, and even the *salons* of a certain epoch. The grace of Mme. de Genlis is the grace of a lady in hoops, in a damask room, near a toilet-table covered with powder. It has no *naturel*, no depth; and this is what I demand. The style is pure, but without character, without life. There are a thousand new things in Mme. de Staël, and, notwithstanding her follies, her barbarous style, it is an occupation to read her."

This is a very good appreciation, and generally Charles's remarks on literary matters show much taste and delicacy. His political judgments are inspired by a sort of a vague and generous liberalism, very natural in a young man. He saw the excesses of the Restoration, and felt the ridiculousness of the school which professed to be more royalist than the King; he also perceived the dangers of the Gothic, aristocratic, and ultramontane doctrines, knowing that there was a strong undercurrent of revolutionary and democratic doctrines which would some day make its influence felt. His mother was a pure royalist at heart—as much as she could be anything; she had been in the court of the First Consul and in the court of the Emperor; but even there, among the upstart marshals and their wives' in the midst of the Jacobins converted into senators, she had represented the ancient régime, its good manners, its traditions, its pride and impertinence hidden beneath wit, elegance, and grace. M. de Rémusat, who was a stolid and practical man, was now a Prefect, and officially a representative of the men in power; so Mme. de Rémusat often tried feebly to defend the measures of the men attacked in her son's letters. But her defence was hardly sincere; she was in reality very much in the state of mind of Talleyrand, who was her great admiration, and whom she familiarly always calls "mon curé." Talleyrand was a great aristocrat, who profited by every government as well as he could. His instincts did not blind his judgment; he hated at heart the new order of things, but he did not wish to be kept out of it. Mme. de Rémusat makes me always think of a girl of high birth, who has married a rich commoner and tries to be on good terms with all the members of her new family. She had really no political doctrine, and, though her son was often pedantic, he never became a doctrinaire of the style of Royer-Collard or Guizot. He was too elastic, too indifferent, too much of a sceptic. But we must be just to him: his scepticism had nothing to do with egoism. His good taste did for him what virtue or principle does for others.

Charles de Rémusat saw very clearly, in 1816, what would be the effect of the action of the ultra-royalist party. "When they reach the goal of their desires they will be very much astonished to see their own work. It will be found that the men who wished to destroy constitutional government have worked with those who wish to establish national chambers [which must be distinguished from representative assemblies]." In short, he saw the coalition of the Bonapartists with the extreme royalists in preparation, and this coalition proved fatal to the cause of hereditary monarchy. England was his ideal, and he remained English to the end of his life. I remember well seeing him, during the days of the Second Empire, on an English common, watching with the greatest attention young men who were playing cricket. I asked him if he was studying the rules of this somewhat complicated game. "No," said he, "but I was thinking that even cricket is perhaps necessary to constitutional government." His conversation was delightful, and, if it had a single defect, it was that he was somewhat too fond of arguing. If you had an opinion, he had another. He always saw spots on the sun; he was fond of shades, of limitations; he disliked anything excessive. All these qualities or defects, as you choose to call them, are already developed in his correspondence in 1816. At the very moment that I finish these lines, a second volume of the correspondence is coming out. It will be followed, I am informed, by others. The first volume has met with so much success that the publisher is pressing M. Paul de Rémusat to continue his work as rapidly as possible.

Correspondence.

SERGEANT MASON'S EMPLOYMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your statement in the *Nation* of Nov. 29, 1883, in regard to the employment of Sergeant Mason by a firm of clothing dealers in this city, is so incorrect, and your inference consequently so groundless—no matter what the state of the dry-goods market may be at large—that it calls for correction. The fact is in this case that the firm made the contract with Mason very soon after his attempt upon the life of Guiteau.

I would not venture to call your attention to so small an error if long reading of the *Nation* had not bred in me the same dislike of inaccuracy which the paper so uniformly practises.

Respectfully, Elbert Wing.

Chicago, Dec. 3, 1883.

MR. BLAINE AND THE FATHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the discussion of many financial problems, the statesmen of Mr. Blaine's school and the protectionists in general refer to the testimony of the fathers as a final tribunal. It may not be uninteresting to the readers of the *Nation* to see what the opinion of two of the fathers, at least, was about such plans. Below will be found quotations from Henry Clay, the "Father of the American System," from Daniel Webster, the "Defender of the Constitution," and from Jefferson.

On the 28th of January, 1841, Mr. Clay made a great speech "On the Distribution of the Proceeds of the Public Lands." He favored such distribution, and therefore is not an enemy to distribution in itself. In the course of his argument he says, in reference to the constitutional power of the Government to tax:

"There is, then, I repeat, no power or authority in the general Government to lay and collect taxes in order to distribute the proceeds among the States. Such a financial project, if any administration were mad enough to adopt it, would be a flagrant usurpation." (Clay's Works, vol. vi., p. 233.)

This is rather hard on Mr. Blaine, but these words do not come from a party enemy; they are the words of the "Father of the American System," to support which Mr. Blaine has devised his scheme.

Mr. Webster, in his speech of May 31, 1836, "On the Distribution of the Surplus Revenue," favored that proceeding as a single instance, an exception to a general rule. He says:

"There would be insuperable objections, in my opinion, to a settled practice of distributing revenue among the States. It would be a strange operation of things, and its effects on our system of government might well be feared. I cannot reconcile myself to the spectacle of the States receiving their revenues, their means even of supporting their own government, from the treasury of the United States."

Further, Mr. Webster approved of the continued distribution of the proceeds of the land sales, provided they could be kept separate; "but," he continues, "if we cannot separate the proceeds of the lands from the other revenue, if all must go into the treasury together, and there remain together, then I have no hesitation in declaring now that the income from customs *must be reduced*. It must be reduced, even at the hazard of injury to some branches of manufacturing industry; because this, in my opinion, would be a less evil than that extraordinary and dangerous state of things in which the United States should be found laying and collecting taxes for the purpose of distributing them, when collected, among the States of the Union."

Mr. Webster, it is to be remembered, was at this time an earnest protectionist. His willingness to abandon in some measure the protective duties emphasizes most strongly his disapproval of any plans like Mr. Blaine's; and yet he was not opposed to all distribution. In fact, both Webster and Clay favored the distribution of '37, and the distribution of returns from land sales, and at the same time had nothing but bitter denunciation of any plan that resembled Mr. Blaine's neat device to get rid of the surplus.

The opinion of Jefferson on this point may be gathered from the fact that he deemed a Constitutional Amendment necessary to make the way clear for national appropriations for internal improvements and education. (See Jefferson's sixth message.) In his second inaugural address, in reference to possible surpluses, he says:

"The revenue thereby liberated [*i. e.*, by the payment of the debt] may, by a just repartition among the States and a corresponding amendment of the Constitution, be applied *in time of peace* to rivers, canals, roads, arts, manufactures, education, and other great objects within each State."

The advocates of distribution do not get over the constitutional objection by affirming that nothing is said against it in the Constitution. It is a first principle that "the Constitution is a grant of powers"; and if distribution cannot be placed under the "general welfare" clause, it is indisputably unconstitutional.

E. G. Bourne.

New Haven, Conn., December 5, 1883.

THE PRINTERS AND THE PRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In two recent numbers you have devoted editorials to consideration of the morals and methods of the New York Typographical Union. Your positions are not solacing to the unionists, your illation is not always fair, your views are made though an ex-parte telescope, the lenses of which need justifying; and on these grounds we appeal to your integrity and spirit of fair play—which, while we struggle with you, we do not gainsay—to give us a word for the ticket we uphold.

The foundation of unionism is a desire to win and secure justice to the worker. You admit our soundness fundamentally. Every one has a right to justice. But you say our claim for more pay now is unjust. Is it? How are we to judge? Surely by a regard for the cost of living, a regard for the profits accruing from our labors, and a regard for the wages being paid to workmen in other callings. Before action was taken for a rise of pay this regard was carefully had. We knew the cost of living was high; we concluded that publishers were sharing in the great prosperity God is giving the country; we ascertained that carpenters and bricklayers and others, no harder-working, no more skilful, no more industrious than we, were

earning good wages once again, while we were working on the financial level whereto we were thrust down as a sequence of the "Black Friday" commercial crash; and we made up our minds that we had justice with us in our demands, that we were in unison with the indefeasible basis of unionism, and that, therefore, win or lose, we should have, to console us, conviction of effort toward a good end.

It is not difficult to understand why you could not at once grasp the equity of our demands. You were employers worthy the name; our men who labored with and for you were a picked corps: the relations were pleasant, the earnings were good. But these favorable conditions were exceptional. The fact is this, sir, that the average earnings of our book and weekly paper piece-hands in New York city did not foot up more than $12 a week before the strike! This was most unjust. But we can give you, if you will, vouchers for the accuracy of the statement. Publishers were enjoying all the benefits of protection, and all those advantages of unpaid literary effort which the non-existence of international copyright confers, and, with the ineffable magnanimity which is their traditional distinction, were running around from shop to shop seeing how much they could squeeze us down to, under the flat-iron of competition. We pay for protection. They pop all the profits of it into their pockets, plus as much more as they can unconscionably hook out of ours. I submit, sir, you cannot help allowing that our claims, in face of this, were just.

Touching some of your remarks in last Thursday's number, I think issue may fairly be joined. You say the utterances of the press should not be modified in even a small degree by any trade or industry; that an unseen influence over the press by any organization, however respectable or meritorious or enlightened, would be disastrous, and that the demands of the Typographical Union are growing and will continue to grow with each success the Union achieves.

To these advancements my answer, with all deference, is that the press is and must be controlled by every legitimate trade and industry. The *raison d'être* of the existence of the press is that the public will and sentiment may be responded to. When a newspaper ceases to do what its constituents demand, it ceases to exist. We are a portion of the public; our sentiments are an integrant part of public opinion; public opinion rules the press; the press must *nolens volens* be modified in its views by us. As to an unseen influence acting on the press, that is being felt continuously. What does the public know of press writers or those who instruct them? Nothing. The journalist is a literary sailor oft-times. The captain never hauls a rope or handles a handspike or takes a watch in the wheelhouse. He stands up aloft on the bridge, makes his observations and gives his orders, and the vessel takes her course. The passengers down below know nothing of his doings or motives. The unseen influence in journalism is the captain of the ship; the public are the passengers. But the unseen influence we have exerted is not of this nature. It is an unseen influence, however, which shall ever make itself felt so long as the press is in the hands of men who recognize that one of its noblest functions is to champion the just and uphold the weak. It is because our case was a good one that we won a verdict from the journalistic magistracy, and I am sure when the *Nation* recognizes this it will not dispute the meritoriousness of our unseen influence.

As to your complaints of unfair treatment at the hands of our men, there is not a respectable unionist in No. 6—and for the most part we are very decent fellows—who would not rather have lost your office than have won it at a sacrifice of honor; and I am informed that Mr. J. R. O'Donnell (who, by the way, is a working printer, and a first-class one, as well as a good lawyer) has expressed the readiness of the Union to make good every cent's worth of damage any of our men may have done. Nothing of what you complain was authorized. It was independent, irresponsible tactics. It was indefensible.

As to the limits of our demands, they are a fair share in the products of our labors. If we claim more than a just recompense ever, we shall be repelled, and we shall deserve to be. All we want is our rights.

You are not more sorry than we, sir, that our happy relations have been ruptured, and if you cannot concede our demands, we shall hold it a satisfaction to have you concede us honorable men and actuated by common-sense and love of fair play.

EDWARD O'FLAHERTY,
(Card 1754, N. Y. Typographical Union No. 6.)

Notes.

A NEW edition (1884) of 'The New England Medical Register,' revised by Dr. Francis H. Brown, will shortly be published by Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will issue this week 'A Study of Longfellow,' being outlines for school use, conversation classes and home study, by William C. Gannett; and 'The Works of Virgil, translated into English verse,' with variorum and other notes and comparative readings, by John Augustine Wilstach.

'Airs from Arcady and Elsewhere' is the alluring title of a volume of poems by Mr. H. C. Bunner, which will be published by Charles Scribner's Sons early in the new year. It will contain Mr. Bunner's recent poetical contributions to the *Atlantic* and to the *Century*, and a selection from the humorous verse he has written in *Puck*, of which he is the editor.

'The World's Christmas Hymn,' which is published for the holiday season by A. D. F. Randolph & Co., consists of a mosaic of selections made by the Rev. Wm. Hayes Ward and Miss Susan Hayes Ward. The stanzas thus strung together illustrate the Biblical narrative of the Nativity in chronological order, and are made to end in an aspiration for a second advent, for the termination of wrong and misery. The collocation is ingenious, and from a catholic range, but here and there the highest poetic criterion is relinquished for the sake of a connecting link. The resulting unevenness is never more plainly felt than when Milton intervenes with a blast like his own "bass of Heaven's great organ." The volume is very tastefully printed, and is provided with notes indicating the source of each stanza, and with reproductions of engravings after the appropriate works of the great painters. The composition employed upon the covers has a rather unpleasant resemblance to certain kinds of stone ware.

All good things have an end, and so we must say hail and farewell to the concluding volumes (xi., xii.) of the Parchment Library Shakspere (D. Appleton & Co.). No more taking series, considering only unannotated editions, has appeared of late years. Each volume can, we believe, be procured separately, and the low price exacted for two or three plays in a single volume would cheerfully be paid for one in such a handsome dress.

Ginn, Heath & Co., Boston, have at last brought out in pamphlet form the much-discussed Inaugural Address of Dr. August Wilhelm Hoffmann, delivered at the University of Berlin, three years ago last October. It relates to the question of a division of the Philosophical Faculty, and in the appendix to the second edition (here translated with the rest) gives two formal opinions on the admission to the University of graduates of the Realschulen, reported by the Philosophical Faculty of Berlin in 1860 and 1880. In these especially lies the ground of debate between scientists and classicists.

'Bryce's Pearl English Dictionary' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.) is not to be compared in fulness, or usefulness, or typographical beauty, with Jenkins's 'Vest-Pocket Lexicon,' which it resembles in excluding the more familiar terms. Being of more recent date, however, it naturally contains words not to be found in a dictionary published twenty years ago. Thus we find Bessemer's process, cerebration, ensilage, to interview, Philistine, to prorate, rococo, etc. It has also lias, but not loess; saurian, but not deinosaurian; durbar, but not tiffin; isothermal, but not isobar, etc. We seek in vain for astigmatism, brachycephalous, collodion, dynamo, trichnosis, etc. Darwinism is defined, but not evolution in the Darwinistic sense. The use of small capitals without accents for the catchwords gives us forms like *protege* for *protégé*. *Entente cordial(e)* is unduly shortened by one letter, and the pronunciation of the former word indicated by "augtankt." The definitions are necessarily brief, but a caucus might have been defined as "a meeting to control" policy as well as "elections."

The "Descriptive Catalogue of Literary Curiosities" just issued by J. W. Bouton offers very exceptional temptations to the amateur of books. The large collection of manuscript missals, of manuscript and early printed Horæ; the set of early woodcuts by Dürer and Jost Amman; the letters to and from Dickens, upward of 300 in number; the MsS. of Tom Moore, including his 'Epicurean' and commonplace note-books; the Shakspere folios; the thirty-seven folio volumes or pictorial scrap-books of London, ancient and modern, and its environs; the collection of Ruskin's works, valued at nearly a thousand dollars—such, in brief, is the extraordinary array which Mr. Bouton sets before the book-buying public.

Mr. W. E. Foster, in his *Monthly Reference Lists* for November (F. Leypoldt), points the way to recent views of Martin Luther (*i. e.*, in publications since 1880), and to the sources of information concerning John Quincy Adams's Administration.

The current Bulletin (July-December) of the Essex Institute (Salem, Mass.) possesses an exceptional interest. We will specify Mr. A. C. Orne's paper on "Popular Errors regarding the Duration of Life," which combats the idea that thirty-three years—instead of fifty—make a generation, and attacks the accepted life-tables; Mr. John Robinson's detailed report of the total contents of an undisturbed shell-heap at Ipswich, Mass., opened last year, and found to contain human bones broken for the stew-pot; and the same explorer's narrative of his discovery of a circular band of porphyry chips marking the site and size of the wigwam of an old Indian arrowmaker in Marblehead.

The current numbers both of the *Publishers Weekly* and of the *American Bookseller* have their customary holiday adornment of plates from the many books advertised in them, and each is a picture-book in itself. The latter is quite the most imposing-looking publication of the kind we remember.

The *Annals of Mathematics*, announced for bi-monthly issue from the University of Virginia, beginning with February 1, 1884, is the successor of *The Analyst*, a mathematical magazine edited and published during the past ten years by Dr. J. E. Hendricks, of Des Moines, Iowa. The new journal, like the old, is design-

ed to be a medium of communication and publication for teachers and students of mathematics. The editors purpose to guide and encourage the study of mathematics, pure and applied, in all its branches, and to stimulate independent matbematical investigation.

The 'Bryant Calendar' (D. Appleton & Co.) and 'A Calendar from John Ruskin' (Boston: L. Prang & Co.)—the latter taking the form of a pallette—are the newest of their kind.

In the number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for November 1 is a translation of Mr. George W. Cable's "Jean-ah Poquelin," one of the most vigorous and pathetic of the stories in 'Old Creole Days.' It is translated by Mme. Th. Bentzon, who modifies the title to "Jean Roquelin."

—We have received several additional communications on the subject of senior societies at Yale, but their contents have been anticipated by the numerous writers to whom we have given a hearing. We must now adjourn the debate to the college press itself, if any exists for the purpose of discussing college realities. Meantime, we believe our readers have been enabled to arrive at a tolerably clear appreciation of the nature and extent of the alleged "evil."

—In our review of Dr. Williams's 'The Middle Kingdom' the reference to Tennyson's "cycle of Cathay" seems to have disturbed a correspondent, "A. Z." We ventured to inform the Laureate that a cycle of Cathay is only sixty years. The line from "Locksley Hall," turned into prose, would read:

"Better fifty years of Europe than sixty years of China."

As Dr. Williams's work (vol ii., pp. 69, 146), and almost all books on China, tell us, the cycle of Cathay is a period of sixty years. "The sexagenary circle, the Chinese assert, was contrived nearly three centuries before the time of Yao, (B C. 2637)," etc. The Chinese are now in their seventy-sixth cycle. A reference to Webster, or any ordinary dictionary, will show that the word "cycle" (properly translated from the Chinese) was rightly used in our review. Whatever Mr. Tennyson meant in poetical license, it is certain that the cycle of Cathay (mediæval China) and of the country of the Ta Tsing dynasty is but sixty years, and that Europe's half century is not so much "better" than China's three-score years, after all. It seems evident, judging from the cautious manner in which France is moving in Tonquin affairs, that Frenchmen understand the line in the exact prose sense, and realize the poetical exaggeration lurking under the bombast of the lover in "Locksley Hall."

—Professor Blackie's 'Wisdom of Goethe' (Scribners) will doubtless serve its purpose of introducing the great thinker to an English-reading public. Even our German connoisseurs will not be sorry to see so many familiar utterances in a new garb. The "list of citations" appended to this (American) edition will facilitate the comparison of original with translation. As to the merits of the selection, opinions will naturally differ. No selection from so diversified an author can satisfy everybody. We need only give it as our opinion that Professor Blackie has been methodical and judicious. On the other hand, we protest against his "Estimate of the Character of Goethe," which is prefixed by way of introduction. Formerly, Englishmen (and Scotchmen) considered it their duty to attack Goethe. Now they all defend him, and the defenders are more harmful than the assailants ever were. They belittle the man by treating him as if he were the hero of one of Thackeray's novels, say Arthur Pendennis. They go through the entire *chronique scandaleuse* of his love affairs, and flatter themselves that they have done wonders if they can only extort under each count a verdict of non-proven, or of mitigating circumstances. To begin with, the procedure is interminable, and then it misses the main point. Goethe never defended himself, he only replied to his detractors: I am a man of the eighteenth century. Don't waste your time over my faults, but profit by my experiences. If you of the nineteenth century are wiser and better, be thankful. We can only regret that Professor Blackie should not have perceived this guiding policy of Goethe's and followed it. Where there is such wealth of wisdom to repay study, why spoil one's temper and waste one's time over the Friederikes and Lottes, Lilis and Christines?

—About a year ago (see the *Nation* for Sept. 7, 1882) we noticed a pamphlet by Prof. Paul Frédéricq, of Liége, upon instruction in history in the German universities. The same intelligent observer has this year published 'Notes et Impressions de Voyage, touching "l'enseignement supérieure de l'Histoire à Paris."' The first thing that appears to have struck him is the number of courses in history at Paris—no less than fifty—while the largest number in any German city (Berlin) was twenty-six. Of course, this is to be explained by the fact that the higher education is in a great degree centralized in Paris. Probably, if the two countries were compared, Germany would have the larger number. Indeed, those of Paris are divided among five independent institutions, which are considered in order: the Collége de France, founded by Francis I., an institution with very little life; the École des Chartes, founded in 1821, the seat of a very thorough study of documents, in which it has no rival, even in Germany; the École Normale Supérieure, founded in 1808, and at present under the direction of the distinguished M. Fustel de Coulanges; the École Pratique des Hautes Études, founded by M. Duruy in 1868, and, apparently, the most active and vigorous of all; and, lastly, La Faculté des Lettres. In his concluding remarks, Professor Frédéricq speaks of the lack of system and the waste of power in these numerous disconnected courses, in which sometimes the same professor gives instruction in two institutions. A movement to concentrate these scattered forces is now in progress, with good results; the nature of it is not minutely explained, but it appears to emanate from the Faculté des Lettres. The discussion closes with some observations upon the excessive amount of detail which enters into the examinations, and the too great generality of the subjects—evils which, however, are recognized by the persons in charge, so that there is every likelihood that they will be corrected. This paper, like that upon Germany, is full of interesting personal notes and reminiscences in relation to the several professors, especially valuable in illustrating their methods of teaching.

—In our recent review of Kayserling's 'Moses Mendelssohn' (No. 957 of the *Nation*), we alluded to the antithetical characteristics of the author of 'Phädon' and 'Jerusalem,' "who was at once a bold philosophical thinker, a literary reformer, and a sincere Talmudist Jew." In our explanatory hints we referred to the period in which the friend of Lessing lived and acted, an age "in which liberal thought pierced through all restraint, while the practice, in state and society, was all but mediæval." That our explanation, which we offered as only partial, was very far from fully covering the enigma, appears from the biography now lying before us of another Jewish thinker, who happened to be born exactly a century after Mendelssohn—in 1829. Lazarus Geiger, to whose life and "theory of the origin of language and reason" Ludwig A. Rosenthal has just devoted an extensive memoir (Stuttgart), was fully as bold in his theoretical speculations as the Berlin philosopher—being, in fact, one of the few evolutionists who have a claim both to originality and thoroughness, side by side with Charles Darwin himself—and yet remained to the last (he died in 1870) warmly attached to the observances hallowed by Jewish traditions. He was, as a thinker, devoid of the least inclination toward superstitious sentimentality, but, like Mendelssohn, found it perfectly in accord with his philosophy to foster, in the ethical interest of the mass of his brethren in race, a reverence for practices of a mixed national and religious character, which had grown up in a long process of historical evolution, and, in his opinion, demanded no belief in any dogma whatever. This view was originally Mendelssohn's. The practices were to lead to the abstraction of moral conceptions and maxims, without fettering reason or excluding continued development. It is well known to those familiar with modern Jewish thought, that this has been the guiding idea of many a late "moderate" reformer within the Synagogue. That a man like Lazarus Geiger, whose bent of mind was purely and radically scientific (and who, by the by, was no relative, at least no near relative, of the famous rabbi and Bible critic, Abraham Geiger), should have clung to it in a time of revolutionary upheaval in science, state, and society, is a phenomenon which finds its explanation in great part in the retired, quiet life which he led from his cradle to his death, mostly in the house of his pious parents, in Frankfort, who survived him. His whole career, which strongly reminds one of Thomas Buckle's, may be summed up in these words: He studied, thought, wrote a few eminent works, and died. Herr Rosenthal's biographical narrative is written in a spirit of reverent admiration, but is almost entirely devoid of anecdotal details, though he drew his information, in addition to what he found in Dr. Bärwald's and Peschier's monographs on Geiger, from some intimate friends of the latter. The main part of the book is a condensation of Geiger's evolutionary doctrine.

—Dr. Friedrich Kapp has for some time been engaged, at the request of the German Booksellers' and Publishers' Association, in collecting the material for an exhaustive history of their trade, and takes occasion in a contribution to a recent number of the Berlin weekly, *Die Nation*, to supplement the flood of books and pamphlets on Luther by an interesting discourse on Luther as the originator of German popular literature, and his relation to the printing and publishing trade, from which we extract the following. Gutenberg's art, at the time of Luther's first public appearance, although for two score and ten years actively cultivated, had had little influence upon the people at large. Printers and booksellers had confined themselves to catering to the needs of the learned professions and the monasteries. Latin was their language, which the general public did not read. German printed books there were really none, excepting a few medical quack books, satirical tales, and poems. According to Panzer's 'Annalen' there were, in 1513, 35; in 1514, 47; in 1515, 47; in 1516, 46; in 1517, 37 publications in the German language. Humanistic literature reigned supreme until then in Latin, which was considered a more aristocratic language, keeping off the *profanum vulgus*. But Luther was, in the greatest period of his career (1517–24), the democratic agitator, and as such had to rely on the mass of the people for the victory of his cause. Therefore he wrote in German, and in

what sort of German! His language is more captivating, thrilling, and overpowering than that of any other writer—a language, too, which he actually first called into existence. From Luher's appearance, therefore, *German* literature dates, and the number of German prints increases. In 1518 there are already 71; in 1519, 111; in 1520, 208; in 1521, 211; in 1522, 347; in 1523, 498 German prints in the language of the people. The small place of Wittenberg in a few years becomes, mostly through his literary activity, the most important publishing centre. His own name appears in print, from 1518 to 1523 (aside from new editions or unlawful reprints), 20, 50, 133, 40, 133 times respectively, and in the last-named year as often as 183 times. Four-fifths of the 498 German books of 1523 are Lutheran in tendency, against a score only of Roman Catholic prints. The Papists complain bitterly of the inability of getting a hearing or finding publishers for their writings. Until Luther's time most books had been dear and stout folios; he introduced the democratic pamphlet, the cheap 12mo and 8vo, thus giving the art of printing its real importance, and securing for his work a thousand-tongued herald which no propaganda by word of mouth could have supplied.

—Luther reformed the book-trade no less than the Church. The editions of the Church fathers and classics disappeared as if by magic. Froben, the famous publisher, failed to sell, at the fall fair at Frankfort, a single copy of St. Augustine's 'De Civitate Dei,' until then a current article sold in numerous editions; while not enough copies of Luther's books and pamphlets could be printed. At one time all the presses in Basle were engaged in printing Luther's pamphlet on marriage. At the Frankfort fair in 1518 his disputation with Eck was sold to the extent of 1,400 copies, and of his address "To the Christian Nobility of the German Nation" 4,000 copies were taken up from August 15th to 23d, 1520. Of the German New Testament of 1522, the so-called 'September-Bibel,' the first edition (which is now being reproduced in facsimile by Mr. Grote of Berlin) of 5,000 copies, although costing about $6 of our money, was exhausted in three months, and two firms at Basle and one at Augsburg were simultaneously engaged in reprinting (pirating) it. The enthusiasm with which Luther's books were received, sustained and fostered his literary activity. The demand for printed reading matter constantly increased among the people at large, who were not quite so uneducated as they are often represented by later writers. John Faber of Constance writes to a friend that through the complicity of the printers the unlearned already knew (1521) of Luther's doings, and all the old women were gossiping about him in the streets. With the outbreak of the peasants' war Luther became conservative—wrote mostly theological books, a good many in Latin, and completed and improved his translation of the Bible. Hans Lufft, his publisher, printed during Luther's lifetime no less than 100,000 copies of the Bible, while the number of reprints must a good deal have exceeded this figure. Luther never accepted any royalty, and with touching modesty begged the "pirates," out of respect for his literary fame, not to affix to their reprints his own publisher's name, and to desist from stealing the proof-sheets from his printer's office, which seems to have been their standing practice. He denounces a translator for taking a florin (about $4) honorarium for a folio sheet. Kapp remarks that these things are very different now. Notwithstanding the large editions in which Luther's pamphlets and books were printed, "editiones principes" of most of them are now very scarce. The house of Beck at Nördlingen has, however, succeeded in collecting a great number of such and other contemporaneous books and pamphlets by Luther's friends and foes, which, carefully catalogued, embracing 1,236 lots (of which 619 are Luther's own writings), are now offered for sale *en bloc*, through Messrs. B. Westermann & Co., of New York. One of our public-spirited millionaires should avail himself of this opportunity to secure for some public library this collection, which probably could not be duplicated at any future time.

—Among the various publications which, with the beginning of the coming year, are going to increase the already large number of German scientific and literary monthlies and weeklies, is one of a most curious character. It is, of course, also intended, as prefaces generally claim, to meet a long-felt want. The announcement in the *Allgemeine Zeitung* for Oct. 19 reads as follows:

"To all persons of poetic talent! Gentlemen and ladies who do literary work, but have hitherto been unable to make use of the first fruits of their inspiration, are offered an opportunity to share in a literary enterprise, by subscribing to the weekly which will be published by the undersigned, namely: *The Poet's Cradle*. It will be the common property of all persons of poetic talent. In subscribing you acquire the right to ask for publication of your own essays, in prose or poetry. *The Poet's Cradle* will regularly contain eight folio pages, and a supplement of eight octavo pages. Price for one year, only eight marks. C. Haas, Publisher, Hilpoltstein (Mittelfranken), Bavaria."

The ingenious Mr. Haas has been anticipated in this country. That curious but prosperous Boston weekly, the *Waverley Magazine*, was, we believe, founded upon the notion that the surest tie between publisher and subscriber would be to gratify the latter's desire to see himself in print.

—Dr. Damrosch is always on the lookout for interesting musical novelties, and he generally shows good taste in selecting them. The first two novelties of this season, however—the cantata "St. Ursula," by the English composer, Cowen, and a Symphony in C by the Russian, Tchaikovsky—have proved more interesting as evidence that other countries besides France, Italy, and Germany are bestirring themselves in music, than because of their intrinsic merits. Tchaikovsky's Symphony, which was produced at the Symphony Society's concert last Saturday evening, is a work in which, with the best of intentions, it is difficult to discover any signs of originality. The themes are elaborated with ingenuity, but are not striking either in a melodic, rhythmic, or harmonic sense. The national element or "local color" is not by any means so striking as in the works of Rubinstein, the greatest of the Russians since the death of Turgeneff. Where it makes itself felt is in the sombre orchestral coloring more than in anything else. Although Tchaikovsky is only forty-three years of age, he has contributed something to almost every department of music—4 operas, 4 symphonies, 2 concertos, chamber music, and songs; but if all these works were as weak as the symphony in C, he would never have gained his present position in the esteem of musicians. The last two movements are much better than those preceding them, which have all the appearance of having been added, as padding, in order to make up the orthodox number. And here we have perhaps the principal reason why the work failed to command the author's inspiration. The symphony as an æsthetic form is not adapted to the expression of modern ideas. Its equivalent in pianoforte music—the sonata—has already almost entirely passed out of use since Chopin and Schumann created their poetic shorter forms, and the orchestral sonata is destined to disappear also, being driven out of the field by the symphonic poem. The great formal shortcoming of the symphony is that its movements have no organic connection. They follow one another on the principle of contrast, but that is a very insufficient nexus. What would be said if a dramatist came forward with four one-act plays in which neither the persons nor the plot and motives were related, and called them a dramatic symphony or what not, simply because two of them were lively and the other two tragic? That is precisely the case with most symphonies. However, they enable a composer who has written a good movement to hitch on a few others that would otherwise stand no chance of getting performed, and this may be the main reason why some contemporary musicians still adhere to this unæsthetic form. Of course the best of the classical symphonies will survive in spite of their want of organic coherence and correlation of ideas in their movements; but modern composers should avoid these errors. Liszt has shown them in his symphonic poems how a few motives may be taken and developed in a poetic, connected manner, very much as a novelist develops his plot. Tchaikovsky has written two symphonic poems, and it is therefore to be regretted that he should have had a "relapse" into the symphonic form. The performance of the symphony by Dr. Damrosch's orchestra calls for high praise.

ILLUSTRATED HOLIDAY BOOKS.

Purgatory and Paradise. Translated by the Rev. Francis Cary, M.A., and illustrated with the designs of Gustave Doré. New edition. Cassell & Co.

The Raven. By Edgar Allan Poe. Illustrated by Gustave Doré. With comments by Edmund C. Stedman. Harper & Bros.

The Raven. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.; London: Griffith & Farran.

Gray's Elegy. The Artists' Edition Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Gray's Elegy. Illustrated by Harry Fenn. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

The Forging of the Anchor: A Poem. By Sir Samuel Ferguson, LL.D. Cassell & Co.

The High Tide on the Coast of Lincolnshire, 1571. By Jean Ingelow. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Compositions from Shakespeare's Tempest and from Shelley's Prometheus Unbound. By Sir J. Noel Paton. Cassell & Co.

Lead, Kindly Light. By John Henry Newman. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Michael Angelo. A Dramatic Poem. By Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Renaissance of Art in Italy. An Illustrated History. By Leader Scott. Scribner & Welford.

Some Modern Artists and their Work. Edited by Wilfred Meynell. Cassell & Co.

THE business of illustrating books has become a branch of art so large and in many ways so important as to demand and merit a larger and more systematic study than it has received, and some determination of the principles which ought to guide it, as the chief method of popularizing art—if, indeed, it is permitted to speak of popularizing that which is, and must always be, reserved for genuine appreciation to prolonged and exacting culture, and therefore to few persons. Art, in its highest development, can no more be popularized than can the integral calculus; and any form of it that meets

with full and satisfactory popular appreciation must necessarily be art of a low grade—not of necessity bad art, but simple and elementary, just as a glee, or a hymn tune, or mere negro-minstrel's song, may be good and genuine music as far as it goes (and must be so to secure permanent popularity), and yet if compared with a Beethoven sonata or an overture by Wagner, is distinctly low and elementary music. In music, indeed, this distinction is so generally recognized that no demonstration of it is needed; but in the graphic art the mass of people know so little that it is hopeless to attempt to convince the public that the arts of design require just as severe and specialized an education as music to unable any one to pronounce an authoritative opinion. The *ne sutor ultra crepidam* holds always good, yet implies, however, that the shoemaker is good as far as his last, and that there are certain elements in art which are subject more or less to popular appreciation and judgment. The *infra crepidam* lies absolutely in the province of illustrated art. As to ideal art, the other great branch of the graphic, the younger and sublimer sister, popular appreciation is in the inverse proportion of its attainment. We may rank it inversely by the favor of the uneducated just as surely as by the direct appreciation of the accomplished critic.

Yet the greatest intellects ever employed on art have been engaged in what may properly be called book illustration. Raphael's Loggie contain the noblest series of Bible illustrations we possess, and Giotto's Arena Chapel is an historical picture-book which may be said to be, as far as modern art motive is concerned, the prototype of illustrative work. We regret the loss of Michael Angelo's illustration of Dante even more than the dilapidation of his "Last Judgment," and must hail in Botticelli the master of all story-book illustration. The descent from Michael Angelo's art to that of Gustave Doré is so tremendous that the fall below is not to be much dreaded. The success of the Frenchman's illustrations is a curious exemplification of the inverted relation between popular favor and artistic excellence. Even his illustrations of Balzac's 'Contes Drôlatiques,' in which he is at his very best—working with youthful vigor and originality, on subjects entirely akin to his genius—are comparatively unknown, while his Bible and Dante designs, morbid in imagination, fevered and flimsy in art, and shallow and commonplace in illustration of the theme, made his fortune and his popularity. There is probably no connected series of designs in existence combining so much pretension with such detestable fulfilment as these. He marches into the world of ghosts, tripping at Dante's heels with his Paris hat under his arm, his *pince nez* on his nose, with the assurance of a New York interviewer among newly arrived opera singers; carries a big sketch book in which at intervals he dashes off, with irreverent and indecent haste, his Cockney (he must have lived in London a long time before he drew his Dante designs) impressions of what took place; rushes through and puts his views before the world with an evident air of having considered the subject scarcely more gravely than he would have done a huge circus performance which he might have had to draw for an illustrated newspaper. His landscape is wretched and flimsy; he cannot give the time to draw a cloud or a bit of water: see his rendering of the sublime description of the ship coming with souls to purgatory (pp. 7, 8). When he puts us off with a landscape motive it is the landscape of a third-rate stage scene (p. 22). When the elements become tragic, as in the plate of Buonconte thrown up by the Arno (p 24), it is the clap-trap of the moving diorama. When he essays the lighter motives, as, Pia Tolomei before Dante and Virgil (p. 25), it is with a stage background flimsy and pale, with the three figures like monumental statues on a lawn. His majesty is that of a melodrama, and his dignity a caricature of the heavy gentleman of comedy. In only one plate in the entire 'Purgatory and Paradise,' that of Dante and Provenzano (p. 58), does he succeed, by loans from Michael Angelo and an unusual care for the art of his drawing, in rising above the commonplace.

What was left of descent, in the Dante illustrations, Doré accomplished in those of Poe's 'Raven.' There is a curious fidelity in the engraver's work; and probably in rendering the quality of the drawings, it would be very difficult to find a nearer approach to facsimile than these blocks. Take, for instance, the plate inscribed "Sorrow for the lost Lenore." The false perspective lines, the uneffaced lines of the first sketch, the tentative forms of the draperies, and *repentirs* throughout, all conscientiously preserved in the wood-cutting, are curious proofs of the unflinching exactitude of the engraver, even in the execution of one of the most frivolous and unconsidered designs which Doré ever perpetrated. The lines of the architecture, scrawled on the paper almost without aim, are not even indicated with recognition of perspective truth; the masonry on one side of the vault descends a course lower than on the other, though the structure indicates symmetry. The illustration, "'Tis some visitor entreating," is, if possible, more vacuous as conception and scarcely more sincere as design. Open the book where you will, there is evidence of a worn-out fancy, jaded artistic feeling, and an incompletion in working out, which can only be the result of utter indifference to the quality of the work. "Here I opened wide the door" is one of the most ludicrous of the series, the hero being struck with stark imbecility; while in the following design, "Open here I flung the shutter," he seems to be shouting a frantic alarm of fire out of his window, and in the next of the series to be in a fit of epilepsy. Illustration of poetry, to be truly illustrative, must put the theme in a new form—throw further light on it literally. Doré has neither followed the poem in these illustrations nor developed the theme in a new vein. The wreaths of kicking and writhing nymphs which float around the personage of the poem have no relation to it, or to any allied vein of thought; they are like an ethereal ballet troupe, save that they are so poorly endowed with individual grace. The theatrical tableau, "On this home by horror haunted," may be taken as on the whole the most apt illustration as such, but there is no room for great distinction. The grave and unconventional design by Vedder for the title-page is perhaps an unintentional foil to the empty and supercilious character of the designs of Doré. The sumptuousness of the get-up of the book leaves nothing to be desired, and the quality of the engraving in the orthodox manner is singularly fine.

The excessively commonplace illustrations of the octavo edition of the 'Raven,' the third on our list, are almost a relief from this nightmare-dream of Doré, but do not justify any connection with Poe, who is not to be illustrated without some sort of fancy, and these designs have none.

Gray's 'Elegy' is one of those minor immortalities which have the truest and strongest attraction for an illustrator. It is full of suggestions of poetic landscape and of tender and plaintive figure-themes. It, also, has called out two editions, both good in their way, but Mr. Fenn's designs are throughout so literal in their adherence to the text as to be devoid of imaginative interest. It is simply repeating, without thought, the ideas of the poet in another language. To furnish, as illustration of the lines —

> "Save that, from yonder ivy-mantled tower,
> The moping owl does to the moon complain"—

a carefully drawn owl (which might be from the taxidermist's) on a corner of ruined wall, and a full moon rising beyond, requires no intellectual resource. Nor is there in this edition a single design which leaves the commonplace level, though all as drawings are good, and some—notably the tail-piece; the church-yard scene at the end; "There, at the foot of yonder nodding beech," and "Far from the madding crowd's ignoble strife"—are excellent, but not in relation to the poem. The rival edition gives on the whole a higher average of art, and some felicitous cases of illustration. The contrast in the treatment of the themes, "Some village Hampden" and "Far from the madding crowd," is instructive, and the design for the former, in the Artists' Edition, is a gem in its way. Where Mr. Fenn has given us two boys preparing to fight, Mr. Frost represents a little drama of peasant life: an old woman, who has been gathering dead wood, assaulted by a landlord or his agent, and a peasant, of a sturdy muscular maturity, throwing himself between. In the latter we have from Mr. Fenn a picturesque cottage and a solitary traveller wending his way towards it; the other edition gives a rustic interior, with the tranquil peasant life with pipe and mug, and the old Bible by the fireside—not imaginative, perhaps, but it helps out the fancy of the poet. The illustration of "The boast of heraldry, etc." (p. 19 of the Artists' Edition) is admirable—the glory gone like autumn leaves, and sorrow alone remaining to tell what has been. As wood-cutting, it is not possible to improve much on the general character of the Artists' Edition, and the plate on page 37, though commonplace as illustration, as landscape is singularly fine. The frontispiece, and "Beneath those rugged elms," are very noticeable in their different ways. But why Mr. Smedley should, when the text says "the applause of listening senates . . . their lot *forbade*," give us an orator addressing some senate, we can only comprehend on the *lucus a non lucendo* principle—a bad one in illustration.

Dr. Ferguson's 'Forging of the Anchor' will not command much study, nor in fact furnish a single example of the true illustration of the text by the artist. The designers of the blacksmith scenes have never taken the pains to see an anchor forged, or we should say a sledge-hammer swung; and the marines are as much at sea, especially in the absurd thing at p. xii. To illustrate "The ruddy, lurid row of smiths that stand, an ardent band, like men before the foe," we have, on the *lucus a non* principle, a battalion of Dutch musketeers about A. D. 1600, having first fired their guns at an invisible foe. To a poverty-stricken illustrator any association serves as a peg to hang his picture on.

With a certain redundancy in the designs, the edition of the 'High Tide' of Jean Ingelow is admirable. Mr. Church fairly wins the honors of the tournament, and his designs "My sonnes faire wife Elizabeth," "And all the air, it seemeth me," and "The waters laid thee at his door," show him to be a true illustrator, in whose talent a vein of sympathy exists on which the poet will not call in vain.

Sir J. Noel Paton's outline compositions from Shakspere and Shelley hardly come within the limits of art, so artificial and so devoid of

genuine inspiration are they. Shakespeare is not a subject for third-rate men, but in the compass of his plays may be found subjects for almost any illustrator gifted with insight, or outsight, of human nature. We do not know that any painter has done dramatic justice to the woes of *King Lear*, or that any one has touched the virginal ideal of *Miranda*; but between those there are thousands of types we may meet any day in almost any land. But of all the impossible plays to anybody but an illustrator of the highest imagination, "The Tempest" and "Midsummer Night's Dream" are the furthest out of reach. Sir Noel Paton not only has no imagination, but his fancy never gets beyond the lines of the 'Arabian Nights.' A man who will wrestle with Caliban must be a Michael Angelo or a rash and uncomprehending adventurer. Sir Noel Paton's designs (which, by the way, are a generation old) do not seem to aim at anything beyond the reach of stage spectacle, with a standard of dramatic expression drawn from the rant and posturing of the English theatre; and his type of horror scarcely goes beyond the grimaces of a naughty child. His Shelley designs, again, are attempts of the incapable to deal with the impossible. Shelley is the least to be drawn of all poets, and it would be difficult, perhaps, to find a series of ambitious designs with so much majestic inanity and vapid grace as those before us.

The little volume which makes its burthen of the 'Lead, Kindly Light' of Newman, is a combination of monochrome illumination with commonplace illustration—the former graceful and marked with fine fantasies and real illustrative suggestion; the latter, though pictorially well felt, would answer almost as well for any other poem. "Those angel faces" is represented by a very ordinary half-length, with no manner of divinity in the face; and the "Pride ruled my will," by a showily dressed lady who might be a figure taken out of a picnic party. It is a mistake to push illustration into such a field; the poem is purely devotional, and cannot be illustrated. Illuminated it may be, and has been here, well enough to content the public, we should think, without the woodcuts, which are heavier freight than so frail a bark will carry.

The (on the whole) magnificent edition of Longfellow's 'Michael Angelo' is, so far as typography, the printing of the woodcuts, and general get-up are concerned, a book to be proud of. The illustrations vary widely in merit as designs, and it is impossible not to see that some of the illustrators have missed an opportunity which will not soon return. The opening illustrations are unfortunate, the frontispiece (admirably cut by Mr. Kruell from a French engraving) in its printing, and the half-title and dedication in design and cutting; but the head-piece of part first is excellent, as are Hovenden's "Michael Angelo in his Studio," and Thurlstrup's "Cardinal Ippolito and Fra Sebastiano," and the half-title to part third. Millet's "Michael Angelo and the Monk" and the Michael Angelo and the Dead Christ are distinctly noteworthy designs, and the engraving generally excellent. The portraits, from engravings (with exception of those of Julia Gonzaga and Vittoria Colonna), and the little heads in the notes (a valuable innovation), are as well and carefully rendered, either as copy or engraving, as we could ask; but the more ambitious designs, Millet's "Vittoria Colonna, Michael Angelo, and others," singularly careless in drawing. "Julia Gonzaga and Valdesso," and the spectacular Cellini in the foundry, do not seem to have been conceived with any distinct relation to the poem or to the function of illustration. Shirlaw's large design of the studio scene is fine as a whole, but poor and weak in the working out of the parts. The views are the worst element, and the large "Venice by Night" is a distinct absurdity and misnomer as drawing—singularly well done as engraving.

The more commonplace and common-sense view of illustration is well represented by the 'Illustrated History of the Renaissance in Italy,' of Leader Scott, in which the salient points of the development of the art in Italy, during the period which is most unscientifically called the Renaissance, are given in woodcut illustrations, without any of the charm of the new school of artistic wood-cutting, to be sure, yet in the main excellent examples of the old orthodox manner of cutting, and serving most satisfactorily to convey the general idea of the works as examples to those who have not seen them, and to recall pleasantly the treasures of Italian art to those who have. Even after Symonds's and Perkins's, Mr. Scott's work, though not to be held up as an authority in critical matters, is an acquisition for the general excellence of its illustrations and their range of matter. Being generally taken from photographs, apparently, and from the works of the masters, they are not, as design, subject to criticism; and though in cases where delicacy of expression or shade of fidelity of facial expression is concerned the wood-cutting fails, as in the St. George of Donatello, the quality of the work is all we need ask for the purpose.

The more ambitious work on 'Modern Artists' (a reprint from Cassell's *Magazine of Art*) does not justify its pretensions. The literary portion of the work—joint contribution of that young school of English literati who merit a new definition of the term "agnostic"—is scarcely within the province of the present criticism, except as it is the pretext of the book, whose chief motive is the illustrations. If the literary element is flimsy, the pictorial is trashy; the selections of the subjects being governed by no rule of artistic nobility, but apparently by personal preferences. Of the many indifferent illustrations, those of the work of Mr. G. F. Watts are the very worst, and none are above the level of the woodcuts of the London *Graphic*. The making of such works is unfortunately likely to have no end, as the ability employed in them will probably never be rare.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—IV.

THE mixture of colors on the outside of Hezekiah Butterworth's 'Zigzag Journeys in Northern Lands' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat) fitly typifies the confusion of topics within. The title is misleading, for, as the author says, "The Zigzag Books . . . do not aim so much to present narratives of travel as the histories, traditions, romances, and stories of places"; and besides, although the volume claims a range "from the Rhine to the Arctic," very little indeed is said of any northern land except Germany. The contents are a jumble of fragments of description, history, and biography, with fairy tales, legends, poetry, ghost stories, etc. Macbeth, St. Dunstan, Moltke, Beethoven, the Lorelei, Voltaire contribute to the heterogeneity. No doubt there are many interesting pages and various well-selected woodcuts—notably those of old buildings; and with those people who like a little of everything at the same time, the book ought to find favor.

It is a pity when the Arctic regions afford so many opportunities for adventure, and such a variety of striking and interesting phenomena, that a story-teller should feel driven to introduce Spanish pirates in the North Atlantic, and antelope, bison, and wild turkeys in Labrador. These are, however, considered necessary by the author of the 'Cruise of the Snowbird' (A. C. Armstrong & Son) to sustain the interest of his narrative, although he professes to have himself been in the Arctic seas. The book is unobjectionable in matter, except for such anachronisms, and fairly well written, except in the matter of dialect. Such as has been introduced was surely never spoken by mortal man. It is something to have a boy's book free from vulgarity and precocious love-making; but little more in the way of merit can be claimed for this.

'The Boy's and Girl's Plutarch' (Putnams), edited by Mr. John S. White, is in all respects better conceived and executed than the 'Young Folks' Plutarch' we lately criticised. In the first place, it preserves Plutarch's own language, as far as practicable, using Clough's improvement upon Dryden's version. In the next place, it omits some of the lives, and from others it takes only the most striking or famous passages, as the description of Archimedes's engines, from the Life of Marcellus. These selections have been made with good judgment. Then there is an abundance of illustrations, of different grades, to be sure, but all useful and interesting. There are maps, as in Miss Kaufman's edition, and, as there was *not* in hers, a chronological table, full and clear; finally, a pronouncing index of names. Mr. White's preface we find rather extravagant, and pitched too high for his readers; and it must be said that he has too scrupulously abstained from tampering with the translation in some instances. Here is a specimen sentence that would have borne simplification (p. 370): "Eudoxus and Archytas had been the originators of the far-famed and highly-prized art of mechanics, which they employed as an elegant illustration of geometrical truths, and as a means of sustaining, experimentally, to the satisfaction of the senses, conclusions too intricate for proof by words and diagrams." The volume is exceptionally substantial in make, and large and clear of print.

The Rev. Alfred J. Church offers in his 'Stories from Herodotus' and 'Stories from Livy' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), as in so many other of his classical abstracts for the young, a first-rate example of elaboration as opposed to quotation and compilation. His workmanship is too well known to require description or praise. The illustrations, as if from painted vases, are a pretty fashion.

Unquestionably, the hero book of the season, by long odds, is Mr. Howard Pyle's 'Merry Adventures of Robin Hood' (Charles Scribner's Sons). We place it, in point of beauty and elegance, at the head of American juvenile productions. The taste of the artist, printer, and binder is faultless, and in every regard the volume is a delight to the eye. Mr. Pyle's prose rendering of the ballad need not be scrutinized too closely as an antiquarian performance: the child will appreciate its flavor without being able to detect the anachronisms. The narrative is thoroughly pleasant, often picturesque, and it will infallibly interest. The designs, by Mr. Pyle's own hand, furnish new proof of his imaginative capacity and his firm and skilful draughtsmanship. They do more than that, for there are initial letters, borders, and head and tail-pieces which bear witness to a high order of decorative talent. Very few of these fail to give entire satisfaction, and we welcome them as a sign that our publishers only need a little courage to enable them, by the aid of native artists, to rival the charming workmanship of the best French and German houses. We do not refer simply to *éditions de luxe*.

Two new volumes of the excellent series of "Minor Wars of the United States" (Dodd,

Mead & Co.) are before us: 'King Philip's War,' by Richard Markham, and a 'History of the War with Mexico,' by Horatio O. Ladd—it would seem, professors in the University of New Mexico. King Philip's war was the last of a series of Indian wars in New England, and this volume contains an account of all these, beginning, indeed—which was hardly necessary—with the Northmen and the *Mayflower*. The history is told in a very interesting way, and may be recommended as an excellent book for children. The 'Mexican War' is adapted to a rather older grade of readers, and ought to be welcomed by a great many persons who have wished to have a compendious account of that important event. It is a great satisfaction to find the cause of the war boldly given (p. 29) as "the purpose to extend human slavery into free territory." We are surprised, however, in the account of the early history of Texas, to find no mention of what we have always supposed to be an established fact—the deliberate colonization of that territory by American citizens, with the purpose of detaching it from the Mexican republic. The illustrations are for the most part of the usual kind—fancy pictures—but good of their kind. Each volume, however, contains a good map.

Mrs. Moulton's 'Firelight Stories,' comprising "Sol Jones's Orphans," "The Little Silver Lockets," and a number of others (Boston: Roberts Brothers), will be found interesting, but they are not thoroughly artistic: the characters lack shading, the incidents are apt to seem unnatural, and a certain crudity betrays the absence of a master-hand. However, the intent of the book is to advocate love and kindness, and the stories are touching. It is not suitable for young children.

'A Round Dozen' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) is a collection of thirteen stories by "Susan Coolidge." To say they are hers is to declare them fresh, bright, kindly, refined, and abounding in common sense as well as pleasant fancy. There is ample variety of subject in the volume before us, and both boys and girls will be pleased. Readers of *St. Nicholas* will recognize some old favorites.

The story of 'Donald and Dorothy' first appeared in *St. Nicholas*. The handsome volume which Roberts Bros. now offer to the juvenile public will be welcomed by those who have, as well as by those who have not, already made the acquaintance of "the two D's." Never were there a more charming brother and sister, and it is needless to say to any one familiar with the pen of Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge, that she has made the narrative of their home-life and country pleasures brimful of vivacity and cheerfulness. The introduction, however, of a mystery, the shadow of which sorely puzzles Donald and Dorothy, and often darkens their sunshine, is alien to the general spirit of the book; and the intrusive stranger who disturbs the peace of the household, seems transplanted from a commonplace novel. However, uncommon and improbable things do happen, and if we do not object to the unusual combination of incidents which has given rise to the mystery, perhaps we must forgive the sensational stranger. But the improbable becomes the absurd when a boy of scarcely sixteen starts off to Europe alone to discover traces of a woman not heard of (despite advertisements and detective vigilance) for fifteen years; and *succeeds*, after disclosing enough insight and perseverance to do credit to a man of thirty. This is a serious blemish in a delightful book, and ought to be carefully pointed out to children in the interest of common sense and sound judgment.

'Jingles and Joys for Little Girls and Boys,' by Mary D. Brine (Cassell), deserves to be encased in something better than its rather tawdry cover. If the object of such a book is that children from three to six years old should take it to their hearts and carry it about all day and sleep with it beneath their pillows at night, that aim is well attained. Its vast multitude of pictures, its profuse abundance of pussy-cats, and bow-wows, and little babies, will endear it to the childish soul. The pictures, in fact, have lifelike and inexhaustible qualities, and the very simplicity of their ingredients will be sure to please. The verses are commonplace, and the author has not that unequalled gift of joyous nonsense which marks the editor of *St. Nicholas;* but she has a jubilant strain which never falters, and rarely descends to slang. No harm is to be found in the book—unless the too abundant use of the word "sissie" be accounted as harm—and it holds floods of innocent enjoyment for those whom it addresses.

An unadorned tale of Indian life on the Red River of the North in the early part of this century is the autobiographical history of John Tanner's captivity. This, edited by Edwin James, the historian of Long's expedition to the Rocky Mountains, was a classic, in its way, when first printed more than fifty years ago. It has now been condensed and reprinted under English editorship as 'Grey Hawk' (Lippincott). It is the true story of a little boy, stolen in Kentucky by Shawnees, who grew up adopted and naturalized among the Ottawas, to whom he was transferred by purchase. Its interest lies in its direct speech and in its homely details of the barbarism and poverty of nomadic hunters, often distressed for want of food, and often in misery from rum. The savage virtue of hospitality and the civilized vice of drunkenness have many examples in its pages, and one learns that life among the less fierce tribes of the Northwest was an irregular succession of hunting, starvation, very transient abundance and carousing, cold, and poverty. There is a dearth of the legends that we might expect (the story of Moowis, the snow-spirit used in "Hiawatha," being the chief); and the book, although really interesting, is in no respect exciting, and will neither keep boys awake at night nor tempt them to want "to go and live among the Indians"—a childish wish to which John Tanner attributed much of his subsequent misfortune. There are several spirited illustrations, but the artist forgot that a charging buffalo never carries a drooping tail, and had he witnessed the canoe race he depicts he would have seen the contestants kneeling, not erect.

Sir Samuel Baker's capacity for interesting narrative had been so fully proved in his books of sport and travel, that we expected much of his 'True Tales for My Grandsons' (Macmillan & Co.). The collection is, however, a singular medley, in no way remarkable, and displays here and there a certain coarseness, hardness of feeling, even indelicacy (considering the writer's audience), which readers of his African adventures can hardly fail to recognize as characteristic. The first story, of two dogs, is quite unfit for childish reading by reason of these defects. The second, "The Cruise of the Whaler *Sophia*," leads up to an Enoch Arden situation without dignity or heroism. The third is a cumbersome tale of the Sikh war of 1845-6, of which the point is the curious fact that the survivor returns hoping to marry his old love, now a widow, and takes her daughter in preference. "Hassan Ali and the Golden Basin" is comparatively unobjectionable—not wholly. Dog and elephant tales conclude the volume, and are by far the most valuable; but even here a certain inhumanity—the sportsman's, shall we say?—and a strange indelicacy crop out. Mr. Hennessy's illustrations are above the average.

'Won from the Waves' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) is one of the late Mr. Kingston's stories, which follows the safe sailing directions for a quick and prosperous voyage between the literary ports with which he habitually trades. It tells of a little girl, the sole survivor of a wreck on the English coast. Her jewels and linen prove conclusively her gentle birth. She is adopted by an ancient mariner, her rescuer. The rest may be easily surmised. We have in succession aristocrats, villains, a comedian or two, and the gallant young naval hero, who performs prodigies of valor, and ultimately marries the heroine. The padding is made up of naval battles and some detective work in harmony with the period—the earlier portion of the present century. 'From Powder Monkey to Admiral' (A.C. Armstrong & Son), by the same author, is, with a slight variation of incident, a repetition of his other books. The title sufficiently explains what may be learned from its perusal.

Mr. Manville Fenn's 'Middy and Ensign' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) possesses both interest and value. It relates the military and naval adventures of a joint expedition of the two arms of the service, to give English protection to a petty Mahometan potentate on the Parang River on the west coast of the Malay peninsula. The story is told with spirit and vivacity, and is instructive to the youthful reader, inasmuch as the scene is laid in a locality with which but few persons are familiar.

The illustrated juvenile books for the present season exhibit little originality. We except Kate Greenaway's designs for sundry poems by Jane and Ann Taylor, 'Little Ann and Other Poems' (Routledge), the text of which, by the way, is sometimes badly punctuated, and differs astonishingly from that which happens to be nearest us for comparison. Her materials are old and familiar, but her combination of them is ever fresh and delicate. To such vignettes as those representing the four Locker children, to whom the volume is dedicated, the pathetic orphan girl, the dreamy child listening to her inward monitor, the sportive group upon the village green, one turns again and again; and others might be named as good as these. Add the dainty tail-pieces, usually with a flower-motive. Then, for evidence of inexhaustible ingenuity, take Miss Greenaway's 'Almanack for 1884' (same publishers), with its novel symbolism for the zodiac—full of refined humor. Altogether we may say that this delightful artist shows no falling off in her work.

Not so Mr. R. Caldecott. His two picture-books—'The Fox Jumps over the Parson's Gate,' and 'A Frog he would a-Wooing Go' (Routledge)—are unworthy of the series which they continue. The colored drawings particularly are so poor and so little characteristic as to make the familiar initials seem counterfeit. In the outline sketches there is here and there a trace of Mr. Caldecott's genius, but they are mostly below his average.

Other productions in color need not detain us long. Mr. H. W. McVickar has caught the spirit neither of the poem nor of the time in his drawings for Dr. Holmes's stirring 'Grandmother's Story of Bunker's Hill Battle' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). His color sense, too, is as crude as his humor is coarse and his draughtsmanship feeble. The plates in 'Told in the Twilight' (Dutton & Co.) can be better spoken of, and indeed lack nothing on the score of refinement, however much they leave to be desired in respect to line and tint. Moreover, there is a certain cleverness in the decorative borders in which the verses are set, especially the pictorial borders. The poetry itself is but mediocre, and when jocose is at best a mere dilution of the metrical nonsense

in 'Alice in Wonderland.' 'Children's Thoughts in Song and Story' (Cassell) is a book to be shunned. The "song" is wretched doggerel, and the lithographic illustrations do not merit a civil word. Nor can we say anything of the black-and-white 'Alphabet Children' (White, Stokes & Allen) except that all concerned in making it must have an eye for ugliness. Mr. Walter Severn's fancy and skill, again, are unequal to the task of illustrating Lord Houghton's 'Good Night and Good Morning' (Roberts Bros.) with illuminated and etched borders.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

Newfoundland: Its History, its Present Condition, and its Prospects in the Future. By Joseph Hatton, author of 'To-day in America,' etc., and the Rev. M. Harvey, a resident of St. John's, and author of 'Across Newfoundland.' Boston: Doyle & Whittle. 1883.

THE story of Newfoundland (let Americans, who almost always call this name wrongly, know that the stress is on the last syllable) is, for strangeness, almost beyond belief. Few readers or travellers or men of enterprise, up to this now-running year of grace, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-three, know how strange it is; or, rather, few have a thought that it is in any way strange, or out of the common, or worth the looking into. Indeed, if even a little of the truth about that country had leaked out to the knowledge of the world at large, at any time in these almost four hundred years last past, in which all Europeans who knew much have known that that great island was standing forth, one thousand miles, in front of this continent, broad in the track of all ships coming—nay, sought and visited by hundreds of ships, in every one of those almost four hundred years—if even a little of the truth had been guessed, in all those years, by a few scores of men with lively blood in their heart, the strangeness of the story would have been out and done with before to-day. As things are now, Newfoundland waits, before the eyes of the world, known, and yet—till just now—almost as utterly unknown and worthy of being revealed and understood for what it is, as was the woman set in front of Admetus, and of whom he speculated (before Herakles took away her veil) that she had the proportions of a queen; or as was *Hermione* standing for a statue on a pedestal, when *Leontes* was saying:

> "See, my lord;
> Would you not deem it breathed? and that those veins
> Did verily bear blood?"

The story of that island may very fitly be compared to that of such a being—first clothed in mystery, and afterwards, when the time came, suddenly brought out of it, as brought from death to life.

Nor let any one wonder at our treating of that country, in so far, as a person. This way of treating it comes (for our purpose) naturally: it offers itself. The strange story is not about dynasties, or races, or institutions, or social happenings. Of course, where such men as John and Sebastian Cabot, and Sir Humphrey Gilbert, had much to do, there must been (and was) plenty of bold, wise seamanship and knightly doing and bearing; and among those tough and doughty sailor-races that, as soon as the great new fishing-grounds were heard of, all crowded to the coasts of Newfoundland and the Grand Banks, there must have been plenty of yeomanly and sailor-like good deeds worth telling. And surely, where a race of friendly, manly red men has gone out utterly from life, and so suddenly that its wattled deer fences were still stretching across their empty country, and clusters of wigwams and huts, and of houses for the dead, and canoes, and tools were found, on search, but not a living man, there must have been heart-touching things enough. But the strange story is of Newfoundland itself, a whole country, and a good country, really *unoccupied*, to this day, nearly four hundred years since it was "found."

In August, 1497, King Henry VII., of England, in his niggardly way, gave "To Hym that found the newe Ile, 10*l.*"; and till now this great country, larger than Ireland by a good deal, with its fine rivers (no match, to be sure, for Mississippis and Amazons, but fit to run beside a Merrimac from end to end), rich valleys and plains, noble forests, great mines of coal, copper, and lead (gold, too, it seems), huge beds of slate, gypsum, marble, and granite, and everything that need go to the making of a country which, of itself, could keep freely some millions of people without ever touching the fisheries, has been held tight down to loneliness and waste, except where a little sprinkling of settlers cling to the very outermost rocky edge of one-half of its coast. Inside, those deep, fat meadows, countless timber trees, running up fifty feet without branch or knot, and measuring four or five feet through at a man's height, water powers, mines, quarries, and the rest, have been left to such husbandmen, lumbermen, millers, and miners, as bears, and beavers, and black ducks, and hares, and moose, and reindeer—these last, to be sure, "as tall as a horse." Even the "Beothic" or "Bethuk" race of Indians (a fine sort of savages), who were hunted down and killed off, have never been replaced by other men. One hundred and eighty thousand people have got a footing on the rocks of the worst half of its shore—as stout, friendly, sober, law-abiding, God-fearing a set of men as can be found on earth—and they have been enough to handle the fishing, and "swiling" (seal-hunting), and fish-drying, and oil-making. They bring in yearly and cure enough to fetch five or six millions of dollars for the dried cod, half a million for cod oil, two-thirds of a million for seal oil, and another third for pelts. No number of men can get beyond about that tale, in cod and seal-fishing, for, vast as it is, and never-failing, the supply never goes beyond about one mark. But these good sturdy folk have, all these ages, been working with their backs to the meadows, and pasture grounds, and rivers, and woods, and the underground wealth, as if their lives depended on their never looking over their shoulder that way.

By this time it may be thought that the book whose name stands at the head of this article is a romancing book, or written in the interest of speculators, and clever enough to get hold of its readers by the fancy and make them see a barren and dreary old island through a glamour of the writers' raising, instead of its own cold fog: but this is not so. The book is, indeed, good and interesting and thorough and well written, but it is without the smallest bit of imagination or fancy to mislead the reader. It is no Sir John Mandeville's tale of things seen golden-purplish, and out of shape, through an ill-fitted spy-glass. It has in it only the earnestness of conviction and of faith in the holding of strong facts. The book does not make the strangeness of the story; it has nothing to do with the making of it. The book only puts the case to the world of readers in a plain, unvarnished way, in good English, and with good sense, and proves it and makes it clear by ample testimony and figures. Thus, mining has just begun (still near the coast), and in six years has made Newfoundland the sixth copper-trading country in the world. And this is the merest beginning.

The way of the whole thing was this: Ships came out and fished the summer through or till they were full, and then went home with their fares. A never-failing market was open in every land in Europe for the salted fish, and merchants, from the first, saw their own good in the keeping of ships and men going and coming from their own hands to the great fisheries, and back to their own hands. Statesmen, too, from the first, thought how those sea-going fishermen would make ready crews of the boldest, toughest, wholesomest stuff, for war-ships. So, from the very beginning, almost, the traders found it easy to get Orders in Council, or Acts of Parliament, or whatever they wanted, to make sure that no settlements should be made in Newfoundland, and that shippers of fishing ships should, under penalties, bring back to England the same men that they carried out. Early, a grant or so to Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Calvert Lord Baltimore had come to nothing but loss and failure, and had only helped the side of those who wished to keep the island from all settlement, and the rocky shores, on the east and south, for the "flakes" and "stages" of the summer fishermen from England—leaving the western and northern shores for the same use by the French, who had got a claim recognized by treaty. The eastern and southern edges are rocky and barren always, and foggy often. No civilized man had ever (till sixty years ago—nearly three hundred and fifty years after the Finding) set foot in the inside country; and then it was only one single Scotsman, with a Nova Scotia Indian, for the tramp. The traders had given the land a bad name, and cried it down; and, literally, up to 1811, had, with law on their side, kept even the English shore, formally, for two hundred yards back, for "fishing-rooms," that is, for use of the ships from England. No grants were made, nor was property in land, "not actually employed in the fishery," recognized. A dozen years before, the sheriff had been ordered to see that a certain "fence" should be pulled down, and certain "sheds," also, and not to allow any chimney to be built, or fire to be made, in "sheds." There were people living, all the year round, about the coast, somehow or other, in spite of everything, but the traders had got there, too, among them, and all the right in the soil, or anything on it or in it, was mere sufferance, as to squatters on a "common." "If any person shall presume to fence or to enclose any lands . . . all persons are at liberty to take down such fences and enclosures," was the reading of the law. At length the struggle of these hundreds of years slowly and hardly died out. It is hard to change an opinion which has had everything to itself for ages, and it will take time to turn off a fair share of the stream of seekers for homes and wages, which runs along the very coast to other shores; but now railways are building, mines opening, and a traffic beginning to and from the inland. Before long, we may hope that "valleys shall stand thick with corn," and the meadows be grazed by fat herds ("fessæ pecudes pingui per pabula læta") throughout the land, and rumbling trains of cars and deep-laden ships bear the yield of a thousand mines and quarries.

History of the Third Pennsylvania Reserve. By Major E. M. Woodward. Trenton, N. J.: Printed by MacCrellish & Quigley.

SUCH books as this serve a valuable purpose in preserving the details of the actions and experiences of the smaller commands composing an army, which are necessarily lost in works of a larger scope. They are useful contributions to local and personal history, and a just pride fosters the production of them. Major Woodward has given us an interesting account of the origin and history of the Third Pennsylvania Reserve, a regiment which made a creditable record as part of one of the best divisions in the Army of the

Potomac. His account is distinct, and many striking incidents of camp and field are well told. This division saw much hard service, and bore an honorable part in many of the great battles of the war in Virginia, especially during the campaign of 1862. Among its early officers were some who, like Reynolds and Meade, rose subsequently to high command. In narrating the history of his regiment the author has given a sketch of the actions of the whole division of which it was a part, and indeed of the Army of the Potomac. We think he has erred in devoting too much space and attention to this instead of to a fuller chronicle of the life and actions of the regiment itself.

As a sketch of the operations of the Army of the Potomac the book has little or no value. The statements are for the most part one-sided, and often very inaccurate. The author's selection of authorities is somewhat singular, as when, in preference to the official reports, he looks for information about the numbers and operations of the Confederate army to newspaper articles written during or soon after the war, or to Pollard's History, which was made up from such articles. He is not careful enough about his data when they favor the Federal side. Thus, such information as General Porter could gather some ten or twelve years ago is taken, in place of the official reports, to determine the strength of Pope's and Lee's armies, and a statement in a Richmond newspaper of the time is taken as fixing the Confederate strength at Antietam. An old soldier is apt to see the achievements of all other commands save his own through the wrong end of the telescope, but it is not often we have so striking an instance of this as on page 112, where our author says of the battle of Glendale (June 30, 1862): "That the Reserves (McCall's division) fought it alone against thrice their number, and within sight and hearing of three or four times their number of national troops, who did not lose ten men, is an incontestable fact."

On this day the Union army stood with its right at White Oak Swamp, where Franklin was holding Jackson in check, its centre on both sides of Glendale, and its left, under Porter, at Malvern Hill. McCall's position was at the very centre, and somewhat advanced. On his right was, first Kearney and then Slocum; on his left, with an interval, was Hooker. Sumner, with Sedgwick's division, was in his left rear, covering this interval. Moving against the Federal position were Huger's division on the Charles City road, who threatened Slocum's front, but did not seriously engage him, and Longstreet's and A. P. Hill's divisions, which, advancing on the Newmarket road, first struck McCall. McCall was driven back on his supports. The right brigade of Hooker's division went to his assistance, and Sumner used vigorously his artillery and the only brigade at hand until he could hastily recall two brigades he had sent to Franklin's aid. They returned just in time, he says, to enable him, after a furious contest, to hold his position. Meantime, Kearney was resisting Longstreet's attacks on the right—attacks made, he says, with a determination and vigor he had never witnessed. He was obliged to call for reinforcements. Taylor's brigade was sent to him from Slocum, and Caldwell's brigade was brought up from White Oak Swamp. After the defeat of McCall, these troops combined succeeded in staying the progress of the Confederates, but when night had come the corps commanders present concluded it would not be proper to risk another day's fight on this ground, and so retreated without waiting for McClellan's orders.

Thus, instead of McCall's three brigades alone holding Longstreet and A. P. Hill in check until nightfall, there were, besides these, three other *divisions* (nine brigades) seriously engaged. Major Woodward, naturally enough, perhaps, defends McCall's division from the charge of bad conduct on this occasion, which is suggested in Hooker's and McClellan's reports, but here again his partisanship carries him too far. Hooker's statement that the "whole of McCall's division was completely routed" is, no doubt, too sweeping, and is unjust, but the official reports of every Federal officer of high rank on the field, except McCall—of Sumner, Heintzelman, Hooker, Sedgwick, Kearney—leave no reasonable doubt as to McCall's defeat. On the other hand, Lee distinctly claimed the victory, and he had fourteen pieces of artillery, taken from McCall, to show for it.

Life of Luther. By Julius Köstlin, with illustrations from authentic sources. Scribners. 1883.

Martin Luther, the Reformer. By Julius Köstlin. Translated by Elizabeth P. Weir. London and New York: Cassell & Co.

Life of Martin Luther. By Dr. William Rein. Translated by Rev. G. F. Behringer. Funk & Wagnalls.

Dr. Martin Luthers Werke. Kritische Gesammtausgabe. Weimar: Hermann Böhlau.

KÖSTLIN'S biography has proved a very mine of wealth to bookmakers and publishers. Scarcely anything in the form of Luther biography has appeared of late that was not directly based upon its researches. We had occasion to notice, some weeks since, an English translation from Köstlin's popular Life, and now appears another, claiming to be "authorized" by the writer himself. It is a great improvement upon the earlier translation, showing care and fidelity in the revision, and reproducing fairly well all the illustrations and facsimiles which gave a peculiar value to the original.

The second book on our list is a neat little volume of a hundred and fifty pages, giving with sufficient clearness the main facts in the Reformer's life. It is perhaps the best of the brief abstracts from Köstlin's great work.

Doctor Rein of Eisenach has written a very short epitome of Köstlin, designed to be what the Germans call "universally intelligible," and making no claim to especial value for the scholar. It appears in English in Funk & Wagnalls's "Standard Library."

Altogether the most important memorial of Luther is the new critical edition of his works undertaken, with the support of the Prussian Government, by Dr. J. K. F. Knaake. This truly monumental work is intended to replace all existing editions. It is justified by the great increase of information upon all the details of Luther's writings, and by the inherent defects of the earlier editions. These were generally, in accordance with Luther's own view of the matter, arranged by topics, so that it was often difficult to settle satisfactorily under what head a given writing belonged, while treatises bearing a close relation in time were scattered, perhaps, in several different volumes. The arrangement of the new edition is to be strictly chronological, Latin and German writings being thus mingled in each volume as they were in fact developed in the mind of Luther himself. Each treatise, sermon, or letter is to be preceded by a short introduction, with references to passages in which it is referred to, and a complete bibliography of its editions. The original orthography is to be preserved as far as possible consistently with clearness. The editor proposes to produce at the rate of about three volumes yearly, the whole edition to consist of thirty-five volumes. In the list of subscribers it is interesting to note that the United States appears for thirty-eight copies, Great Britain for seven, and France for three.

Watteau. By John W. Mollet, B.A. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1883.

THOUGH the name of Watteau seems to us hardly important enough to find a place in a series of biographies of great artists, it is nevertheless one worthy of considerable honor. Watteau was a man of true genius within his range, though his natural limitations and his training were such that he cannot be called a *great* artist. The love of fêtes, fairs, and gala days which was born in him as a Fleming, and was stimulated by the circumstances of his subsequent life in France, was the leading theme upon which his art played with many graceful variations. In subjects of this kind he dwelt rather upon the refined than the vulgar side. There is nothing of the coarseness which characterizes the pictures of Teniers in his designs. It is true that his ideals were largely theatrical, derived as they were from the harlequins of Valenciennes and the ballet-dancers of Paris. He was eminently a painter of the superficial aspects and sentiments of a grossly artificial state of society; but he had a true painter's eye, and in his enjoyment of beauty—especially beauty of color—he manifested a very close kinship with the greatest masters. So largely is this the case that one is tempted to believe that, had he been surrounded by conditions favorable to his best development, he might have become almost a great painter. Considering the comparatively frivolous nature of the society in which he moved, he was a man of singular earnestness and aspiration. He was never satisfied with his own work, but was always striving to make it better. With a view to improvement it was his pleasure, so this biographer tells us, to copy all the pieces by the greatest masters in the possession of his friend and patron, M. Crozat. But these efforts were less fruitful than they might have been had he known better how to direct his studies. Watteau never enjoyed wise guidance. His best impulses were received from the works of Rubens and Van Dyck, which, good as they were, could not lead to the same excellence that might have been reached through those derived from the study of greater masters. Watteau's life enforces the lesson that high excellence in art cannot be attained by unaided effort, however earnest or faithful: surrounding conditions of taste and aspiration, directed towards what is best, must coöperate. There is great paucity of accurate knowledge concerning the details of Watteau's life; but Mr. Mollet appears to have done what he could to gather and arrange in this volume the leading facts of it.

The Course of Empire: Outlines of the Chief Political Changes in the History of the World (arranged by centuries), with variorum illustrations. By Charles Gardner Wheeler. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1883. 8vo, pp. 459.

THIS book consists of a series of maps of Europe, one for each century, beginning with B. C. 500, and ending with A. D. 1883. A short, well-written, and accurate statement, in large type, accompanies each map, and introduces each division of the events of the century; and each part is illustrated by a large number of extracts, very well selected from a wide range of authors. There is also a list of dates and eminent names for each century. The maps are small, but very clear and instructive. Being all on precisely the same scale, the changes in territorial re-

lations, expressed in distinct and positive colors, are brought very clearly before the eye, so that the "course of empire" can be easily traced from century to century. The maps, of course, aim to give only outlines without detail—just indicating a few rivers and mountains and the capitals of the principal countries. It is, no doubt, the best plan to give the map at the even centuries, as is the case with every one but the last; but it will be readily seen that by this we miss some very important territorial changes, as, for example, Napoleon's Empire of 1810. The maps are, for the most part, entirely correct; we note, however, a few inaccurate details: B. C. 100, the red color of the Roman possessions should be extended over Illyria; A. D. 300 and 400, the Allemanni should be considerably further to the West; A. D. 400, the Vandals should be placed in Pannonia; also, A. D. 500, the Lombards in the same place, and the Gepidæ to the east of them; A. D. 600, the Avars should be further west, north of the Danube; A. D. 1000, Bulgaria should extend east to the Black Sea, and we are inclined to think also to the north of the Danube, although this is uncertain; A. D. 1400, the Turkish color should include Servie. Also, it would be more correct, A. D. 1, to extend the Roman color over the southern coast of Thrace, and, A. D. 100, not to have it embrace Arabia, which was not conquered until the time of Trajan.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Hero's Last Days; or, Nepenthe. Columbia, S. C.: W. J. Duffie.

Anagnos, Julia R. Stray Chords. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. $1 25.

Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon. Parts 84-90 (close of Vol. 6). New York: L. W. Schmidt.

Bryant, W. C. The Fringed Gentian. Illustrated in colors. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co. $1 50.

Bryce's Pearl English Dictionary. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.

Burk, Alice F. Light in the Darkness: a Story of the Franco-German War. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. 90 cents.

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Fine Arts.

WARD'S WASHINGTON.

THE apotheosis which precedes and founds any special hero-worship, logically justifies the idealization of its hero and a departure from the realistic type in commemorating him in art. The department of historical portraiture has essentially another scope from that which monumental art proposes to itself. We demand the last degree of authentication for form and feature in the picture or statue of a contemporary which is to take its place in the national gallery of distinguished men as a public document, as evidence which shall have absolutely scientific value. But when it is question of commemorative work in subsequent times, by men who have had access to no new testimony which could increase our knowledge of the hero's bodily appearance, the conditions of portraiture are abrogated. More than this, they become offensive to the artistic perception. Every hair's breadth of greater exactitude in Houdon's statue, every finer shade of resemblance, adds immeasurably to the value of the portrait, but if a Titian or Michael Angelo were now living, and had to paint or model Washington, we could extort from him, and would ask of him, no effort to repeat for us what Houdon and Stuart have left us of the proper personality. We should require of both of them to give us their conceptions of Washington's character and their artistic treatment of the theme; and the more sharply these varied, as between artist and artist, the more interesting and valuable to us they would become. If we want to show our descendants what Washington was like *as man*, we should ask neither Mr. Ward nor Michael Angelo to give us a statue, but make copies of Houdon's and place them in the chief square of every American city. That absurdity of the Pre-Raphaelite school which dreamed of establishing the actuality of past events and personages, instead of embodying modern ideas of them, is bad enough on perishable canvas, but in bronze and marble becomes the eternalization of absurdity. Imagine Michael Angelo going to Judæa to find a shepherd boy of the type of Judah, with muscles trained in slinging stones at the birds of prey, questioning his genealogy, etc., to get a model for his David! Yet this is simply the *reductio ad absurdum* of the pure doctrine of actualities applied to the monumental tributes to our immortals. And not only is this the case, but the higher the artistic powers of the sculptor from whom we demand a realistic statue, the more complete will be the failure of the work; for the artist of imaginative power, while he can find in the living hero all the inspiration he needs, and the character beneath the shell, is, more than any common plodder, dispirited and paralyzed before the inert cast in plaster and the suit of cast-off clothes in which he must find his ideal.

We have said enough to foreshadow and explain the opinion, which repeated examination of Mr. Ward's new statue confirms in us, that it does injustice to the artist even more than to the theme. Whoever is responsible for the attempt at actualization in the statue, whether committee or artist, is chargeable with the shortcoming; for it is due to the effort at the impossible involved in trying to get from an artist whose powers are peculiarly ideal, and whose way of approaching his subject is idealistic and in sympathy with the noblest standards of sculpture, a work on which the tailor and shoemaker of 1783 should set themselves up as critics. What we should have asked from Mr. Ward, and what alone he should have consented to give us, was not what the people who knew Washington by his shoe-buckles would have recognized, nor even what Houdon and Stuart would have accepted as the man *they* knew, but his own ideal of a man whom no one in times to come will judge by what he was in actuality, but by what success in one of the greatest of human achievements (following his own merit in part, but also profiting by the merits of his surroundings) has made him for us. Mr. Ward's failure grows chiefly out of the imposed necessity of attempting to realize a popular chief magistrate of 1783, in the costume of the time, rather than Mr. Ward's conception of a hero worthy to be the highest human object of veneration of the largest and, as Americans believe, on the whole, the most advanced of all contemporary nations. The artist's powers are equal to such an undertaking—in this statue they do not appear. It was not necessary to pose Washington in the guise of a Greek god or a Roman Emperor: his actual costume was as capable of heroic associations as those attributions; but it was necessary that we should see *Washington* in his costume, and in spite of it, and Mr. Ward has compelled us to see chiefly his costume rather than him. And, owing to the constraint imposed on his better powers by this subjection to the actualities, his treatment even of the accessories shows want of freedom and that grace which can only spring from complete liberty.

Coming to the statue from the East River, you see a clumsy and unpliant fold of mantle as the detail most in evidence. As actuality it is not true, and as grace it is not flowing. Looking at it from the southeast, you feel a certain protrusion of the left thigh and knee as if they were

about to make a step in a minuet, and the right hand is keeping time with it. This fault is purely, however, we believe, due to the evident fact that the statue was not studied in reference to its elevation, and that if looked at from a higher point of view the fault would disappear; but it is a grave one and the artist should have avoided it. The view from the south is the best, and apparently that for which the statue was studied; but when seen from a point near enough to make the detail visible, the best qualities of the *ensemble* disappear. From certain points the legs cross in an awkward tangle, which produces an uncomfortable impression, and which a Greek artist would never have fallen into, because position was an element which he would never have left out of consideration, and which the traditions of seven centuries had made a science so far as anything in art can be science. The head from a distance is fine, but too much raised for near view.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 20, 1883.

The Week.

THE selection of Chicago as the place for holding the Republican National Convention will meet with the general approbation of the party. Chicago has better hotel accommodations than Philadelphia, is more easily accessible, has a better summer climate, and is more cosmopolitan in all respects. Its superiority to Cincinnati and Indianapolis is even more decided. Saratoga is too small a place for such a gathering. If the Convention were to be held anywhere in the State of New York, this city is the only place fit to receive it. The action of the Committee in this matter appears to have been governed by considerations of convenience. It is not probable that the "local sympathy" of Chicago will have any perceptible influence upon the nomination, if indeed anybody can divine what direction it may take six months hence. Mr. Frye's resolution to change the basis of representation in the Convention was very properly referred to the Convention itself, a majority of the Northern States as well as of the whole body voting for the reference. The principle embodied in the resolution is the ideally correct one for the composition of such bodies, but it happens to be opposed to the uniform practice of the Republican party and of the Democratic party as well. The change, therefore, ought not to be made by any less authority than that of a Convention. It would be well (as the *Times* suggests) to change the basis of representation on the National Committee also. The advantage which Mr. Blaine's supporters derived in the preliminary organization of the last Convention from their preponderance of members from the Territories, was altogether factitious and unfair. The most important personage in the earlier proceedings at that time was the wide-awake member for Arizona, whose influence at the critical moment was decidedly greater than that of Pennsylvania, although the latter held the chairmanship of the body.

It does not appear that the Committee have made any change in the phraseology of the call, so as to "secure to the several Congressional districts the right to elect their own delegates." The call simply invites the qualified electors "to send for each State four delegates at large, and for each Congressional district two delegates, and for each representative at large two delegates." If this is the Committee's last word it has fallen short of the instruction of the last Convention on this subject. The instruction required the establishment of a mode which should secure the end in view. To secure a thing is to close up all the avenues to uncertainty. This has not been done as yet. The danger that any State will usurp the right to overrule its Congressional districts in their choice of delegates is, however, very remote. The resolution which Mr. Chandler offered, and which was adopted, extending the right hand of fellowship to all organizations which are pledged to free education, free suffrage, etc., is apparently intended to commit the party in some sense to a favorable view of the Mahone faction in Virginia. If such was the object of the resolution it cannot be regarded as especially helpful on the wider scale of national politics.

Every good Republican will be rejoiced to hear that the Committee of Arrangements for the Chicago Convention have decided that the next Convention will not be surrounded by the immense gallery of spectators which made the last Convention the scene of so much tumult and disorder. Accommodations were actually provided at that Convention for 15,000 spectators. Next year it has been decided to provide accommodation for only 3,000, so that at the outside it will not be possible for more than 5,000 persons altogether to witness or share in the proceedings. This will be a large enough assemblage in all conscience. In 1880 the crowd came very near either taking the nomination altogether out of the hands of the delegates, or breaking up the Convention in a scene of wild confusion. As long as human nature is what it is, it will be impossible for an immense meeting to carry on anything that can be called deliberation, or for a small body to deliberate carefully, in the presence of an immense meeting. Currents of feeling among great masses of men, when once started, rapidly acquire a momentum which no head is cool enough to resist, and find expression in noise of one sort or another which no voice is strong enough to dominate. Such scenes as marked the proceedings of the last Convention would, if frequently repeated, have deprived nominations made under such circumstances of all chance of acceptance by the voters, and have led to the contrivance of some new mode of getting candidates before the country.

It will probably be impossible, under any circumstances, to prevent the gallery from having a large share in determining the result after the more prominent candidates have been worn out and cast aside. When the moment comes for the unknown or "dark horse" to make his appearance, enthusiasm must tell and bring him to the front, and it will be impossible to confine enthusiasm to any one portion of a body of persons assembled in one room. Any emotion by which the delegates, or part of them, are strongly stirred, is sure to spread to the galleries, and anything that thrills the galleries is sure to spread to the delegates. There is no way of preventing this altogether, even if it were desirable to prevent it. Conventions will probably always, as long as the present nominating system lasts, have to be large bodies, and to sit in the presence of a considerable public; but there is a certain unfairness to that portion of the party which cannot go on to witness the proceedings, in allowing the outsiders who do attend to take so large a part in them. The candidate who can now bring most friends or followers into the building to "shout" for him, has a distinctive advantage over other competitors whose admirers stay at home, of which it is perhaps impossible to deprive him, but which is nevertheless regrettable.

George C. Gorham has been defeated as a candidate for Secretary of the Senate, and a good choice made in the nomination of General McCook. This will probably put an end to Gorham's "claims" upon the Republican party. He disappears in company with his stanch and congenial friend Mahone, who had cooled so perceptibly in his devotion that, when the time for voting arrived, he was able to make only a moderate speech in Gorham's favor. He did not threaten to bolt the caucus and take Riddleberger with him, as he did a week or so ago, in case Gorham was defeated. The conduct of the Senators in the matter has shown in a forcible manner the progress which civil-service reform principles have made within a few months. Their previous struggle over the Gorham issue lasted through many weeks, and was one of the most disgraceful of its kind ever witnessed in this country. This time a majority of them met the issue squarely on civil-service reform grounds, saying that, as they had passed a law establishing that reform, they could not be expected to violate it by electing such a man as Gorham to their most important clerical office. Even then the contest was a close one, for McCook had 19 votes and Gorham 13, with three scattering.

The bankruptcy struggle will be actively renewed at Washington this winter, and all who have the business interests of the country at heart must hope that some way will be found to reconcile the conflicting views which have made their appearance in Congress on the subject. Several publications have recently come out which seem to indicate that the Lowell bill of last year, with certain modifications, is more likely to pass than any other. Nevertheless, it may be inferred from a pamphlet published a few weeks since by Mr. D. C. Robbins, of the Chamber of Commerce of this city, that a vigorous attempt will once more be made to introduce into the bill a feature which he has much at heart—that of punishing bankrupts wherever it appears that they have been engaging in illegitimate "outside" speculation. He says:

> "A firm engaged in a legitimate commercial business, which goes out of it and speculates in other business and fails, ought to suffer a public penalty. Thus, if a hardware firm gambles in mines, a dry goods firm dabbles in real estate, a drug merchant embarks or speculates in produce or stocks, the money lost is not their own, but funds advanced by bankers and others on their notes, under the belief that they are doing a legitimate business. When they fail, the injury is not confined to the creditors; public confidence is shaken, support is withdrawn from other good firms, and workmen are thrown out of employment. Thus the ripple of one man's evil act extends till it reaches from the banker to the mechanic."

Now, what is the remedy for this and other frauds? "I say, a severe law with a highly disciplinary code. Why do you punish the

man who steals your watch, and let him off scot free who buys goods he never can and never intends to pay for?" The Lowell bill, as amended by the Senate Judiciary Committee, contains a pretty long list of crimes in connection with bankruptcy, one of which is obtaining goods, etc., on credit with intent not to pay for the same; the maximum punishment for which is hard labor for three years. Mr. Robbins's idea apparently is that this clause ought, in good law and morals, to be stretched so as to cover any sort of speculation outside the limits of the bankrupt's regular business, and he suggests the novel theory that all money used in this way must come from advances obtained by means of false pretences. But why so? It *may* be that such is the case, and then there would be every reason for punishing the trader. The crime he commits, however, does not consist either in his speculation or his failure, but in his misrepresentation of the purpose for which he borrows the money. But, if a firm or individual, engaged in the coffee business, for instance, has some money lying idle, which, owing to the condition of the coffee market, it cannot do anything with in coffee, and it takes a "flyer" of some sort in stocks, and afterward fails, there is no obtaining money or money's worth under false pretences, nor any criminal act, so far as we can see. The risks taken may be even less than the risks in the coffee business. No bankruptcy act which involves or suggests the idea that speculation is a crime, is likely to get through Congress.

In two weeks more, the year 1884 will open, and the almanac meteorologists will lift up their voices and foretell the weather, the earthquakes, the tornadoes, the fevers, the plagues, and the dynamite explosions for the next twelve months. The Theosophists, we see, are trying to get ahead of them this year, and a member of the sect has given the *Herald* the straight prophetic tip, by declaring that the green suns and moons which every one has been so puzzled by lately show that "we are just at the end of a cycle—one of the smaller cycles." We can hardly be at the end of one cycle without being at the beginning of another, and the fact is that "we are about to pass from one of the smaller cycles to another"—the great cycle—at the end of which comes a temporary return to chaos, or Pralaya. In 1884 there will be "upheavals of the sea and volcanic outbursts." This is a very meagre showing. We can add a point or two ourselves. There will be another investigation of the Keely motor; in financial circles some stocks will rise and others will fall; those which are expected to fall will rise, and those expected to rise will fall; "weak holders" will be shaken out, lambs fleeced and devoured; wolves will lick their chops over the savory morsels. In politics "dark horses" will develop into favorite sons, and favorite sons drop out because they fail to show an ability to carry the doubtful parental State; the editor of the *Sun* will be nominated by an esteemed contemporary for the Presidency, and will explain why the position he occupies at the head of that paper makes it impossible and unwise for him to think of accepting the place. The circulation of all papers will continue to increase day by day, although several dozen will suspend publication for want of support. Many clergymen will discuss the Mormon problem, and the divorce problem, and the Chinese problem, with the same effect noticed in 1883.

The Bostonians have escaped from what, to many of them, was the great horror of having an O'Brien for Mayor. What may be called the Irish-Butler ticket, which was headed by a gentleman of that name, has been defeated by a majority of 1,543. It is a great escape, though it must be confessed a narrow escape. Such a majority as that in a vote of 53,537 cannot be called a very reassuring victory, especially as there is no doubt that the strength of the O's and the Mac's in Boston is increasing more rapidly than that of pure-blooded New Englanders. Nevertheless, small as it is, it may prove considerable in its results, because it may, and doubtless does, mark a turn in the tide which will next year show that Butler has lost his hold on the State as well as on the Democratic party. It will certainly encourage the old Democratic leaders in their resistance to him, thus forcing him to rely, in his political activity hereafter, upon the labor organizations alone. The mere fact, however, that an O'Brien came so near being Mayor of the great Puritan city as to frighten the Boston people very much, is a striking illustration of the way the sins of the fathers are visited on the children, not only unto the third and fourth generation, but sometimes unto the ninth and tenth. It is largely owing to the sins of the forefathers of the New England people that Irishmen are Catholics and not Protestants; that they are ignorant and excitable, instead of being intelligent and sober-minded; that they have but little political sense; that there exists a deep antipathy between them and Anglo-Saxon Protestants all the world over; and that O'Brien is a more hateful or more dreaded name in politics than Campbell or McGregor.

Mr. Arnold's lecture on Emerson has furnished an opportunity in Boston for a good deal of criticism of Mr. Arnold himself. The Rev. Mr. Bartol declares that while "ingenuous," Mr. Arnold is still "foreign;" that the "critical telescope" "he brought over with him is of insufficient power to take an observation of Emerson; and that it is owing to the weakness of the glass that he reports the philosopher as a star of only the "second or third magnitude," a question for the settlement of which Dr. Bartol thinks some centuries are needed. But this is not especially true of Emerson. In this sort of astronomy, no judgment is final, and any one who can do so is at liberty at any time to revise Mr. Arnold's estimate of Emerson as a modern Marcus Aurelius. We may say the same thing even of Mr. Bartol's criticism of Mr. Arnold's telescope. If he can prove that he has a better glass, there will be a rush from the Arnold to the Bartol observatory. An astronomer who is undevout is handicapped to begin with, and if he has a poor instrument and keeps misreporting stars, and crying out: "Look! look! there goes Marcus Aurelius!" when in fact it is impossible for him with his glass to know whether it is Marcus Aurelius, or Socrates, or Plato, he is sure to be found out in the end.

The Salvation Army has met with great success in New Haven. Not only has it been investigated in court by a judge who has decided that its street singing is not a "disturbing noise" within the meaning of the Connecticut statutes on the subject, but it is declared by the Rev. Dr. Houghton to constitute a "problem," and the reverend gentleman has promised to preach on it, just as he might on the Mormon problem or the divorce problem. A problem, as we understand the matter, is something which excites a good deal of social interest, but as to which nobody has anything definite to propose, and which therefore permits of an indefinite amount of discussion in the pulpit, the press, and the "rostrum."

An attempt, it seems, is shortly to be made to test the constitutionality of the New England system of individual responsibility for town debts. In several, if not all, the New England States, private property may be taken on execution and sold at public auction, to satisfy judgments against towns. A Mr. Eames, of Embden, Maine, has lost some property in this way at the suit of a neighbor, and he insists that the proceeding violates the Constitution of the United States, as it is taking property "without due process of law." He proposes to carry the question through all the courts, to Washington if necessary. Should the courts decide in his favor, on this ground, it will be something of a legal and judicial surprise, because it has always been taken for granted in New England that levying on property in this way is part and parcel of the "due process of law" which the Constitution guarantees.

Another attempt, this time in Ohio, to try a prisoner, extradited from Canada, for an offence other than the one for which he was surrendered, has broken down, the Supreme Court deciding, as so many other courts have done, that such a practice is in violation of the right of asylum and also of the treaty with Great Britain. The case is a strong one, because the crime for which it was proposed to try the man was one for which he might have been extradited; that is, it was a treaty crime, and the State had obtained jurisdiction of his person by perfectly regular extradition proceedings directed against another treaty crime, and had sent him to jail by means of them. Nevertheless, it was held that all further proceedings against him must be suspended until a "reasonable time" after the expiration of his first sentence, when he will doubtless set all questions at rest by leaving Ohio. The same general view of the subject has now been adopted by so many judges that the State Department will probably have little trouble over it with foreign governments again.

Of the $62,000,000 of Government bonds called for redemption in the 121st, 122d, and 123d calls of the Secretary of the Treasury,

there have been about $50,000,000 presented for redemption within the last sixty days. A small portion of the capital in these redemptions has gone to Europe, and a larger amount has been due to the national banks, which have retired circulation to a corresponding degree. But the great proportion of the $50,000,000 has come into the market for new investment of some kind, and in this is to be found one of the causes of the continued plethora of unemployed money, which keeps the rates of interest down to lower figures than were ever known before. Moreover, capital still holds aloof from railway stocks and bonds. The latter, indeed, are yet regarded with some favor, as the last two months have shown, but the supply of satisfactory securities of this class has been limited. The expansion of the railway system, the intense competition, the continued troubles in the various railroad pools, and the declining prices of even the dividend-paying stocks, have made investors timid even in regard to first-mortgage bonds.

Steel rails have during the past week sold at $30, which is $10 50 below the lowest price reached after the panic of 1873, and is within $5 of the price at which foreign steel can be sold in this country, or, in other words, at which any protection whatever would be necessary to the American manufacturer. Of course, this is not likely to last; the price will go up again, but probably not very much. If revenue reformers by their doings had brought about this state of things, what an outcry there would be. It has, however, occurred under a highly protective tariff and in the twenty-third year of the greatest protectionist experiment. Some adequate explanation of this which will not damage the protective theory is highly desirable, from some quarter.

Mr. Blaine's annoyance over the unfavorable reception which the country has given his tax-distribution scheme is explained in a very interesting way by his friends. They say he has been misunderstood because the point of view from which he spoke has been misapprehended. The whole country regarded his utterances as a bid for the Presidency, when in reality they were nothing of the kind. They were merely the reflections of a Sage—that is, of a man who would not consent under any circumstances to be a candidate for the Presidency. Anybody can see what an important distinction this is. What seems like claptrap when uttered by a Presidential candidate, becomes pure statesmanship when uttered by a Sage. We trust the country will bear this in mind in considering further utterances from the same statesmanlike seclusion. Mr. Blaine can do a great deal toward preventing misapprehension by timing his deliverances at less critical political moments. If he does not speak again, for example, till after the National Republican Convention, nobody will misunderstand him.

O'Donnell was hanged on Monday morning, as he richly deserved to be, but not before Mr. Lowell had been instructed to convey to the British Government our disapproval of their system of appeal in criminal trials, and our desire that the proceedings at such criminal trials as we feel an interest in should be submitted to our Government for revision before the sentence is carried into effect. It is true Mr. Lowell did not say this exactly, but the reason he gave for our interference in the O'Donnell case, that inasmuch as there is "in Great Britain no judicial examination on appeal of the proceedings at a criminal trial, possible errors can only be corrected through a new trial, or by executive action on the sentence," of course would apply to any other case whatever in which a delegation of Congressmen or a resolution of the House of Representatives demanded our interference. The statement was, in point of fact, incorrect, inasmuch as the proceedings in any criminal trial are reviewable by the full bench, whenever the judge who presides at the trial certifies that any point raised at it is doubtful. All things considered, the request was probably one of the most extraordinary made in recent times by one civilized state to another living under the same jurisprudence, and it is the more extraordinary because it is the second request of the kind that has been made within two years. There is no patriotic American but must be a little ashamed to see the Executive conniving at or assisting in the attempt made within the last few years by the Irish malcontents, to treat cowardly and brutal murderers as objects of sympathy and even admiration.

The complaint made against Mr. Justice Denman, who presided at O'Donnell's trial, by General Pryor, on his arrival home, that he unfairly "put the halter around O'Donnell's neck" by telling the jury that there was not a particle of evidence that Carey had a pistol when O'Donnell shot him, has apparently no justification whatever. The remark was made in answer to a question of the jury when they came back into court after a long period of consultation. The question was, whether O'Donnell's offence could be pronounced manslaughter if Carey had a pistol. It showed that some of the jury believed that such was the case, and that they were hindered from making up their minds by such belief. We think it was undoubtedly the duty of the Judge, under these circumstances, to tell them that there was no foundation for it. No evidence was produced at the trial, either by the prosecution or defence, which left any doubt whatever on this point. Two of the ship's crew witnessed the murder, which was thoroughly cold-blooded. O'Donnell began shooting at Carey without the slightest warning, while he (O'Donnell) was sitting beside his wife, or the woman who passed as his wife. Carey made no attempt at resistance, and neither produced nor attempted to produce a pistol. No weapon was found on his body, and his son testified that after the shooting he went into the cabin and got his father's pistol out of a bag, and it was found on him and taken from him by the ship's officers a few minutes later. If, therefore, the Judge's remark "put the halter round O'Donnell's neck," it was because justice required him to do it.

The experience which the French are having in Anam strikingly resembles in some of its features that of the British in Afghanistan. They set up a new king last summer, after they had bombarded Hué and driven out the legitimate sovereign recognized by the Chinese, Van Lian by name, and extracted from him the treaty of the 25th of August, by which they set great store, because practically it gave them possession of the kingdom. He has now been poisoned, it is supposed by Chinese emissaries or by the anti-French party among his own subjects. This recalls the two attempts of the British, under somewhat similar circumstances, to set up kings of their own in Afghanistan. In 1839 they forcibly seated upon the throne Shah Soojah, who was soon after assassinated by his new subjects. In the last war they set up another, Yakub Khan, but he had soon to abdicate and take refuge in their camp. In fact, the plan of manufacturing kings for the government of conquered dependencies without supporting them with a great army is a mistake, and it generally ends in failure. In India the British usually leave the legitimate sovereign in control of the dependent states, and keep an officer at his court to watch him, and a considerable military force within an easy reach to frighten him. This assassination is a sign that the resistance of the Chinese and natives to French occupation is by no means over in Anam.

It is now nearly a month since the defeat of Hicks Pasha, and none of the dreadful things which the panicmongers in England predicted from it have come to pass, or show any sign of coming to pass. The London *Spectator's* prediction was that within one month the French would "be fighting for their lives from Gabez to Morocco." The month has nearly expired, and there is as yet no sign of any trouble in Algeria at all, although the Governor-General has asked for a small reinforcement of about ten thousand men as a precaution. The *Spectator* has since begun to hedge a little by suggesting that the False Prophet's emissaries have not had time to get around with the news even on swift dromedaries. But the probability is that the emissaries are really in no haste at all, for the simple reason that they have no very important news to carry. Every additional detail received from the Sudan goes to show that, as we said at the time, the Mahdi's forces were made up in the main of bands of slave-dealers, whose fanaticism, religious or other, consisted solely in exasperation at Egyptian interference with their business, and that, having had an easy victory over a small body of worthless Egyptian troops, they show no disposition to campaign any more. By the last accounts the Mahdi's forces have been greatly reduced, if they have not altogether dispersed, and the panic is everywhere subsiding. A recent article by Sir Samuel Baker, who is perhaps the highest authority on the subject except "Chinese" Gordon, shows, indeed, how little ground there has been for the idea that we were witnessing in the late events in the Sudan the beginning of a great Mussulman revival.

CHRISTMAS PRESENTS.

THE approach of the day which brings with it so much mingled hope and dread—hopefulness over dreams of what we may receive, and dread at the thought of what we shall have to give—seems to make a few reflections on the subject of Christmas presents appropriate and, it may be, consolatory.

Christmas brings with it so many associations of all kinds, that it is difficult to guess exactly what we should think of the festival if it were simply a day set apart for giving and receiving presents within the limits of the family. This is what Christmas presents mean nowadays, for though no one is bound to confine them to these limits, they are for practical purposes strictly observed. With ninety-nine persons out of a hundred, the toil and fatigue and responsibility involved in the selection of presents for the considerable number of persons to whom they must of necessity be given, is sufficient to weary them with the task before they have completed it; and when it comes to the turn of the old friends and school and college mates—to whom in the course of the year we often think, in the fulness of our hearts, how pleasant it would be to give something at Christmas—we usually fall back on Christmas cards, which constitute one of the most precious and at the same time inexpensive contributions of these latter days to the neglected cause of sentiment.

There are two serious difficulties which arise in everybody's mind, in connection with Christmas presents—to know how much to spend, and to know what to get; and the latter branch of the subject is the one which, in the United States at least, is much the more serious of the two. Few people who give presents at all would find half the trouble or annoyance in the matter that they do, if they had once a year to draw a check for a certain amount which they could afford to spend on such an object, and hand it to an agent to distribute among the "beneficiaries." This is exactly what most people do, or did until within a few years, in the case of what they gave for charity, and there never was anything in Christendom so popular, in its way, among the best people, as a charitable subscription list. But the charitable method will not do at Christmas. You have got to give a certain amount of time and thought to what the person to whom you give your present wants. There is probably in a selfish world like ours nothing more intensely irksome than this sort of responsibility. You may, of course, to a certain extent, give your friends merely what you like yourself. This is done every Christmas by very estimable people. You may, if you are a girl, for instance, give your father one of those nice plush chairs in which you look, when seated before the fire over five o'clock tea, so pretty and picturesque, but in which the old gentleman, could he sit at all, would look and feel singularly uncomfortable; or you may, if you are a boy just growing up, with a taste for firearms, present the old man with a bull-dog pistol. Or, better still, you may procure yourself a good deal of innocent pleasure by giving a present of a sort which enforces a moral lesson. Everybody who has read Miss Edgeworth remembers the story of the little child who gets, as a present from his kind mamma, one of those noble colored vases which have from time immemorial made brilliant the windows of apothecaries' shops, only to find on taking it home that it is all a fleeting show, the illusion of which disappears when the contents are poured out and the light removed from behind it. This, however painful to the boy, shows him very neatly how to discriminate between the true and the false in nature and art. So, at Christmas, every body has known of presents given as little reminders that the lives of great men are always marked by industry and application—books, when what we long for is skates and a sled; or a microscope or electrical machine, when what we have dreamt of for months has been neither more nor less than that most delightful of all gifts to boy or man—hard cash. The unwillingness to give presents in the form of money does not come really from any supposed general unwillingness to receive money, but partly from the fact that, except with children and savages, a present in this form, to look well, has to be rather larger than if we give money's worth, and in great measure because people are unwilling to relinquish the right of selecting for you what you are to receive. Alas, alas, how little altruistic the best of us are, even at the most altruistic season of the year, if we will not, in giving Christmas presents, first think of the pleasure of the receiver rather than the gratification of our own whims and self-love in giving.

The reverse of this is to be found among the receivers, who are, it is hardly necessary to say, neither more nor less selfish than the givers. Does not everybody know some one whom it is impossible to really please with any gift, simply because the person in question has not had the selection of it, yet who would still be displeased, even if that were the case, with the result? Such persons we have known among the very best of their respective sexes—the salt of the earth in every other respect, but absolutely unappeasable as to presents.

The family limits constitute another difficulty about present-giving at Christmas, which every one must feel. If the exact degree and proportion of family affection in every little circle could be manifested in the presents given—if this rule could be introduced as the latest Christmas "novelty"—there would be a great deal of excitement and amusement in many a family circle over the result. But bad passions would also be aroused, and probably the festival itself would not long survive the change. For ourselves, much as we like the opportunity which Christmas affords, and fond as we are of the old holiday, we confess to sometimes regretting that any special day in the year should be set apart for present-giving. Do not most generous and considerate natures feel as to this somewhat as no one fails to feel sometimes with regard to wedding presents—that our lives would be richer and fuller and more spontaneously generous if no day were set apart at all and there were no laws on the subject, but every one gave just as some denominations of Christians pray, only when the act represented a genuine sentiment—the desire to benefit the receiver—and not a custom covering all kinds of hypocrisy, and hardness of heart, and selfishness? Ought not sentiment to be entirely freed from the shackles of custom? Why should days be set apart for its exhibition? Many a time in the course of the year have we reflected what presents we would make and at what odd and unexpected times; how charmed and surprised the receiver would be; how his heart would bubble over with gratitude as he opened the package and recognized with amazement how generous, how unsparing of our limited means we had been! Yet we must admit, as we have already said, that there is something which interferes with our introducing the pleasant innovation of occasional giving. Why do we stay our hand on its way to our pocket? Is it because the fiend within us whispers, Put it off till Christmas? But when Christmas comes, for some reason we fall into the old rut, and stay the qualms of conscience by posting a card, receiving one most probably by the mail which takes our own—for it is one of the marvels of Christmas how nicely proportioned what every Christian receives is to what he gives.

A RADICAL REMEDY FOR POLYGAMY.

THERE appears to be a general determination to try anything which the Constitution will permit in order to put an end to Mormon polygamy. Some people, including one or two clergymen, indeed, seem disposed to try things which the Constitution will not permit, such as sending troops to dragoon the Mormons into monogamy, in the old-fashioned Louis Fourteenth style. Of course, however, the sober second thought of the American community will allow nothing to be done which humanity and reasonableness, as well as the principles of our Government, do not sanction, however determined it may be that a self-governing polygamous community shall not be permitted to exist in the centre of the Union. What is most curious in the anti-polygamy agitation thus far, however, is that the remedies proposed are so mild, and so likely to be ineffective, that, coming after the ferocious denunciations of polygamy which we so often hear, they sound sometimes a little ludicrous. The polygamist, for instance, after being reprobated almost as if he were a wild animal, is then threatened with some such penalty as a constitutional amendment forbidding him to have more than one wife, or with the loss of his vote, or of a seat in the Legislature; as if a man who greatly cared about these things would be a Mormon at all. The great difficulty of the Mormon problem lies in the fact that the Mormon people are not eager to share in our political privileges, defy our public opinion, contemn nearly all the sanctions by which our domestic morality is enforced, and wish of all things to be let alone by us.

The subject of prevention has now, however, taken such a strong hold of the popular mind, that a series of legislative experiments has been entered on which will probably not cease until some decisive result has been reached. It is in the highest degree desirable, however, that this process of experimentation should be as short as possible, or, in other words,

that too many remedies should not be tried. In making laws about the matter, we ought, in truth, to go to the root of the difficulty at once. No Mormon can commit polygamy without the aid of at least two women, and those who wish to be thorough, should, it seems to us, go to work at once to cut off the supply of women from the Mormon community. A few years ago this would have seemed, perhaps, a startling absurdity, but it cannot be so considered since the anti-Chinese legislation which has been resorted to on the application of the people of the Pacific coast. Under that we have actually undertaken to exclude from the United States the inhabitants of a great empire for no better reason than that they worked for too small wages, and that their standard of living was low. The principle of excluding foreigners as a remedy for social or political evils having been thus deliberately adopted, the principal argument against applying it to the destruction of polygamy seems to be overturned. The foreign population of Utah amounts, in round numbers, to 44,000, out of a total of 143,963, and is about equally divided between the two sexes. The census does not tell us what proportion the Gentiles bear to the Mormons, but it is almost certain that the foreigners are mostly Mormons, and that it is through the ingress of foreign women that the institution of polygamy is kept up. There is a good deal of suggestion and instruction to be found in an examination of the sources from which the supply comes. The great body of foreign Mormons come from England, Scotland, Wales, Denmark, Sweden and Norway. England has supplied, in round numbers, 20,000 of them; Scotland, 3,200; Wales, 2,400; Sweden, 3,750; Denmark, 7,791; Norway, 1,200; Ireland, 1,300. About the character of this British and Danish contribution there is very little doubt: both the men and women belong to a low, ignorant peasant class. The same thing is true, though probably in a less degree, of the Scandinavian contribution. Now, what is the objection, constitutional or other, to preventing absolutely the entrance into the Territory of alien women of this class for as long a period as may be necessary to reduce the supply so low that polygamy would perish through the mere lack of materials? The enforcement of such legislation, too, would be very simple. No disguise is possible for foreign female immigrants. The points at which they could enter the Territory are not numerous. The women who are already in the Territory, whether native or foreign, can easily be registered and identified; from all others passports might be exacted and expulsion follow the failure to produce them, in any case in which the frontier had been passed without detection.

All this, we admit, sounds a little grotesque, but the whole Mormon question is grotesque. Nothing can be odder than that the American people, considering what its history and antecedents have been, should, in the hundredth year of the national existence, be puzzling over the best mode of getting rid of a polygamous community living under a sacerdotal government. In dealing with such a community many of our most cherished political habits and traditions have necessarily to be cast aside. A polygamous Mormon household is a thing of itself so archaic and un-American that it cannot be got rid of by modern American remedies. The treatment of it has to be, as it is itself, somewhat Oriental. In short, we must tell a man who wants too many wives that we will not let him have any women.

THE JUDGE AND HIS DRESS.

THE suggestion made by the Bar Association, or some of its members, that the judges of the Court of Appeals should, on taking possession of their new court-room in the Capitol, adopt robes as their regular costumes, does not seem to attract much hostility in any quarter. Even the *Sun*, which can smell a monarchist as far as most papers, declares, after pondering the matter for some time, that a costume that has always been worn by the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States is hardly open to criticism on the score of being undemocratic. This is itself a good sign for those who have this little piece of æsthetico-judicial reform in hand, inasmuch as the great obstacle in the way of introducing any official costume for any class in the United States is the feeling that, innocent as it may look, it is really an "entering wedge" of the monarchists—a party which is, of course, all the more dangerous in a republic like ours because it does not avow its objects, or ever call any primaries, or mass-meetings, or hold conventions, or set up a press, but apparently consists of a number of wealthy people who like Europe more than they do their own country, and are therefore presumably engaged in a plot to substitute European for our own institutions. To judge by the sort of conversation in which American monarchists indulge, when they are quite safe and alone, it would be just like them to begin to undermine the Constitution by agitating for a return to the custom of the President's wearing ruffles, and addressing Congress in person, or to the judges going on circuit in a coach-and-four instead of by rail, or any other quaint little bit of social bric-à-brac of this sort. When liveries were first put on American footmen, when the railways and the post-office first adopted a uniform, the anti-monarchist press of the United States was quick, if we remember right, to sound the cry of alarm, and expose the nature of the designs which lay behind the apparently innocuous innovation. It is therefore very satisfactory to find a Republican organ like the *Sun* frankly admitting that republics after all are not overthrown in this way, and that, therefore, the bench of judges listening to points and authorities brought to their notice by counsel, though it may be more impressive, will certainly not be any fuller of peril to our institutions if the judges are clothed in long black gowns, instead of the ordinary sack or frock coat of the citizen.

The modern judge's costume is part and parcel of the modern judge, and the only objection that we can think of to the proposed change is that in the Court of Appeals more dignity and impressiveness are hardly needed, and that in the courts where these qualities are often sadly lacking—in this city, for instance—there would be small chance of gowns being adopted, or of their having much effect if they were adopted. We have known, for instance, a good deal of trouble among some New York entertainers of a visiting lawyer caused by his expressing a desire to see a New York police court. When they thought of the magistrate whom the guest would not only see, but with whom he would probably be invited to sit upon the bench; when they thought, too, of the general want of decency and decorum he would be likely to witness, the jocular and even burlesque tone given to the proceedings by the judge, and the indifferent and reckless routine by which the cases would be disposed of, they were in a good deal of a quandary as to what they had better do, and it was finally suggested in despair, and to save the credit of our institutions, that the visitor might be taken into the United States Circuit Court, and be informed that this was what corresponded to a police or magistrate's court in other countries.

As a general rule, American State courts of last resort are dignified bodies as it is, because they do not engage in the trial of cases. The judges merely sit and hear arguments upon "points." Beyond the enforcement of a few simple rules, which are generally matters of routine, as to length of time occupied in argument, the right to open and close, etc., they have nothing to do, and need not open their lips. Even their decisions are generally "handed down," not read; and while hearing cases they are not even called upon to ask questions of counsel. We have never heard the Court of Appeals complained of for want of dignity. It is in courts which not only engage in deciding points of law or fact reserved from a trial, but sit, with or without juries, to try cases, that the absence of dignity, decorum, and sometimes decency is most noticeable, because it is in them that the hottest passions are aroused; clients, witnesses, and their friends being all present and full of fight. To preserve order and dignity in a court-room of this kind is a serious matter for any judge, and it is the misfortune of our system of electing judges that to preserve his popularity and keep on the bench the judge is always made to feel that he must keep on the safe side of everybody; every one in court who is fighting before him having a voice in saying whether he shall stay on the bench. That a long gown would give a judge of a trial-court under these circumstances a sort of Dutch courage to maintain, in some cases, a greater degree of dignity, may possibly be. But the reformers who have taken the matter up ought not to overlook the fact that it is such courts as the Supreme, the Superior, the City, the Police Courts—that is, trial-courts all over the country—which need all the aid that clothes can give them, far more than such a tribunal as the Court of Appeals.

BARRISTERS AND ATTORNEYS IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, December, 1883.

WE are interested to perceive by your newspapers that the visit of the Lord Chief Justice has revived in the United States the considera-

tion of the respective merits of the English and American systems of the organization of the legal profession. The matter well deserves to be weighed; but those who on your side suppose that Lord Coleridge, or any other single person, however influential, could bring about any change in our English arrangements, are mistaken, for those arrangements are deeply rooted in the customs of the country. I am not assuming that Lord Coleridge has been convinced of the superiority of the American plan; but even if he were, and if all the eminent judges and barristers who have this year visited the United States agreed in such an opinion, we should still be a long way from altering a system which has so intertwined itself with the habits and thoughts of our people.

Your readers probably know that in England the barrister has the sole right of audience in all the Superior Courts—that is to say, in the High Court of Justice, the Court of Appeal, the House of Lords, and the Privy Council—as well as in the old local courts of record, some of which still survive. His services are supposed to be purely honorary, and therefore he cannot be sued for negligence in the conduct of legal business, however serious the loss which his negligence may cause to his client, while for the same reason he cannot recover his fees by process of law, not even if he has made an express bargain regarding the remuneration to be given him. He is not permitted to enter into a partnership either with an attorney or with another barrister, nor does he receive business direct from a client, but only (with certain not very important exceptions) through the intervention of an attorney. His position is, therefore, both worse and better than that of an American lawyer—worse, in that he depends entirely upon the favor of the attorneys, and cannot get on except by being known to them; better, in that he is supposed to have a somewhat higher social status, is not liable to pay damages for any mistakes he may commit, and is relieved from some of the more troublesome parts of a lawyer's duties. Among these last must be reckoned the getting up of a case for trial, examining accounts, inspecting documents, collecting evidence, seeing the witnesses.

American lawyers find it hard to understand how a case can be properly conducted in court by a counsel who sees the witnesses for the first time when they step into the box. They fancy that he must find it difficult to examine them properly, must omit some material points and stray on to dangerous ground by putting questions which had better have been let alone. They conceive that there must be considerable loss of time, waste of power, and general risk of inaccuracies and mistakes when the collection and presentation of a large mass of facts are divided between two sets of persons—a firm of attorneys and a senior and junior counsel. These difficulties are much less felt in English practice than any one unfamiliar with it could suppose: partly because they apply equally to both sides in a contested case, partly because our counsel acquire a practical dexterity in handling witnesses which enables them to guess pretty correctly what it is safe and what it is unsafe to ask a witness. Sometimes, no doubt, there is a miscarriage of justice, but there are also advantages in having the case presented by a person who brings a fresh mind to it, and who has not become too much identified with the client and the client's ideas and feelings, as a zealous attorney is apt to be. Even supposing, however, that the American plan is better calculated to bring the whole matter fairly before the court, and admitting that it ought to be more economical of money and time than the English, it by no means follows that it is likely to supersede that which has been so long established among us. Let me attempt to indicate the obstacles to a change.

There are three classes of persons by whose exertions a change might be brought about—the public, the attorneys, the barristers. Is any of these three classes likely to desire the fusion of the two branches of the legal profession into one, or, if it has such a desire, likely to be able to effect it?

The public can of course do what it likes, for England is a free country. But the public does not understand the matter. It is, and with good reason, afraid of the law and the lawyers, for a man has to pay very dear with us for any dealings in that quarter. Our system of procedure and the means of setting it in motion are still so complicated that few people know exactly how business is divided between the attorney and the barrister, or could estimate the advantages of uniting their functions in one person. A lay reformer, a man who attacks the matter from outside, would be apt to be tripped up somehow by the lawyers, who would expose his ignorance of technicalities. And the gain to the community is one which seems, to the mind of an ordinary man, too remote to be worth fighting for. You could not get up any political excitement about it, or put pressure on members of Parliament to vote for it.

As regards the attorneys (or, as they are now more frequently called, the solicitors) the case is different. Not only do they know all about the matter, but they have a distinct interest in placing themselves on a level with the bar, for by doing so they would not only improve their status (though the line between the two branches is far less marked than formerly), but would obtain access to larger incomes, more opportunities of distinction, and to the highest judicial office. (An individual attorney can of course become a barrister, but to do so he must cease to be an attorney, and lose several years in the process.) Stimulated by this prospect, several active and ambitious men among the attorneys have of late years mooted the question, and endeavored to bespeak the sympathy of their brethren for their demands. But the profession as a whole does not respond. Those who are now in practice feel that success might not be attained in time enough to make a difference to themselves, and have too little corporate spirit to care for benefiting their successors. Many, probably most of them, are pretty well satisfied with things as they are. They know their own work, and do not seek to have that of the barrister thrown upon them. If the profits of their occupation never rise to such large amounts as those of the most famous leaders of the bar, failure is less common in proportion among them than among barristers, a great number of whom never make an income and quit the profession in disgust. They are a more conservative class, especially in all legal matters, than any other class in conservative England, and they consider that things have gone on excellently heretofore. Moreover, many of the more prosperous among them have started a brother, or a son, or a son-in-law as a barrister, and by employing him to do their court work they serve their family and personal interests just as well as if they were themselves barristers and he their partner. On the whole, therefore, there is little prospect of a strong agitation among the solicitors.

As respects the bar, they have no motive for seeking a change. Some of them may think it would benefit the public, but more will conceive that it would injure themselves. Apart from all selfish grounds, many barristers believe that the honor and dignity of the bar, the character of its members for probity and purity, could not be so easily maintained if it were swallowed up in the much larger mass of solicitors. As a comparatively small body, centralized in London (for seven-eighths of the practising barristers reside there), it can be made amenable to rules of professional etiquette, which serve to keep it out of temptations that are daily increasing as the bribes which wealth can offer for unprofessional conduct are always growing larger. The solicitors are, as a rule, respectable men, and any grave dereliction from duty among them is pretty promptly dealt with and punished by the judges, on the application of their central organization, the Incorporated Law Society. But they are removed from direct contact with the courts by the right of the barristers to exclusive audience, and they have much less direct power in Parliament, and through Parliament on politics, than have the barristers. It is, therefore, argued that both the judiciary and the legislature can be more easily preserved from the assaults of rich and unscrupulous men or cliques, if two sets of persons, first the barrister and then the attorney, are interposed between the courts and Parliament, on the one hand, and the dangerous influences on the other. It is also argued that it is easier to maintain a high level of professional learning and sagacity among the comparatively small number of leading barristers than it would be if the business which they conduct were scattered through the much greater number of persons who would probably share it were the distinction between the two branches removed.

These arguments may seem speculative and far-fetched. They are used by persons of a speculative turn of mind, because the proposal to fuse the two branches has not yet entered the arena of practical politics. Were it now raised, it would encounter much opposition from the barristers, who are strongly entrenched in English society. It would have little chance of being carried at present. But the process of democratizing our political institutions, which is going on fast, and seems likely to go on still faster, will involve sooner or later a democratization of other institutions likewise, and then the dislike of privileged classes, and the tendency towards what is called simplicity and equality, will threaten the pretensions of the bar. Nor must it be forgotten that there is among our people a sullen, silent discontent with the expensiveness of law, which makes wise men prefer injustice to litigation. If once the public are persuaded that the abolition of bar privileges would lead to the cheapening of all kinds of legal business, they would begin to desire it and insist on having it. Whether the experience of America proves that such a cheapening would really result, is a point on which we are still insufficiently informed. In New York, at any rate, we are told that litigation is as costly as in London.

AN ENGLISH LAWYER.

THE GOVERNMENT OF IRELAND.

DUBLIN, December 1.

THE interests and events of every day so forcibly claim attention, that we are too much tempted to devote our time to their consideration. But the province of correspondence such as this should be rather to give the causes which underlie passing incidents and developments. I therefore propose briefly to draw the attention of your readers to the Government of Ireland, general and local.

The Government of Ireland is practically in the hands of a Lord Lieutenant and Chief Secretary, appointed by the Ministry in England, and retiring from office with them. These two governors are assisted by a Privy Council of 52 members. This Council, whose numbers are less

ened from time to time by deaths, and kept up by the retention upon its roll of past Chancellors and Chief Secretaries, and certain of the judges, is permanent in its constitution and traditions. Its deliberations are private. The staff through which it works, from the Under Secretary downward, is also permanent. Liberal and Conservative ministers may rotate in office and send over their Lord Lieutenants and Chief Secretaries, but the instruments by which these men work, the persons through whom they are likely to be advised as to the condition and wants of the country, continue permanent. The Under Secretary, Thomas H. Burke (an Irish Catholic), so foully assassinated by the Invincibles, practically held the strings of Irish administration in his hands through many ministries. The Privy Council of Ireland consists at present of the Prince of Wales and Duke of Cambridge, the Protestant Archbishops of Armagh and Dublin, the Lord Chancellor, fifteen noblemen from Dukes to Lords, fifteen past Chief Secretaries, Lord Chancellors, etc., fourteen judges and law officers of the Crown, two past and one present commanders of the army in Ireland. You may suppose Ireland is rid of Mr. Forster, perhaps the most unpopular British official in Ireland in our time. Not at all. He is still in the Irish Council, and, whatever the etiquette may be, he has as much right to advise and vote as Mr. Trevelyan himself. The judges and law officers have thus the administration of laws and regulations and the ordering of prosecutions and proclamations; and are supposed to be able to decide fairly as to bringing individuals and societies within the cognizance of the law, and then, with unbiassed minds, to sit in judgment upon them. The judges who, without the intervention of a jury, relegated Mr. Davitt and Mr. Healy to six months' imprisonment last spring, were members of the Council which must have approved and ordered their prosecution.

The Lord Lieutenant and Privy Council, through the Commander of the Forces, regulate the movements of the troops in Ireland. Through an Inspector General they direct the army of 12,000 armed police. Through a "Local Government Board" of three persons they control the Poor-law guardians. Through a "Board of Public Works" of three persons they control the management of public works and public loans. Through a "Prisons Board" of two persons they control the prisons. Through a "Board of National Education" they to a considerable extent control Irish education. Through a paid "resident magistracy" they control the justices of the peace, the magistracy upon which in most other English-speaking countries is thrown the sole administration of the local laws. These justices of the peace are appointed by the Lord Chancellor, of course with the Lord Lieutenant's approval, upon the recommendation of the noblemen, Lords Lieutenants of counties. The magistracy is almost entirely Protestant. (I cannot lay my hands at present upon the Parliamentary return in which their religious professions are set forth That such returns are freely granted is an earnest that the Government does not object to light being let in on such questions.) The Lord Lieutenant and Privy Council, through "boards," control Drainage, Fisheries, Surveys, Petty Sessions Clerks, Lunatic Asylums, Dublin Hospitals, Endowed Schools, Charitable Donations, Public Records, Loan Funds, General Registry, Statistics, etc., etc., etc. You can imagine what an army of officials is necessary for such a system of control. It is officered in its higher ranks largely by army officers, by English and Scotch, mostly Protestants, and by a few Irish, shading down into a rank and file of Irish Catholics in those grades where it is to be presumed the Government does not think it necessary that great dependence need be placed. All the really important offices are held by Protestants—the Lord Lieutenant, his Private Secretary and Assistant Secretary, the Chief Secretary (who is also President of the Local Government Board), the Under Secretary, the Commander of the Forces, the Vice-President and Secretary of the Local Government Board, the Chairman and Secretary of the Board of Works, the Secretary of the Post-office, the head of the Criminal Investigation Department, the Inspector-General and Deputy Inspector-General, who command the constabulary. I think I am correct in stating that all these gentlemen are also English or Scotchmen. I do not say that Catholics and Irishmen are deliberately excluded from this army of Castle officialism which governs Ireland. So far as the magistracy is concerned, I have reason to know that in some parts of the country, at least, every effort has been made to put on every eligible Catholic. I know many Catholic magistrates who cannot have been chosen for any other reason but that they are Catholic.

It is, however, striking, and suggestive of the incubus which has hitherto weighed on the advance of Catholic Ireland, that for the most part Protestants are by Government considered best fitted for offices of trust under the state in Ireland. The tightest hand is kept over this army of officials, and the action of their relations and of their families and friends regarding public affairs is largely influenced. From the moment a man enters the Government service in Ireland he and his relatives who are seriously interested in his advancement, are bound over at least to neutrality on public affairs. An Anthony Trollope, addressing public servants in Ireland on their duties as citizens, would not be tolerated for a moment; unless in a dilettante literary way, an Irish Government employee must be careful how he speaks of Ireland. Mr. Fottrell's case was strikingly in point. A solicitor in good practice, of unimpeachable character, of warm Irish sympathies, he accepted the post of solicitor to the Land Commission mainly, it is to be believed, from a desire efficiently to work the Land Bill for the benefit of his country. He had, however, the temerity to issue from his office a pamphlet urging upon the Irish farmers to avail themselves of the benefits of the act, partly upon the ground that it was the crowning of the work initiated by Parnell and Davitt; and was thereupon compelled to abandon his situation and resume his private practice. I know of but one official who, while a loyal subject, and loyally serving the Government, holds independent opinions upon Irish politics, and he dares not declare them openly, and runs considerable risk in expressing them at all. Besides official, constabulary, and civil Government employees, there are in Dublin alone nearly 400 military officers in permanent residence and employ. The Lord Lieutenant, the Chief Secretary, the Privy Council, and these Boards of course work within powers given by acts of Parliament. They are, however, under coercion acts of one kind or another, generally in force in Ireland, practically supreme; and we all know to what extent the effect of laws depends upon their administration.

There was no malevolent design in this scheme of government. It was inspired to a considerable extent by a desire to save the Catholic majority from being trampled upon as it was of old by the Protestant minority. The Government, unable or afraid because of its dependence upon British Protestant feeling, to let the Catholics take care of themselves, has sought to manage almost everything itself. Understand that this system, as a rule, works absolutely independently of public opinion in Ireland. As a speaker put it the other day, "What would be thought of a Governor of England, or say of a Prime Minister, who could not only not be returned to Parliament by English constituents, but who would not dare to show his nose before a public meeting in the country except when guarded by soldiers or military police; . . . a Privy Council, not one of whom, from Earl Spencer down to the lowest on the list, would have a ghost of a chance in eight out of every ten Irish constituencies, even with our present limited franchise, against the humblest follower of Mr. Parnell?" However liked a man may be by the mass of the Irish people, he can find no place in that system through their confidence. However hated and unpopular, he is sustained in his position so long as he is considered a useful instrument. The good will of those who pay him is of little account to an Irish Government official. The other day I heard a Government official publicly declare in a street car that, "If we Irish were swept into the sea by England there was not another nation but would say she did right." I have before me a book entitled 'Pictures from Ireland,' by Terence McGrath, which, after appearing in an English society journal, was published in a collected form in 1880. In a series of papers on "An Irish Landlord of the Old School," "A Parish Priest," "An Agitator," "A Home Ruler," "An Orangeman," "A Successful Shopkeeper," every phase of Irish country life is reviewed in an arrogant and contemptuous spirit. All right and proper, perhaps, as holding up a magnifying mirror to our faults and shortcomings. But it was scarcely soothing to our feelings that the author should, shortly after the publication, be appointed a paid Government magistrate, to rule with almost despotic power over the very people he professed to despise. Let me now cite an instance in the opposite direction. There is no physician in Dublin more beloved by the poor than Dr. J. E. Kenny. During a smallpox epidemic he was known himself to have carried patients reeking with the disease into hospital. He was physician to one of the large Dublin Poor-law Unions. He joined the Land League agitation, and was thrown into prison "on suspicion" by Mr. Forster. This might have been necessary for the time; but it was neither wise nor just to seek permanently to injure him or any man against whom no offence had been proved. The Government, however, thought differently, and issued an order to the Union to dismiss him and appoint another physician, thereby not only depriving him of his salary, but of his ultimate right to pension. There was a great outcry, the guardians protested, but all to no purpose; he was dismissed. The feeling, however, was so strong that even the Government had upon his release to yield and permit his reinstatement. The "Castle" gained nothing but a show of its power, and the people were irritated by their impotence to sustain a man whom they loved and trusted.

Let us now inquire to what extent Irish public opinion affects the details of Irish government. A restricted constituency (without doubt soon to be enlarged upon the English model) sends to Parliament, which controls the Lord Lieutenant and Privy Council, a number of Irish members about in proportion to the population of Ireland. While these members are from their small number powerless effectively to influence Parliament, they can inquire into all branches of the administration and worry the Government with questions to any extent. As the Imperial Parliament seek to arrange everything in Ireland, to leave no buffers be-

tween itself and the daily life of the Irish people, it has to answer for everything here. We have the extraordinary spectacle of a legislature which a century ago had enough to do to look after British affairs, at present, in addition to dealing with increased social wants and increasing complications of government, besides the responsibility of ruling one-fourth of the human race in India and dependencies in other parts of the globe, taking upon itself all the humblest and minutest concerns of Ireland. When we consider how the time of such a Parliament might be employed, it is indeed pitiable to contemplate how it is often wasted on trifling details. Anglophiles proudly liken its action to that of a steam hammer, which can alike crack a nut and forge an anchor. But who would think of keeping a steam-hammer occupied cracking nuts? Take up any newspaper during the sittings of Parliament, turn to the proceedings of the House of Commons, and see how the time is wasted. I have taken up, absolutely at random, the journal for the 30th of last July. Among some score of questions relative to Irish details, which must have taken an hour or some hours to make and answer, in addition to English, Scotch, and Imperial questions, I find the following: Relative to the seizure by a sheriff's officer at Kinsale of a bed-room; the closure of a school at Mungret in County of Limerick; the promotion out of order of certain magistrates; the removal of a police hut from one part of Clare to another; the number of Lord Cloncurry's bailiffs; proceedings at a certain petty sessions meeting in Derry; dilapidation of a house in Longford; certain drainage at Scariff; why a constable was removed from one part of Ireland to another. And is it not deplorable that after weeks and months of Parliamentary business interspersed with such small considerations, questions like the Indian budget, upon which the welfare of millions may largely depend, are shuffled through in a few hours? It is perhaps worth the consideration of business men whether it might not be possible to institute some system of government by which the Imperial Parliament would be relieved of local and petty details, and under which a common flag and Empire would not be associated with pettifogging and irritating interference with parish and county government.

I must reserve some information regarding the *representative* institutions of Ireland, county, poor-law, and urban, for another letter.

D. B.

Correspondence.

OTHER-WORLDLINESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Is not Dr. Phelps (in his 'English Style in Public Discourse,' noticed in the *Nation*, No. 962) out in ascribing to Lowell the invention of "other-worldliness"? If my memory serves me—and I think it is not here at fault—I first came across the word in Coleridge (in the 'Table Talk,' I believe, but I haven't it at hand as I write) nigh fifty years ago. Surely the inventor of a word that so felicitously fills a gap in the vocabulary of the English language ought to have the credit of the invention.

E. J. Stearns.

Easton, Md.

DECAY OF SPRUCE IN THE ADIRONDACKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of your recent article on "The Adirondack Forest," there is a danger now menacing, and even upon, the Adirondack forests much more serious than the lumbering you fear (though that has been going on in a large way for certainly thirty years past), in the gradual dying out, from some unexplained cause, of the spruce timber. In one of the large untouched tracts in Essex County, where the proportion of spruce is great to the other timber, I was unable last summer to find one tree in twenty alive, and what few there were not dead showed promise of speedy dissolution. I was told by men familiar with the county that this state of things existed, in a somewhat modified form, throughout a greater part of the Adirondack region. This dead spruce will, in the course of a year or two, become worthless, commercially, through the attacks of the worms; and if the dying out is as general as I suppose, the region will be bereft of its timber through natural causes much sooner than if a much larger rate of lumbering than the present was begun.

D. Sage.

Brooklyn, Dec. 7, 1883.

THE LOBBY AND ITS CURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article under the above heading tempts me to return once more to the charge. The lobby is the fruit of our mode of doing business in Congress, just as much as the apple is the fruit of the tree. Just as long as the public business is cut up into fragments and tossed with an infinite mass of private bills into secret committees, which, through the collusion of the Speaker, can prevent business which they do not like from being passed at all, and all business from assuming any shape which they do not like—just as long as the public can know nothing of motives, can learn nothing of public debate, and can enforce no individual responsibility of any kind, just so long the lobby will flourish and increase in spite of all that the public or Congress can do. Congress, like a flock of sheep, must either be led or driven. If its natural leaders, the executive heads of the Government, are cut off from any access, the drover with whip and dogs must do the work from behind.

Why is what we call the lobby unknown in England? Simply because the executive ministry are responsible for the whole conduct of the Government. Any signs of corruption even in private bills would be immediately brought home to them by the Opposition. The lobby flourishes as vigorously (if not more so) about our State legislatures as about Congress, and for precisely the same reason—want of unity, of system, of organization, of responsibility. These are infallible fertilizers for the production of a rank crop of lobby mushrooms. The remedy, and the only remedy, is in giving to the executive greater control of and responsibility for legislation—which is another way of saying that the Cabinet should have seats in Congress. It is precisely the interest of the lobby and the committees which prevents the adoption of so common-sense a measure. When will a statesman appear with independence and courage enough to carry the question to the people?

G. B.

Boston, December 14, 1883.

TENNYSON'S PEERAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A great deal of gush and nonsense has been printed about Tennyson's peerage. It is all based upon a tacit assumption that because a man has written verses which have cheered and delighted the world, therefore the world has a proprietary interest in him, and has the right to dictate what his action shall be in matters which really concern no one but himself. If this man had devoted his life to gambling in stocks, or even to some respectable form of money-making, or if he had been a selfish pleasure-seeker, or even if he had been an average well-disposed person, going quietly about his business, doing his duty to his family and to his neighbor, all sensible people would recognize the impertinence of giving him any unsought advice as to what he should do in a personal matter such as the acceptance or rejection of a peerage. But because he has laid the world under a great burden of gratitude for having, by his writings, made it a brighter place to live in, there is an absurd pretension set up that the proper way of showing the public appreciation of his services is to harass and annoy him by criticising conduct which is not reprehensible in the forum of morals or manners, and which he may be supposed to have well considered before pursuing it.

No sane-minded man will seriously assert that Tennyson's poetry is less beautiful now than it was before he became a lord, that his numbers are less harmonious, that his thoughts are less elevated or less inspiring. Whoever finds in his acceptance of a peerage a rock of offence, impliedly confesses that his admiration of Tennyson's poems is rooted, not in their intrinsic excellence, but in the extrinsic accident of their being written by a man whom the general verdict has pronounced the greatest poet of the age.

Altogether there seems to be a singular misapprehension abroad as to the relation in which a great writer stands to his readers. The rational and natural view would seem to be that the benefit is conferred by the writer and the obligation is laid on the readers; and that the latter can only show their recognition of this state of the case in such a manner as will be agreeable to the former. One way of doing this is to be as willing to pay the writer as the printer and paper-maker and book-binder. In the case of the latter, no one asks whether they are American citizens; no one contends that if a book is printed by a foreign workman we have a right to cheat him of his wages; but there is a general impression that if the writer is not an American by birth or naturalization, we have a good title to the fruits of his labor without recompense. If the rash persons who have rushed into print with impertinent remarks about Tennyson's peerage devoted their energies to preaching the gospel of common honesty as embodied in international copyright, they would show their understanding of his ideas more practically and more conclusively. Next to paying a writer in mere money, the best way of testifying our esteem for him is the way in which we testify our esteem for everybody else—namely, by respecting his privacy and being careful not to wound his feelings or encroach upon his time. The mania for autograph-hunting has made the lives of many English and American writers a burden to them, and that other mania of ill-bred and half-grown American travellers for thrusting themselves upon foreign authors to express their incompetent appreciation is of a piece with the former. One can forgive Carlyle much of his atrabiliousness in consideration of the well-merited rebukes it led him to administer to this class of persons. And it is, no doubt, to just such ill-balanced minds that we are indebted for the offensive comments on Tennyson that fill the newspapers. By a mysterious dispensation of Providence hundreds of half-educated men who ought to be copying writs and leases, or collecting gas-bills, are permitted to edit newspapers, and every one of them seems to consider himself warranted in having a fling at a poet to whom the greatest minds acknowledge their indebtedness.

A. T.

Notes.

We have received from Charles Scribner's Sons vols. xv. and xvi. of their special edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' the contents of which we have already had occasion to report upon. By narrowing the margins and employing a less heavy paper, a somewhat smaller and much more compact volume has been obtained than that issued in the familiar red cloth, with a proportionate gain of shelf-room and of ease in handling, though, of course, with a certain sacrifice of beauty. A substantial and comely half-morocco binding still further recommends this edition.

But one part now remains to complete Messrs. Reiss and Stübel's remarkable work on Peruvian antiquities, 'The Necropolis of Ancon' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The ninth, which has just appeared, contains one landscape, showing, in the almost pathetic technical language of the title of the plate, "the solitary grave of a simply equipped mummy"—*i. e.*, one whose friends could not afford costly cerements. The other plates delineate, in a style of chromo-lithography of matchless skill and verisimilitude, a great variety of stuffs, cotton and woollen, whose ornamental patterns furnish additional evidence of the cleverness in the art of design and exquisite color sense of the ancient Peruvians.

Cassino & Co., Boston, have published some illuminated holiday souvenirs, of which "Flowers of the Sea" is the most noteworthy—singularly delicate prints of seaweeds, which seem the actual pressed and mounted plants rather than prints. It is only the sense of touch which can readily decide. The prints are illustrated by selected poems by various authors. Not so successfully illuminated are Bryant's "Fringed Gentian," the flower employed in which seems rather the *ciliata* than the *crinita* (but it is long since we saw the latter), and the "Coming of the Birds," by Elaine Goodale. "Flowers of the Sea" ought to have a great success.

Prang & Co., Boston, send us their usual collection of Christmas and New Year's cards. The variety is enormous. The double card fringed with silk is tasteful and should be taking. Of the simpler forms we fancy most a pair of redbreasts singing a Christmas carol; while some of those of the more elaborate, which have the form of doll's fans, will be hailed with rapture by the little doll mothers who may get them.

The Forbes Co. (Boston) send us a book of samples of the Christmas and New Year's cards of Raphael Tuck & Sons, which illustrate the immensity and immense ingenuity of the Christmas-card system. They range in subject from cherubic to botanic, and some of the flower subjects surpass in delicacy and artistic feeling anything in their line we have yet seen. A miniature fire-screen which folds into a long letter-size, decorated on one side with "hips" (the rose-berry), and on the other by forget-me-not, rose, cyclamen, and yellow marguerite, is perhaps the best of the series, but the ferns of a similar card will dispute the supremacy. A series of paper boats laden with flowers is worthy of special notice, and one of bouquets inserted in cardboard (Series 964), "sunflowers, lilies, and roses," is as good color-printing as flower work need be. The figure subjects are hardly up to the mark.

We have received from Hermann Wunderlich & Co. two large etchings by Stephen Parrish, called "Evening, Gloucester, Mass.," and "Portsmouth, N. H." Mr. Parrish does good service to the public by his explorations in the province of our seaside picturesque, and his rendering of the subjects of these two etchings is a distinct consolation for the American purists who believe that an art lies in the crude exterior of our New World equal to any other. The Gloucester subject is the more fortunate of the two, but in the treatment of the water is not so happy as the Portsmouth, which also bears the New England ear-mark most deeply impressed. Both are large in treatment, but both also somewhat lack space in the distances and play in the water reflections. Does not Mr. Parrish know that the least motion in the water would render such lines as these in the reflection of the housegables in the Portsmouth subject absolutely misleading, and that such reflections as those of the black mass of the house at the right of the Gloucester are unpardonable? The perpendicular edges of reflection may be definite, but in the horizontal edges such hard-cut forms are impossible unless the water is of the most mirror-like rigidity, which the other reflections of the etching show not to be the case. Water must be as carefully studied for reflected forms as the earth for rigid ones.

The heliotype plates in the "Mountain-side" herd-book, issued by Mr. Theo. A. Havemeyer at Mahwah, N. J., are interesting not only as representing beautiful types of Jersey cattle, but as specimens of the art of reinforcing photography. Each animal's sun-portrait has been "worked over" by the artist in sympathy with her "points," and the resulting picture has been photographed anew for the process which has so many names since Albert invented it.

The double number 9–10 (vol. viii.) of the *Library Journal* is wholly given up to the papers and proceedings at the Buffalo Conference last August. These papers have all a more or less direct interest for educators, while book-buyers owe a large debt of gratitude to Mr. J. L. Whitney for his extraordinary "List of Books with Changed Titles." These changes are, of course, in large measure innocent, especially in the case of foreign works translated and published at different dates. But too many are really fraudulent, and it is not difficult to detect the publishers who have been especially culpable. The list is followed by an author and subject index. We may also call attention to the report, by the Coöperation Committee, of condensed rules for an author and title catalogue.

Ludovic Halévy's 'L'Abbé Constantin' forms No. 2 of the series of "Romans Choisis" which W. R. Jenkins is issuing from time to time at 850 Sixth Avenue.

No. 12 of the Johns Hopkins University series on Local (American) Institutions relates to "Local Government and Free Schools in South Carolina," by B. James Ramage. This concludes the first volume, and is accordingly fitted out with title-page and index. The intrinsic value of this series is very great—its example perhaps still more valuable.

A list of portraits of public characters intimately associated with the State of New Hampshire, and preserved either in the State-house at Concord, or the art gallery at Dartmouth, or at Phillips Exeter Academy, is given in the *Granite Monthly* for November. Many of these represent personages of national repute and usefulness. Mr. Josiah Emery, in the same number, continues his list of New England earthquakes from 1638 to 1883. He finds the records very meagre from 1665 to 1727.

A portrait of the African explorer Romolo Gessi, with an account of the transportation of his remains to Italy, is given in the October *Bollettino* of the Italian African Society at Naples.

Two or three years ago there was printed at a private press in Oxford a little book called the 'Garland of Rachel,' containing original poems addressed to a little girl of two by a score of the younger English poets. The contributions of Mr. Austin Dobson and of Mr. A. Lang got into the papers, and gave book-lovers a great longing to get their hands on the book, which, however, will always be unfindable, since it was printed only in sufficient number to supply each contributor with one copy. But a later work from the same press, printed with the same care and with the same initials rubricated by hand, has been issued in a limited edition of one hundred copies, ten of which were taken for America. This is 'Prometheus, the Fire-giver,' a dramatic poem by Mr. Robert Bridges; and the few copies in America are in the hands of Scribner & Welford.

'Old World Idylls' (London: C. Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford), the new English edition of Mr. Austin Dobson's collected poems, differs but little from the American edition of 'Vignettes in Rhyme,' published by Henry Holt & Co. and introduced by Mr. Stedman. 'Old World Idylls' has been so well received in England that it has gone into a second edition within a month after its appearance. Fifty large-paper copies were privately printed with the book-plate which Mr. E. A. Abbey drew for Mr. Dobson as a frontispiece. The new edition of the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' which Mr. Dobson has just prepared for the Parchment Series, will contain in its notes a mass of new matter.

A catalogue of engraved portraits has recently been issued in Paris by P. Roblin (New York: F. W. Christern). It is a price-list of the many series of etchings and engravings which may be utilized in the fascinating amusement of extra-illustrating—an amusement which is no longer wicked when the extra plates are not the spoil of rifled books.

Those who think that the drama is the department of literature in which the French most excel, and who have been in the habit of reading the best plays of the leading contemporary dramatists, have long regretted that M. Victorien Sardou no longer published his lively dramas. They will therefore be glad to learn that he has resumed the publication of his plays. "Divorçons" has just appeared (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), and "Dora," "Pédora," "Odette," and "Ferréol," are promised shortly.

It has been an exposition year. To say nothing of the one at Atlanta, and the two at Boston, there is the great Colonial Exhibition at Amsterdam, a Retrospective Exposition at Malines, another at Ypres, another earlier in the year somewhere in France, an Architectural Exhibition at Brussels, the Fisheries Exhibition at London, the two electrical expositions at London and Vienna, and the Exposition des Arts Incohérents in Paris. Another, of a little different nature—the show of books, engravings, and manuscripts of and about Luther in the Grenville Library at the British Museum—has been the occasion of a lively controversy in the *Athenæum* between Mr. Karl Pearson (who asserted, in language which seems to us unnecessarily insulting, that the Museum had overlooked, through haste or ignorance, many important Luther documents, and had moreover made very serious blunders in the catalogue) and Messrs Henry Stevens and Henry Jenner, who defended the Museum in a fine sarcastic tone, and with arguments not always convincing.

The council of the Royal Society, London, has announced its award of the Society's medals for the present year as follows: The Copley Medal to Professor Sir William Thomson, for (1) his discovery of the law of the universal dissipation of energy; (2) his researches and eminent ser-

vices in physics, both experimental and mathematical, especially in the theory of electricity and thermodynamics; a Royal Medal to Professor T. A. Hirst, for his researches in pure mathematics; a Royal Medal to Professor J. S. Burdon-Sanderson, for his eminent services to physiology and pathology, especially for his investigation of the relations of micro-organisms to disease, and for his researches on the electric phenomena of plants; the Davy Medal to Doctor Marcellin Berthelot and Professor Julius Thomsen, for their researches in thermo-chemistry.

The meteorological observatory on the summit of the Ben Nevis was formally opened on October 17, and the station has since been provisioned with stores sufficient for a period of six months, nothing having been left undone which would secure the greatest possible comfort for the observers who are to occupy the station during the coming winter. Telegraphic communication with the outer world is now always possible by means of the cable running from the observatory to Fort William. The superintendent, Mr. Omond, and his two assistants took up their residence on the top of the Ben early in November last. At a meeting of the directors of the establishment, held in Edinburgh lately, Professor Sir William Thomson in the chair, the treasurer reported that the subscriptions now promised for its support amounted to about $25,000. The scheme of work adopted for the approaching winter is very elaborate, and the observations are to be made hourly, by night as well as by day.

There is talk abroad of transporting the Paris Observatory to some distance from that city, to a site in the vicinity of the new Flammarion Observatory. The present location is recognized as objectionable in some respects, but the advisability of removing to a new site seems doubtful, unless the advantages to be derived are very great. The Observatory has lately signalized itself by setting up a novel form of equatorially-mounted telescope, in which the principal tube is bent at right angles, and the rays of light from any star are brought, after reflection from two plane mirrors, to an eye-piece maintaining a constant position. The observer thus may be seated in a room adjoining his instrument, entirely shielded from all inclemencies of weather, while the instrument itself is, in large part, uncovered in the outer air. The new telescope is not surpassed in its optical qualities by any instrument of the Observatory, and it requires no expensive and cumbrous dome to cover it, as in the ordinary form of mounting. This ingenious construction is the device of M. Loewy, the sub-director of the Observatory, and its completion is due to the munificence of M. Bischoffsheim, a wealthy Paris banker and well-known patron of French astronomy.

—A few juvenile books remaining unnoticed must be briefly dismissed. 'Two Little Waifs,' by Mrs. Molesworth (Macmillan), is a very pretty and touching story of two children, apparently forsaken by their friends for a time, and left in a foreign country among strangers. Their ignorance of the language makes their difficulties peculiarly disheartening. The story seems a little hurried at the end. Where so much detail of trouble is given, a happy finale is apt to lack reality unless told at some length; and here the meeting at last of the children with their father is told in too few words. But perhaps nothing is more often shirked than the trouble necessary to make a wholly satisfactory close either to story or novel. In 'The Tinkham Brothers' Tide-Mill' (Lee & Shepard), Mr. J. T. Trowbridge has told of the indomitable pluck with which three young men defended their rights and conquered their difficulties. The "Tinkham Brothers" seem, indeed, some years older and wiser than people are apt to be in their teens, but we lose sight of this in the interest of a very graphic story. It illustrates the self-assertive tendencies of Young America that while the mother is supposed to be a most delightful friend and companion to her children, she for the most part follows their lead and supports their plans, instead of taking the place of guide and guardian which would seem natural to her years. Two new volumes of the "Young Folks' History" (Estes & Lauriat) are Part 2 of the abridgement of Mrs. Strickland's 'Queens of England,' by Rosalie Kaufman, and 'The Civil War,' by Mrs. C. E. Cheney. The first part of the 'Queens of England' we noticed with high commendation at the time of its appearance, and need not speak in detail of the present volume. It affords very interesting and useful reading for the young. We suppose that the editor's theory of the responsibility of the maker of an abridgement does not extend to corrections of matters of opinion. We are sorry to see on p. 162 so misleading a statement as that King Charles I. "ascertained that five members of the House of Commons were traitors"—"Pym and his confederates." The 'History of the Civil War' is also a book that can be heartily recommended. It improves as the author warms up to her subject. The first few pages strike one as being rather stiff and artificial in style, and altogether there is too great tendency toward digression and "moralizing." The story, however, is exceedingly well told, and in a spirit of keen sympathy with the objects and results of the war, if at times a little intolerant in tone. We can afford now to do justice to the aims and motives of the losers in the great contest. The illustrations are not so good as the book deserves. We find a queer and unnecessary blunder on p. 151—that "*carnifex* [Carnifex Ferry] is a Latin word which means 'villanous.'" A knowledgeful book, in perusing which the elder folk also will find themselves pleasurably refreshing their early tuition, is 'Young Folks' Whys and Wherefores: A Story by Uncle Lawrence' (Philadelphia: Lippincott). It is partly founded on a French juvenile, which has also furnished many of the illustrations. The American cuts, well enough by themselves, have here, beside the soft delicacy and artistic touch of the French, a crudeness so palpable that the book is pictorially much the worse for them. The little book is a very readable one, and many a child will be unable to lay it down before Captain Merton has arrived from his long and stormy voyage. The successive chapters are not, however, fitted together with any extraordinary tact, and the selection of topics introduced might easily have been wiser. Those about which little Annie is profuse with interrogatories are, in general, capitally treated, and more to the point, with an almost unvarying accuracy. Some parts of the book appear to have lost their originality and pointedness in the translation, and doubtless the little folk who can will do much better to read it in the original. Uncle Lawrence need have no fear lest his young friends may not find both instruction and amusement in its pages, and he will pretty surely be called upon for a second print of his little story, in which he ought to correct some of the numerical data he has employed, and which are among the by-gones.

— The interesting little book entitled with great propriety 'A Little Girl among the Old Masters, with introduction and comment by W. D. Howells' (Boston: Osgood) is rather a psychological than an art study. It is a curious pictorial record of the impressions of the Italian mediæval painters on a girl of ten, who has had no training in drawing and no art surroundings in her earlier years. It is not an uncommon thing for children to show this precocious facility for drawing even in America, and it is not, as fond parents are always inclined to suppose, any indication of promise in the higher development of artistic capacity. It is often merely imitative; oftener simply naturalistic—in American children almost universally so; and the naturalistic tendency, so far from indicating the embryonic state of artistic individuality, is a counter indication. A strong scientific bent in a child almost invariably involves a fondness for drawing of natural objects, and this is the outcome of faculties and feelings diametrically opposed to the purely artistic. A child who had passed her life in the world of art, always under the influence of works of the ideal type, such as are those of the mediæval painters of Italy, might be expected to show art tendencies in the direction of their teachings; and it is a law, illustrated by the homologies in science, that the general evolution follows the same process as the individual: the art expression of an artist child, growing freely to maturity, will follow the same development and phases as those which art followed in its growth. The early efforts of any child of true art nature will resemble, in the way they approach and follow the ideal, the approaches and accomplishments of the early art epochs. The curious phenomenon of an American child of ten catching so completely the spirit of early Italian art as has the designer of these naïve and childlike drawings, does not fall under the general law which regulates the development of an art epoch—it is a sporadic case of a tendency absolutely alien to her life and surroundings which is well worth study as a case of reversion or anticipation, as the case may be, of the art life. The drawings are, so far as the technique is concerned, really childish; but the reflection of the inspiration of the religious masters is so true that at first blush one is almost ready to hail a real genius in its early stages. The motives of the composition and rhythm of the early Italians are reflected in a most unmistakable way, and some of the drawings are true compositions, which an accomplished painter might be glad to have invented; and the symbolism and attribution are as bold and original as those of many of the great early painters, with whose vein this child's accords far more truly than with that of the Venetian and later painters. No. 13, the child Christ presenting the scales to St. Michael, is a complete and delightful picture motive; No. 17, the Madonna of the Orphans, but little inferior, and charming in the three little orphans who shelter in the Madonna's robes. No 22, a naïve arrangement of a triptych, is a good decorative theme, and now and then a delicious bit of action comes into a composition, as the angel playing on a lute in No. 3. It might be a great mistake to suppose that a possible mature art lay behind this precocity—the great probability is the reverse; but the book is none the less an item of æsthetical science peculiarly worth notice.

—We ought sooner to have called attention to the second volume of Dr. Willshire's Catalogue of the early prints of the German and Flemish schools in the British Museum. As the first volume was devoted to wood or metal cuts "en taille d'épargne," so this contains what are generally understood as "prints"—impressions from incised plates, "en taille douce." The exceeding richness of the Museum collections in the incunabula of the art renders this intelligent and detailed description of the work produced by the masters of Germany and the Low Countries up to the time of Israel van Meckenen a necessary

addition to the volumes of Bartsch and Passavant in the libraries of all lovers of that wonderful Flemish school which found its perfected development in Goltzius and Bolswert, Rembrandt and Houbraken. In his introduction, Dr. Willshire follows Passavant in vindicating for the Northern School, in the person of the master of 1446, the earliest known example of intaglio work, in opposition to the formerly received tradition which ascribes the invention of engraving to Maso Finiguerra, Baccio Baldini, and the Italian niellists; and he gives a facsimile of the very interesting print bearing this early date. A good condensation of the evidence as to previous niello work in Germany will also be found on pp 12-14. This volume is a further illustration of the liberal spirit which seeks to render the treasures of the Museum print-room accessible and available to students. No one who has experienced the courtesy of the late keeper, Mr. Reid, can help contrasting it with the narrow jealousy which guards the riches of some other public deposits. For the sake of art, it is to be hoped that the new keeper, Professor Colvin, will be equally true to the traditions of his office.

—The opening of the new library building at the University of Michigan on the 12th of December was an event of more than local interest. The friends of the large number of students at that university will be glad to learn that the rooms in the law building, which for twenty years have afforded shelter and meagre accommodations for the general library, have at length been surrendered to the exclusive use of that department of the institution for which the building was originally designed. A little more than two years ago the Legislature appropriated $100,000 for a new and incombustible library building. The needs of the University were somewhat peculiar, inasmuch as the number of students using the library is very large in proportion to the number of volumes in the collection. It has thus far been deemed impracticable to allow the books to be taken away from the building, and consequently a large reading-room was indispensable. Mr. Van Brunt, of Boston, who had the advantage of experience in remodelling the Harvard library building, was employed as the architect, and the result is probably in many respects the most interesting university library building in the country. The predominant feature of it is the semicircular reading-room. This room is admirably lighted by a continuous row of twenty-two windows near the ceiling. The reading-desks are ranged in semicircular lines and afford accommodations for 212 readers. The reading-room is separated from the book-room by the main corridor and the delivery desk, while on either side are the rooms for cataloguing and administration. The book-room is constructed on what is known as the Harvard plan, and, besides ample provisions for enlargement, affords present accommodations for 108,000 volumes. In the second story are fitted up four rooms for the use of professors and students pursuing special branches of study. These connect directly with the upper story of the book-room, and thus the books likely to be most needed by specialists are made easily accessible. In two of the rooms will be carried on the work of the Seminaries of English Literature and Classical Philology, while the other two are devoted especially to the uses of the School of Political Science. The Shakspere Library, consisting of 2,500 volumes, recently presented by Mr. McMillan, is shelved in one of the rooms, and the new acquisitions on the subject of history and political science, of somewhat more than 2,000 volumes, are accessible in two of the others. In the story above the reading-room, the special students' rooms, and the book-room, is the Gallery of Fine Arts, where is already to be seen a very interesting collection of marbles, bronzes, and casts, as well as of engravings and photographs.

—Those portions of the exercises at the opening of the library of most interest to the public at large were the historical sketch of the library by the librarian, Mr. Davis, and the more formal address by Mr. Winsor, the librarian of Harvard. The librarian reports that the number of volumes in the library has more than doubled within the last ten years. The unusual extent to which the books are used is indicated by the simple statement that the recorded number of volumes drawn during the past year reached 95,000. This number is estimated to be only about sixty per cent. of the total use of the books, inasmuch as the work of special students is carried on in the alcoves where no record of the books used is made. Within the past year Mr. James McMillan, of Detroit, gave to the University $6,500, for the purchase of a Shaksperian collection; and a gentleman who declines to allow his name to be made known has put $4,000 into the hands of Professor Adams for the purchase of books on history and political science. The books so provided, when taken in connection with the previous accumulations of the library, afford unusual facilities for students of English and of the various branches of history and political science. The Rau Library already furnished a nucleus of 4,000 volumes and 6,000 pamphlets on political economy, finance, and administrative law. Mr. Winsor's address was a plea in behalf of the preservation and the collection of books. The policy of discrimination, he said, has now been rejected by all the great libraries of the world, for the reason that what is the trash of one generation becomes the highly prized treasure of another. The British Museum and the other great libraries now reject nothing. But this policy has not long been pursued, and hence it is that no single library in the world is perfect enough to satisfy any considerable number of different specialists. John Quincy Adams thought it a matter of reproach that there was no library in America in which the foot-notes of Gibbon could be verified. Mr. Winsor doubted if there was a library in America to-day in which it could be done. Of the books that have been published since the invention of printing, not more than one-half of one per cent. are in the United States. And yet within the past twenty-five years we have set seriously to work to amass collections of books, and within the last few months the speaker had known a Spanish scholar, who had exhausted the libraries of the cities of Europe, obliged to cross the ocean to find prizes that had been brought hither from the Old World.

—The October number of the *Antiquary* contains "a description of England sent to Phillip II. of Spain" in 1686, communicated by J. Theodore Bent. As "it is presumable that is was one of the principal incentives to that monarch for undertaking his expedition," it must be regarded as a very important document. It begins with a list of the counties in geographical order, and of the noblemen of the country (earls and barons), also one of the leading ports; after these, follows an account of the military and naval force, and of the income and expenditure of the kingdom. The ports which are defended by forts or castles receive special marks, and the Catholic counties and noblemen are also indicated. Here are interesting details of information. Of twenty-three earls, seven are marked as Catholic; of twenty-six barons, the same number: Admiral Howard—we suppose Lord Howard of Effingham, whom historians call a Catholic—is not mentioned as such. The classification of the counties is especially interesting. The seven northernmost counties, and most of those on the Welsh border, with more than half of those south of the Thames, are classed as "in the hands of men for the most part Catholic." On the other hand, the entire centre and the east coast (south of Yorkshire) is Protestant, with the exception of Oxford, Rutland, and Suffolk. It was here, it will be remembered, that lay the strength of the Parliamentary party in the civil war of the following century. In the same number Mr. Stanley Lane Poole writes of Mohammedan coins. Calling attention to the prophet's prohibition to make representations of living beings, he speaks of the beautiful arabesques which adorn many of these coins, and of the abundant genealogical and historical information which is stamped on them in the place of faces and figures. Apart from this information, they possess little interest, and the writer ends with saying: "I write after finishing the eighth volume of my Catalogue of Oriental Coins in the British Museum, which has been going on for the last ten years, and I have no hesitation in saying that Oriental numismatics is a science which is interesting mainly in its results."

—The recent production of the "Birds" of Aristophanes at Cambridge, England, writes an English correspondent, was regarded by the Committee as rather a hazardous undertaking, for although Greek tragedy has now abundantly proved its power over modern audiences, it was thought very doubtful if the old comedy was equally suitable for revival. And, notwithstanding the brilliant success of the performances, this doubt has been in great part justified, for most of the fun and fooling in the play resembled a modern pantomime too closely to be very interesting or impressive, while when the satire was not of a modern kind its point was entirely missed, except by the learned few. There was no idea dominating the whole play and leaving its impress upon the spectators; on the contrary, its interest consisted of variety of incident, and its success was owing to the admirable manner in which the incidents were acted. The leading parts were all acted with remarkable power and ease: *Peithetairos* spoke his eight hundred lines as readily as if Greek were the only language he knew, without an instant's pause or cessation of vivacity, and *Euelpides* kept the audience in constant laughter by his comic appearance and his ridiculous "business." The intelligence with which every actor contrived to render his own part an essential feature in the fun of the play was the most striking feature of the performance. *Euelpides*, for instance, when he was on the stage at one time without speaking, essayed his new wings in a series of extremely ridiculous attempts at flight from the top of the altar, each ending, of course, in disastrous collapse; when *Peithetairos* came to the words "ἐπισείξω τὸν ἀλεκτρυόν," the Cock brought down the house by strutting out from the chorus group and giving a most lifelike crow; when the Priest, in sacrificing, scattered barley upon the stage, the Birds all ran forward and began to pick it up. The Birds were constantly engaged in some comical tricks, one of them going so far as to peck the long hair of the violoncellist in the orchestra, to the great amusement of the audience and the embarrassment of that worthy man. *Herakles* drank off the contents of the saucepan in which *Peithetairos* was cooking, when the latter's back was turned; and *Prometheus*, hiding from *Zeus* under the sunshade, introduced as much comic "business" as an actor in a screaming farce. These things, and the brilliance of the spectacle, and the delightful music of Dr. Hubert

Parry, secured the present success, but it is improbable that another comedy will be produced in the series of classical revivals which bid fair to become a regular institution at Cambridge.

—The costumes of the Birds were probably less conventional and more picturesque than those actually employed by Aristophanes, and their ornithological accuracy was secured as nearly as possible by Professor Newton. Their dress consisted of a bird's head with an appropriate beak, covering the head of the actor except an oval opening for his face, and wings reaching from the shoulders to the knees and enveloping the arms, by which they were moved from within. Some of the birds had long necks extending several feet above the heads of the actors; these were swans, a spoon-bill, and a gorgeous flamingo. The bright colors and picturesque attitudes of this chorus made the "Birds" a far more brilliant spectacle than either the "Œdipus" or the "Ajax." The final scene was especially striking. On each side of the stage the Birds were grouped like infantry prepared to receive cavalry, the front rank crouching close to the ground, wrapped in their wings, the next row standing with their wings stretched out from the shoulders, and those behind extending their wings into the air; in the centre *Peithetairos* and *Basileia*, seated, in white wedding garments, with *Euelpides*, *Prometheus*, *Herakles*, *Poseidon*, and *Triballos* around them, and the hoopoe at the back spreading his broad yellow wings above them all. As before, Dr. Charles Waldstein, who has just been appointed the Director of the Fitzwilliam Museum, at Cambridge, had charge of the stage management and the archæology of the undertaking.

—The veteran archæologist, Mr. F. C. Penrose, is now in Athens on a mission from the Dilettanti Society to excavate the site of the temple of Olympian Zeus, and to set at rest, so far as existing remains may admit, the long-vexed question of the interior disposition of this temple. The Ἀρχαιολογικὴ Ἐφημερίς of November 2-14 publishes an account of the results attained during the first few days of work. The plan appears to differ essentially from that of any other classic temple known, in that a foundation wall, dividing it longitudinally in the middle, has been laid bare to the length of 114 feet. There is evidence that this wall supported a row of columns immediately beneath the ridge of the roof. If this theory is confirmed by further investigation, Mr. Fergusson's restoration of the temple with a vaulted ceiling in connection with his ingenious, if a little hasty, conclusions as to the lighting of Greek temples, will have been upset. The foundation wall alluded to is apparently older than the other remains of the temple—perhaps as old as the building of Peisistratos—and extends to very near the present surface of the ground. Fragments of the main walls of the temple, a pavement of unhewn blocks, and other vestiges have been discovered at a depth of eight feet below the surface. The conclusion of Mr. Penrose's labors will be awaited with interest, especially as permission has been withheld by the Greek Government for many years.

—M. Bertrand, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, comes out from the region of pure mathematics and gives a warmly appreciative account of a man of remarkable inventive genius—M. Marcel Deprez. Like many men of great originality, Deprez, when a pupil in the School of Mines, failed to give satisfaction to his teachers, and there was question of inviting him to discontinue his studies. The young scholar offered an excuse: accustomed to follow out his own ideas, when the beginning of a lecture suggested a problem he ceased to listen, and endeavored to solve it. His qualities attracted the attention of M. Charles Coombes, an eminent engineer and member of the Académie des Sciences, who took him into his service and directed studies for which, now that he followed them at his own inclination, he showed great zeal. Deprez's first work was in connection with the steam-engine; he made important improvements in the slide-valve, the indicator, and the governor. In the course of his experiments on new methods for measuring the explosive force of powder, he found himself obliged to invent a chronograph. That already in use caused a spark from an interrupted current to record itself on the paper, but the spark was erratic and the record far from accurate. The method by which an interrupted current produces a magnet which moves an indicator, had been tried without success by Wheatstone and Regnault. The movements were too slow. M. Deprez produced a magnet capable of causing a motion of 50,000 metres a second, and the difficulty was removed. It is a maxim of his that in instruments of measure, the mass to be moved should be insignificant compared with the force which moves it; in his galvanometer the needle is replaced by a piece of iron, called from its shape a fishbone, between the arms of a powerful magnet, and measurements are taken by it in a few seconds, which formerly required as many minutes. M. Bertrand quotes a saying of Watt's, "There is no greater folly in life than to make inventions," which reminds one, by the way, of the dictum attributed to M. Bertrand himself, that all mathematics beyond Euclid is "une excroissance maladive de l'esprit humain." M. Deprez was now thoroughly smitten with the folly of making inventions. Still a young man, his reputation was already such that learned commissions showed unlimited confidence in his projects, and literally gave him orders for inventions.

—No man of science has ever been more ready to talk about his projects to whoever would take an interest in them or less eager to claim the honor of an invention when his ideas have been prematurely appropriated by others. When Le Verrier wished to explore a certain part of the heavens, he gave his subordinates a chart and said, "If there appears the slightest discrepancy between this chart and the sky, press this button: I shall come at once and I will take charge of the rest." When a discovery followed, the observers complained bitterly that they had been defrauded of the honor of making it. M. Marcel Deprez, in such a case, would have shrugged his shoulders and gone on observing. When his machines work well he considers himself rewarded for his pains. The number of his inventions is very great. He has a device for diminishing the personal equation, for measuring the velocity of a bullet, for comparing the intensity of two currents, for measuring directly the energy of a current. He has an electric motor, a machine for solving equations, for integrating, for calculating logarithms. But his greatest distinction has been obtained from his machines for the transmission and distribution of force. A fine conducting wire offers so much resistance that a strong current is immensely enfeebled; a wire sufficiently thick is of enormous cost. M. Deprez has solved the difficulty by making as fine as possible the wire in which the current is produced, thus being able to increase greatly its length. A wire in the generator fifty times longer means an electromotive force fifty times as great. At the Munich exposition of 1882, force (only half a horse-power) was transmitted a distance of fifty-seven kilometres. The commission announced the success of the experiment to the Académie des Sciences by a telegraphic despatch. Two months ago, at Grenoble, seven horse-powers were transmitted a distance of fourteen kilometres with a loss of only 40 per cent. of the power used. At the Paris Exposition of 1881, M. Deprez received the grand diploma of honor for his method of distributing an electric current. In the experiments actually made the receiving machines have been supplied each by a separate wire. M. Deprez has a plan, as yet only on paper, in which the current is made to pass on a single wire to one machine after another. When some of the machines are cut off, the current is enfeebled in the former case, and strengthened in the latter; in both, M. Deprez regulates the generator by means of a current borrowed from the machine itself.

—In François Lenormant, whose death was announced a few days ago, France has lost one of her representative scholars. He died young—before completing his forty-seventh year—but left in productions of his own a little library on archæological subjects, mainly Oriental. His father, Charles Lenormant, having travelled in Italy, Egypt, and Greece, earned distinction by writings on numismatics, ceramic remains, Oriental history, and Egyptian antiquities. François, endowed with a precocious genius and an insatiable desire for learning, followed closely in his footsteps. Before the age of twenty he obtained the prize of numismatics from the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres. He wrote on the coins of the Lagidæ, the Sinaitic inscriptions, the Anastasi collection of Egyptian antiquities, and kindred subjects. He made scientific tours in Germany, Italy, Greece, and Syria. For a time he was attracted by diplomatic questions of the day, and wrote on the Ionian Islands in their relations to Greece, on the Syrian massacres, and even on Turks and Montenegrins; but after a few years of mixed endeavors he devoted himself to the exclusive study of antiquities. His monographs and compilations became exceedingly frequent. Not a year passed without his appearing before the public with one or more learned publications on the history, religion, science, and art, or the languages of the ancient world, chiefly as revealed by the deciphering of the cuneiform inscriptions and the critical studies based on them. He was to France a kind of periodical reporter on all these topics of archæological inquiry, his summaries in varying forms being pleasantly written, comprehensive, lucid, and fresh, and flavored with striking comparisons and conjectures. His works were also diligently read by foreign scholars, and references to them are very frequently met with in the notes of the best German Assyriologists, though he never became an authority even in the fields best cultivated by him. His 'Manual of the Ancient History of the East' (written jointly with E. Chevallier, and often revised and republished), his 'Chaldæan Magic,' and 'Beginnings of History' have been translated into English. Among his Assyriological writings are 'Letters assyriologiques'—including his 'Études accadiennes'—'La Langue primitive de le Chaldée et les idiomes touraniens,' and 'Les Syllabaires cunéiformes.' He was a diligent contributor to French, German, English, and Italian learned periodicals, and displayed an almost feverish activity to the last days of his life. In 1870-71 he served as a volunteer in the defence of Paris, and at the battle of Buzenval was wounded Since 1874 he had been Professor of Archæology at the National Library of Paris.

—Robert von Hornstein has contributed some interesting reminiscences of Schopenhauer to the *Neue Freie Presse*. They are based partly on a good memory, partly on letters and jottings in

his diary. Hornstein's attention was first directed to Schopenhauer through Richard Wagner, whom he met in Switzerland when he was at work on "Rheingold," and who always spoke of Schopenhauer in the most admiring terms. Hornstein, having arrived in Frankfort, lost no time in hunting up the hotel "Englischer Hof," where Schopenhauer daily attended the table d'hôte. He saw the philosopher in conversation with the young artist Luntenschütz, who had just finished his portrait; and he was surprised at his youthful movements, his animated conversation, and frequent hearty laughter. The next day he resolved to call on him, and had an interesting conversation on Spanish, which Schopenhauer was learning in his old age; on travelling, which he insisted should be done by young people only; and on music. When he left, Schopenhauer remarked: "That I received you is due to my housekeeper, who said you were a student. If you had been a professor of philosophy I would not have received you. Professor Weisse of Leipzig one day called on me. But I answered in so loud a tone that he must have heard it: 'To Professor Weisse I am not at home.'" Some time after this, Hornstein was sitting at Schopenhauer's table in the hotel one evening when a man introduced himself to Schopenhauer as Professor Warnkönig, a friend of Fichte's (the younger). Schopenhauer's hearing being defective, he understood him to say, "I am Fichte," whereupon he exclaimed, "Fichte is no friend of mine," and rushed away. Hornstein followed him and explained the matter, whereupon Schopenhauer returned, apologized, and became very amiable toward the professor. On another occasion an American asked him what he thought of Hegel. "A charlatan," was his curt reply. He had no high opinion of Americans. "I hate Americans," he said. "Their behavior is rude, their intelligence borrowed from the East. They have plenty of money to build cities, but not wit enough to give them names, so that in America all the names of European cities are to be met with. The Englishman is related to an American as a ducat to a counter. At first sight they are indistinguishable, but ever after——. The English are a noble nation, intelligent in the highest degree, so that one can forget their ecclesiastical superstition. The Americans, on the contrary, are Jewish orthodox without the English virtues." Publishers were another class of people he did not admire. One evening, when Baron Cotta was pointed out to him, he said, "I don't like publishers, least of all those who are barons." Schopenhauer denied the authenticity of two of the anecdotes current about him—the first being that he placed a gold piece before his plate every day, with the intention of giving it to some charity the first time his neighbors would refrain from talking about women, dogs, and horses; the second, that, some one having called attention to the fact that he ate as much as two, he replied that he also thought as much as two. Hornstein thinks that notwithstanding his strong likes and dislikes, he did not, in personal intercourse, give the same impression of savageness as in his letters and diaries published by Frauenstädt, Gwinner, and others. Like a naughty child, he sometimes in his writings got so excited that he must have astonished himself on reviewing them. After his genius began to be recognized he became more quiet. To Jean Paul he was grateful all his life for having said a few words in his behalf. But his special pet was Goethe, whom he defended with the jealousy of a lover. Schiller he regarded as Goethe's rival, and was therefore, by his own confession, tempted to underrate him. Byron he considered the second greatest o English poets, and could never forgive himself for having made no use in Venice of a letter of introduction which he had from Goethe. "Do you know," he once said, "that in one year the three greatest pessimists were in Italy at the same time? Doss figured it out: Byron, Leopardi, and I. And yet none of them got acquainted." In regard to his personal habits, Hornstein tells that he smoked one cigar and one pipe every day, and used a little snuff. One day he was very indignant when he saw a laborer smoking while at work. His own idea was that tobacco should be used only at leisure, to keep the head clear and get as much as possible out of one's brain. His wish that he might live ninety years was not gratified, but the mode of his death was as sudden and unexpected as he had desired. He was pouring out his coffee one morning, and a few minutes later was found dead. In his will he had specially requested that the burial be delayed longer than usual, as he dreaded being buried alive.

—Schopenhauer's views on music and musicians have not contributed to his reputation, and are generally looked upon as a huge joke. Rossini was his favorite. He had all his operas arranged for the flute, and played them through once a year. "I admire and love Mozart," he said, "and attend all concerts at which Beethoven's symphonies are played. But when one has heard Rossini, everything else appears heavy." And yet he avoided making Rossini's acquaintance when he stopped for a few days at the "Englische Hof." "That cannot possibly be Rossini," he said to the host; "that is a fat Frenchman." Schubert he did not appreciate, and criticised the incorrect conception of the "Erlking"! Mendelssohn's compositions he considered pretty, but devoid of genius, and his symphonies tedious. Gluck he always found tedious, and criticised his music because it could not be conceived apart from the words. Music is mightier than words. To unite them is to unite a prince with a beggar maiden. Concerning Wagner he said to Hornstein: "He sent me his trilogy. The man is a poet, not a musician." Wagner's practical view of music, it need hardly be said, differed in toto from Schopenhauer's. He only adopted the metaphysical view which assigns to music the highest place among the arts, because it is a direct expression of the will, which underlies all phenomena, while the other arts are concerned with these phenomena alone.

—Three compositions made up the programme of the second Philharmonic concert—Goetz's symphony in F ("Nänia"), Beethoven's Fourth piano concerto, and Schumann's Fourth symphony. To the eye this short list looks formidable, but to the ear it was anything but tiresome. Goetz's symphony was probably a novelty to a large portion of the audience. It contains several pregnant themes that are developed with uncommon ingenuity and an easy command of musical form, while the instrumentation is quite on a level with the spirit of the time. One can never hear this symphony, or Bizet's Suite Arlésienne at a concert without regretting that both these composers should have died so young, at 36 and 37 respectively. They were the most gifted among the younger opera composers, Goetz's "Taming of the Shrew" being one of the most popular operas in Vienna and Berlin, where it is charmingly interpreted by Lucca and Lili Lehmann. The performance of Schumann's Fourth symphony was quite as full of life and feeling and as perfect in rhythmic shading as that of the First in Brooklyn, week before last, which seemed to mark the highest possibilities of orchestral execution. All the poetic charm of the romanza was brought out, and the way in which the short presto at the end of the last movement was played was exciting in the highest degree. It is worthy of remark that there are not a few people in our best musical circles who frankly admit that they would rather hear a Schumann than a Beethoven symphony. Some of these are Wagnerites, and they hold this opinion in spite of the anathemas hurled at Schumann's symphonies by one of the Bayreuth satellites. Prof. Baermann's performance of the Beethoven concerto differed in no essential respect from that a fortnight ago in Brooklyn, and deserves all the praise we then bestowed upon it. He conquered the affections of the audience *prima vista*, so to speak, and it is evident that Mr. Joseffy will have to look to his laurels.

KUENEN'S HIBBERT LECTURES.

National Religions and Universal Religions. By A. Kuenen, LL.D., D.D., Professor of Theology at Leiden. [The Hibbert Lectures, 1882.] New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

KUENEN'S great fame as a Biblical critic and historian of religion rests on comprehensive works unreprinted in this country, and not all of them translated into English. The Hibbert lectures of 1882 for the first time introduced the powerful dialectician and scholar to the English-speaking public at large. The most important results of his critical examinations in the field of Old Testament studies, by which he has become the head of the modern Dutch school of Biblico-historical learning, are here presented in an epitome charming alike for its clearness, conciseness, strength of reasoning, and cogency of expression. The notes appended give an indication, at least, of the extent and freshness of the author's learning. Of the five lectures before us, the first and last are mainly devoted to Islam and Buddhism respectively, but the author himself designates these fields as "ground which he dare not exactly call his own," and from which he "hastens to return to his own household gods." The connection between Christianity and Israelitism is his main subject, though the guiding thread of the systematic disquisition is "the connection between the universal and the national religions as furnishing the explanation and the measure of their universalism." We will here follow him only through the domain in which he is a master.

The questions are propounded: Was the worship of Jehova amongst the pre-exilian Israelites national? If so, in what sense? Was there more than one Jehovism? If so, in what relation did the one stand to the other? The problem is singularly complex. "The hypothesis of the introduction of Yahwism from without must be definitely abandoned." The philosopher Comte, by an arbitrary assumption, derived it from Egypt, but not a single student of the Israelitish religion has adopted his view. Renouf ridicules all pretended discoveries of Egyptian influences in Hebrew institutions. "From the earliest period down to the Babylonian captivity, Israel had its own national religion, which we can only call Yahwism." The sanctuaries of Shiloh, Jerusalem, Dan, and Bethel, and also the *bāmōth* (high places) all over the country—probably of Canaanitish origin—were sacred to Jehovah. The sacrifices at the altars of Bethel or Zion, or at the numberless *bāmōth*, which Amos, Hosea, and Isaiah denounced as hateful to Jehovah, were offered to him and to no other god. This worship was closely interwoven with the ordinary life of the Hebrew. His feast-days were holy days. His Sabbaths, new moons, harvest rejoicings, sheep-shearing feasts, and family gatherings were consecrated by religious

solemnities and offerings. And the people thought Jehovah to be in their midst, relied upon his help, deemed his sanctuary their safeguard, and repaired to it for oracles. The mark of Jehovah was stamped upon many Hebrews in their very names, compounded with his. From Jehoshaphat downward almost all the kings of Judah bore names thus formed. The Old Testament is full of evidences of this devout disposition of the ancient Hebrews toward Jehovah.

And yet the current conception of the religious condition of ancient Israel is widely different. This erroneous conception is derived, not from special traits, with which the most trustworthy pages of Israelitish history abound, but "from the general reviews of the popular religion which the Israelitish historians lay before us — the introduction of the book of Judges and the retrospect of the fates of the kingdom of the ten tribes." According to these authorities, the generation that had conquered Canaan under Joshua remained faithful to Jehovah. Then began the apostasy. Israel forsook Jehovah and served the Baals. Chastisements and deliverance brought the people back to the God of their fathers, but only for a time; on the death of each divine deliverer the people relapsed into idolatry. In the kingdom of the ten tribes things were constantly most deplorable. There was no faith in Jehovah; and strange gods, such as Baal and Moloch, received an abominable worship. The warnings of the prophets were not heeded, all the commandments of Jehovah were scorned. And in Judah things were generally no better. In Chronicles this picture is darker still. The prophets themselves speak of the religious condition in both kingdoms in the harshest terms, but while they declare that the people serves Jehovah in its own wrong way, that the seats of its worship have become centres of oppression and licentiousness, the historians represent it as forsaking him altogether, now and then or continuously. The explanation is easy. The Mosaic law, as defined in the Pentateuch, a production of a later date than the books of Amos, Hosea, or Isaiah, is the standard of the historians. Judged by this standard, the popular religion was anything but Jehovism. What the people had done in all sincerity to the glory of Jehovah, worshipping on every high hill and under every green tree, conflicted with so many injunctions of the later law that the historians could only regard it as equally abominable with idolatry itself, as apostasy from the national God. To inculcate the sinfulness of such practices was, besides, still the duty of the hour. And had not Jehovah himself condemned the past? Had he not cast away Israel in his wrath? "The fathers upon whom it had fallen had not served Yahweh." They must be branded as idolators.

Priests and prophets were the instructors of the people in the name of Jehovah. The priests acted mainly as judges, as dispensers of divine decisions as to right and wrong. They shamefully neglected their duty and shamefully abused their position, as the canonical prophets tell us in scathing words; but the reproofs themselves, and the ideal of the sacred calling held up to the judges in reproof, bear witness to the ethical character of Jehovah, whose servants they were. This ethical character of the national God is a trait—the great distinctive feature—not only of the prophetic, but of the popular Israelitish religion. Priests and prophets for many centuries formed special social orders. Originally the two stood in close connection with each other. Samuel united in his person the priestly with the prophetic function. But there is no trace to be found of a connection of the prophets with the altars and sanctuaries of Jehovah. Neither was the prophetic office ever regarded as hereditary, as was that of the priests. There are marked points of contact as well as of distinction between priest and prophet. "Both passed in the eyes of the people for the trusted interpreters of the Deity. But whereas the priest was thus gifted in virtue of his office and as the bearer of a consecrated tradition, and was accordingly referred to on the ordinary occasions of life, such as the administration of justice, the privileges of the prophet were more personal, . . . momentary and intermittent. The prophet is the *organ extraordinary* of Yahweh, and as such the natural counsellor in the perplexities which the oscillations of fortune or the uncertainties of the future bring upon Israel." Prophecy, whatever its origin may have been, was an integral part of the national life in the Hebrew states. The people saw in it a proof of Jehovah's special favor. In times of gloom they were comforted by the trust that the word of Jehovah would never fail the prophet.

"The consciousness of standing in connection with a higher world, of being inspired or impelled by the spirit of God, is in itself glorious and exalting. In spite of the aberrations to which it is exposed and the abuses to which it too readily lends itself, we may yet aver that *power* goes forth from its consciousness, power for the cleansing of the inner man, for the support of self-sacrifice and heroism. But if it is artificially excited and cultivated, if there is a premium, so to speak, on ecstasy, and its absence makes a man unfit for the chosen task of his life, then it becomes a very different matter. *Corruptio optimi pessima.* What is more miserable than assumed transport of spirit and pretended divine inspiration? The application of this to the prophetic *order* is too obvious to need pointing out . . . But—and here we come to the second point—might we not expect *a priori* that some few eminent personalities would rise up from the order itself, or would be fired by the example of its members, and would realize the idea of prophecy? . . . The low level of the prophetic guild, as a whole, and the degeneracy of prophecy in some of its representatives, are sufficiently obvious. But in like manner the eminent exceptions of which I have spoken are known to us from history. I have but to name Samuel, Nathan, Elijah, and Elisha. . . . The prophets whose names I have mentioned are distinguished by their moral earnestness and courage. Samuel—Saul; Nathan—David; Elijah—Ahab and Amaziah: I have only to put these names side by side to make my meaning obvious. . . . This brings us back to the ethical element in the conception of Yahweh on which we have already fixed our attention. It was in those prophets whom it had most deeply impressed, who were most completely penetrated by the stern and inexorable character of Yahweh's moral demands, and had therefore become the preachers of righteousness, that prophecy reached its full dimensions and bore its ripened fruit."

The earlier prophets relied upon their spoken word; in the eighth century B. C., the prophets began to write down the word previously spoken. "Israelitish literature dates from this century, or at all events from not much earlier." The national songs were then written down, collected, and provided with historical notes; out of these beginnings historical writing developed itself. Thus also arose—six or seven hundred years after the time assigned to Moses—"presumably in priestly circles, the earliest collections of laws and moral exhortations, one of which we possess in the Book of Covenant (Exod. xxi.–xxiii)." The pen proved powerful, and the prophets, too, grasped it to extend their influence beyond the circle of their hearers and the hour in which they addressed them. The prophet's character remained the same after he had become an author. Amos and Hosea are the legitimate successors of Elijah and Elisha—the organs of Israel's national God. "*Yahweh Israel's God and Israel Yahweh's people!* It surely needs no proof that the canonical prophets endorse this fundament conception of the popular religion. . . . The whole of their preaching takes this as its starting point, and leads back to it as its goal." They anticipate evil days for Israel. Jehovah will chastise and humble the sinful nation—but he will not wholly destroy the house of Jacob. Humbled Israel is to be restored to new life, transformed. Jehovah makes a new covenant, and writes it on his people's hearts. "But, however great the change may be, though the wolf lie down with the lamb and the suckling child play by the adder's hole, nay, though there be new heavens and a new earth, yet the relation between Yahweh and Israel remains the same." On this point, Amos, Hosea, Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, and even Deutero-Isaiah are unanimous; all stand on the ground of nationality. And yet there is a mighty difference between the notions of the people and the thoughts of the prophets; the antagonism is as undeniable as the kinship; the divergence sometimes amounts to hostility. This is surprising, but far from inexplicable.

The prophets are completely dominated by the inviolable moral law. They are the champions of the inexorable demands of Yahweh, the Holy, the Righteous One. They are preachers of repentance, and announce disaster, for the people are unrighteous. Oppression, extortion, perjury, impurity defile the land, and Jehovah *cannot* leave such guilt unpunished without renouncing his own moral nature; woe then to the guilty nation! This profoundly ethical conception of Jehovah's nature and designs brings the prophets into conflict with the beliefs of their people. The latter see in Jehovah only their protecting God, the always ready defender of his people. He is righteous, but King of Israel above all. He sometimes hides his face in anger, but only for a while. He can and must be appeased by more numerous vows and offerings. He will not and cannot abandon his people. His own honor demands his people's victory. His obligation to display his might against its foes and their gods must overbalance the demands of his righteousness and the trespasses of his worshippers. "Is not Jehovah in our midst? No harm will overtake us!" And this very confidence the prophets not only did not share, but they denounced it as both vain and sinful. According to them it was not absurd to think that Jehovah might side with Israel's foes. Nay, they declared that Jehovah himself brought those enemies upon them—the Assyrian, the Babylonian. They ascribed more might to Jehovah than the people dreamed of; but with them righteousness was his *character*, not only an *attribute;* and he *must* act in accordance with it; he might renounce his people, but could not renounce himself. The people and the popular leaders could not see this. To them such unpatriotic belief was both treasonable and blasphemous. On the convictions of the prophets themselves, on the other hand, the recognition of Jehovah's ethical character had a marked influence. Jehovah ceased to be what he was in the estimation of the people, the mightiest of the gods. He stood not only above the gods, but in most distinct opposition to them. "If Yahweh, the Holy One, was God; if he was God as the Holy One, *then the others were not.* . . . *Monotheism* was the gradual, not the sudden result of this conception." With it grew the august idea of the moral government of the world, of which even the conquering Assyrian was recognized as a blind tool. And the day was looked for in the future when the Assyrian himself and the Egyptian, his rival, would willingly serve Jehovah, and unite with Israel in worshipping him; when all the nations would serve him with one accord —though the word of Jehovah would still go forth from Jerusalem. Isaiah, Micah, Zepha-

niah, have all glorious visions of the remote future; the universalism of Deutero-Isaiah takes the highest flight—but even he is not free from the spiritual shackles of nationalism.

Not one of the prophets ever thinks of severing Jehovah from Israel. But their ethical conception of religion has modified the traditional bond uniting God and people. "You alone," speaks Amos's Jehovah to Israel, "have I known of all the races of the earth: therefore I shall visit all your sins upon you." The selection, instead of offering immunity, involves severe judgment. Isaiah's Zion is inviolable, as the seat of Jehovah, but only the remnant which repents shall escape destruction. This remnant bears in itself the holy seed from which a new, true people of Jehovah is to spring. Isaiah appears to have gathered that remnant around himself—it embraced his family, spiritual kindred, and disciples—and placed it over against the people. His separatism "is a remarkable token of the growing independence of Yahwism, a milestone on the way which it must traverse in its course from a national to a universal religion." Nascent universalism reveals itself still more strongly in the tragic figure of Jeremiah, whom we see standing almost alone, with his faithful servant Baruch, against his whole people; hunted as a traitor, because to him Zion is not inviolable. Zion, its temple, and Judah must go down; the old covenant is abolished; Jehovah will strike a new covenant with a renewed Israel, a covenant fitted and destined for "many peoples." Deutero-Isaiah's universalism embraced all the peoples; Israel, "the servant of Jehovah," is to be their teacher, their "light."

But Israel was not prepared for the task. The prophets had not succeeded in sinking their conception of Yahwism into the consciousness and life of the nation. Their activity was too fragmentary for the radical transformation they aimed at. They must have felt it themselves. King Hezekiah's measures for purifying the worship were probably the result of their own experience and advice. This reformation did not last. Hezekiah's successor hastened to undo his work. The reformation achieved in the eighteenth year of the reign of Josiah was grander in its scope. In that year, under Hilkiah's and Huldah's auspices, a book of law—Deuteronomy, "to give it the name by which we all know it"—was brought forward and solemnly adopted and promulgated. It embraces exhortations and precepts breathing the spirit of prophecy, legal statutes derived from usage or from older lawbooks, and—what is a distinctive feature—ordinances prohibiting religious service at the *bāmōth* and confining the worship of Jehovah to the temple at Jerusalem. By this centralization of the cultus—a field untrodden by his predecessors, the prophets—the Deuteronomist proposed to extinguish idolatry and make his ideal Jehovism supreme in the land. "The Deuteronomic thorah gained what its champions desired—the opportunity of revealing itself in itsmig ht, and exerting its influence uncontrolled. . . . *Yet none the less it failed.*" Josiah's death at Megiddo and other disasters allowed no time for its working and development. Pure monotheism could not take root at the central sanctuary itself. Jeremiah despaired of Zion; the Chaldean destroyed it. It was in the captivity only that the Israelites outgrew idolatry. But Jehovism continued to assert itself with little vigor among the people even after the restoration, and it was as late as the middle of the fifth century B. C. that, through Ezra and his priestly law—now embodied mainly in Exodus and Leviticus—Jehovism became completely *the religion of the Jewish people*, in a new form. Ezekiel and other priests had paved the way for Ezra. 'What the prophetic preaching had failed to effect, what Deuteronomy, the prophetic thorah, had only half accomplished, that was brought to pass by *Judaism*." The ties of nationality were now drawn more closely; the Jewish people fenced itself round with observances; separation was the watchword under the priestly thorah, and its expounders the Scribes, but the international and universal elements were by no means wanting. "The stranger that dwelleth with you shall be unto you as one born among you, and thou shalt love him as thyself," is an injunction of the priestly law. Judaism was modified in the colonies; Jewish Hellenism arose. The universalism of the prophets was imbibed from their sacredly guarded pages. Proselytism extended the Jewish community. "Judaism was by no means without consciousness of its own broader destiny." And out of it, not out of "Roman Hellenism"—as Bruno Bauer attempted to show—grew the world-religion Christianity.

ILLUSTRATED HOLIDAY BOOKS.—II.

Original Etchings by American Artists. Cassell & Co.

Sport with Gun and Rod in American Woods and Waters. Edited by Alfred M. Mayer. The Century Co.

It would have been just as well if the publishers of the superb volume of 'Original Etchings' had frankly and resolutely adhered to the pretension of their title, and limited the contribution to American artists—*i. e.*, to the works of men who, if not born on this side of the Atlantic, have received their inspiration or their education, or both, in this country. Nor would the work have lost in character, since it so happens that the best plates in the volume are by the American contributors; best not only in the sense of the most successful, which is not always the same thing, but in the evidence of the possession of the artistic inspiration which marks the painter born. Farrar, DeHaas, Gaugengigl, Dielman, and Van Elten are in no sense of the word American artists, nor have they become artistically so naturalized as to have thrown off their old allegiance and caught American ways. This is no reproach and no disparagement of their artistic value: it is simply the impeachment of any right to stamp them as American, be it for worse or better, and to include their work in a collection professedly limited to American art work. The artists named, with the exception of Mr. Farrar (who has no special manner), are distinctly European in every element of their art, as they are of birth and art education; and they have no more right here than Seymour Haden. But, as it happens, the best etchings here given are by men at least as distinctly American as Moran, whose "Tower of Cortes" might be awarded the palm, the "Twilight" of Mr. Monks being admitted to dispute his claim; and if solemnity of feeling and simplicity of treatment are to be reckoned as cardinal virtues in art, the latter may even be given the first place. In its florid pictorial way, for its masterly suggestion of form, and the disposition of its masses, the "Tower of Cortes" certainly reaches as high ground as anything we know of in contemporary landscape engraving. "Gloucester Harbor," by Stephen Parrish, is a large and vigorous rendering of a bit of home material, admirable in its way, and as simple as it is vigorous—clear and honest etching throughout. Mr. Wood's "His own Doctor," fine and subtle as a subject, is treated in the etching in a large and frank manner, which gives the old negro a pathos and human interest which the least extravagance in treatment or caricature in conception would have destroyed. Mr. Gifford's "Mouth of the Apponigansett" is a simple, forcible rendering of a homely scene, well felt, and with a dreary stretch in its distance which is expressed in firm lines, full of meaning, the distinct fault being in the meaningless long lines of the near water. The Smillies' plates are both fine in different ways—the "Marblehead Neck" in its delicate rendering of tone and its balanced composition, and the "Old Orchard" in its vigorous and luminous distance against a simple sky, with a quaint composition motive. Mr. Church's "Lion in Love" is not up to the level of other of his designs we have had to notice, and is ineffective as etching. Pennell's "Ponte Vecchio" is a curious failure—inky, and without air or general effect, and singularly inadequate to the motive. Colman's "Venice" is the conventional fishing-boat city-by-the-sea, with a sky that suggests an eiderdown coverlid, but still a pleasant etching, with air and space and tremulous water. Farrar's "Winter Twilight" has nothing genuine about it—no shadow from his twilight, no woodiness in his trees, no solidity in his earth, no invention in his forms, and no breadth in his masses; neither naturalistic nor artistic, but evidently made out of his inner consciousness.

The literary introduction and interludes are worse than wasted. Two such pages about the ancients as accompany Mr. Colman's "Venice," with no allusion to the etching, and no intelligible one to Venice, are enough to make one question the direction of the writer's ideas. We should like to know who is the German "philosopher," as the writer calls him—we should use another word—from whom he quotes the following nonsense, "that the subjective element in a work of art is simply the base peculiarity by the admixture of which its indwelling spirit is contaminated." If this is not a man of straw set up for Mr. Koehler's easy knocking over, we should like to know more of his personality. The introduction is four pages of dreary wordiness, windily disputing a proposition in the clouds, viz.: that etching is not able to do what we see it doing every day.

The pith of the dissertation which forms the introduction of the book may be gathered from the following:

"That etching is a linear art—that is to say, an art which must use the line as a means—is a truism. It is not true, however, that the line can express form only, or any one other thing only. If that were so, line engraving and the woodcut would never have come to be looked upon as the reproductive methods best fitted for the translation of finished paintings. However, as compared with the methods just named, etching has other advantages, which must not be lost sight of: the freedom and *warmth* of its line, the brilliancy to be obtained by judicious pointing, the subtilty supplied by *its inseparable adjunct, the dry point.* . . . The doctrine of limitation is, I fear, the outcome only of individual limitations. But it behooves the calm observer, who stands outside the charmed circle of art, unswayed by the passions that rule within, to rise above them, and to recognize the truth that the beautiful art of etching is as broad and as all-embracing as the capacities of the human mind."

Broader than such dissertation it may be, but not flatter or shallower. In spite of the editor, however, the 'Original Etchings by American Artists' is one of the most noteworthy and valuable art publications which American art has given birth to. With the exception we have pointed out, there is not a poor etching, and only two or three weak ones, in the series.

Professor Mayer's 'Sport with Gun and Rod' is a large quarto volume of nearly 900 pages, divided into four departments, with the respective titles of "Large Game," "Fish," "Feathered Game." and "Out of Doors." It begins with an appropriate and interesting introductory article, by the editor, on the "Prehistoric Hunter."

Next comes one on the black bear, by Mr. Ward, which is written rather from the standpoint of an artist or naturalist than a sportsman, though Mr. Ward shows himself fully competent to deal with his subjects in the latter relation when he comes to write about caribou and moose-hunting further on. These are among the best things in the book, and particularly happy in their descriptions of the characteristics and modes of speech of the Indian guides, as well as of the habits of the game. There is also an excellent description of moose hunting by the Earl of Dunraven, and of musk-ox shooting by Lieut. Schwatka. "A Buffalo Hunt in Northern Mexico," by Gen. Lew Wallace, carries with it an idea of imaginative flatulence that very much weakens its effect. For instance, on p. 126: "The fisherman who has landed a ten-pound golden salmon from the golden beds of the Kankakee can tell you my feelings." (He had just shot a bison after a couple of pages of fine writing, and his emotions were evidently inexplicable.) Now the "beds of the Kankakee," a sluggish stream of eastern Illinois, are more muddy than auriferous; there never was a live salmon within 500 miles of them; and if Gen. Wallace had ever seen one anywhere else, he would not have described its color as "golden." The remainder of this article can be better comprehended if the reader has a fair knowledge of the Spanish language, which is scattered throughout it with liberality, largely in the form of expletives.

In addition to those already mentioned, we would specify chapters on "Fox Hunting in New England," "Bear Hunting in the South," "Mule Deer and Wild Sheep," as well worth reading in the space devoted to "Large Game." The part on "Fish," consisting of six or seven articles, is begun with "Trout Fishing on the Rangeley Lakes." The waters about the Oquossoc club-house are those described, and Mr. Seymour shows conclusively throughout his chapter, to one familiar with the place, and an angler, that he depended more on what was told him than on his own experience for his facts. Most of the large fish, calling those over four pounds such, taken in the Rangeley waters, do not, we are sorry to say, come to their death through the arts of fly fishers; and in the days whereof Mr. Seymour writes, the favorite, though not ostensible, mode of catching them was, in the early season, by ground-baiting a likely spot with a few quarts of hashed chubs, and next day fishing it with a bait of the same. In the autumn the largest trout taken were from the spawning beds, and that in some instances with a bait of trout roe—all of course being credited to the fly, though the largest one we have ever known taken in these waters in this manner during the early fishing, was killed by the late Mr. Dawson, and weighed, as we recollect, five pounds and a quarter. There has, we believe, been a change for the better in the way of fishing of late, and less is heard of trout of eight, nine, and ten pounds, though such are undoubtedly still there. Dr. Henshall, who is the authority on this game-fish, writes interestingly and reliably on the black bass; and Mr. Thaddeus Norris's chapter on "The Michigan Grayling" is as accurate and trustworthy in its descriptions and information as everything he has written about his favorite pursuit of angling. "Salmon Fishing" is the subject of a contribution by Mr. Wilkinson, who narrates his first experience in the art, which took place on the York River, Canada. After a capital article on "Sea-Bass Fishing," and another on "Sea-Trout Fishing," the angling portion of the book concludes with brief chapters on the length and weight of brook trout and "The Split Bamboo Rod." As much prominence is given to the merits of these rods, not only in this article, but incidentally in some of the others, we may say, for the benefit of the tyro who dreads the great necessary outlay for their ownership, that there are other rods, not quite so handsome, but much more durable under hard service, to be had for from one-quarter to one-third the cost.

The last third of the volume is devoted to "Feathered Game" and "Out of Doors," including two able articles on "American Sporting Dogs" and "The Shot Gun," and is written with much more absolute knowledge of its topics, as a whole, than the matter which precedes it. Among the best, besides those above mentioned, may be specified the chapters on "The North American Grouse," and, barring its somewhat pretentious title, "Bob White, the Game Bird of America." As an appropriate appendix, Mr. C. D. Warner is represented by two of the monographs which have brought him into fame as a sporting author—"How I Killed a Bear" and "A Fight with a Trout," the latter a most delightful satire on the ordinary angling literature of the country. "How to Mount a Bird" and "Bow Shooting" end the book, which is excellently printed and contains many beautiful illustrations, a number of which are mounted on Japanese proof paper. In the article on "Striped Bass" there is one wrongly credited to Walton's 'Complete Angler'; it is the well-known one from Dame Juliana Berners's 'Treatyse of Fysshynge with an Angle.' Another, on p. 446, represents the impossible feat of one man in a sitting posture poling a canoe and fisherman up the centre of a heavy rapid.

The Century Company is entitled to much praise for this the most considerable effort in this country to bring out-of-door sports to the public notice, but there is chance for improvement and greater accuracy in the selection of material for future volumes which it is hoped may follow this. A man to write on sport up to the demands now existing, and which long have existed in England, must know his subject thoroughly. One short experience in angling, or a few days' shooting, do not yield sufficient store of knowledge, even when supplemented by such information or misinformation as the amateur may pick up on his trip, to qualify him to write as an "expert," by which class we believe one of the advertisements claims that this book has been composed. A number of the contributions bear conclusive evidence that their authors understood their subjects and were themselves sportsmen; others, and these not the least interesting to the general reader, the reverse. As models of writing of this kind, not only in composition, but from the point of view of the sportsman and naturalist, we might mention the various books of John Colquhoun and Scrope, and Chas. St. John's 'Natural History and Sport in Moray.' These writers had, in addition to the true sportsman's zest in the pursuit of game, the love of the naturalist for ascertaining and describing its habits and modes of life. Mr. St. John added to this power that of making vigorous and life-like pen-and-ink sketches of the game he captured, which adds wonderfully to the attractions of his book. Books and even articles on sport, of the first class, should be written by men who are accomplished in the art, love it, are naturalists, educated, and truthful.

RECENT POETRY.

THE multiplication of good books of poetical selections shows the approach of Christmas-time. Best among these we should rank a new edition of Sir Francis Palgrave's well-known 'Golden Treasury,' with a continuation embracing selections more recent than those contained in the original work, the whole being edited by Mr. John Foster Kirk (Lippincott). The additions are fairly good and so is the preface. But Mr. Kirk makes a slip in saying that Blanco White "wrote no poetry besides his famous sonnet" (p. viii.), for his other sonnet, "On hearing myself for the first time called an Old Man," is really, as Mr. Caine has pointed out, "quite as admirable in point of technique," though not in thought, as that other production which Coleridge placed at the head of British sonnets.

Next to this volume we should place 'Fair Words about Fair Woman,' gathered from the poets by O. B. Bunce (Appletons). Here we have all needed sumptuousness of type and paper, and many fine poems, with prose interludes in the form of conversation, the whole being divided into eight "evenings," somewhat after the fashion of William Morris and the Italian story-tellers. To confess the truth, these prose pages do not afford a setting quite good enough for the gems they present, being indeed a little crude and sometimes almost flippant; it would have been better if "Bachelor Bluff" could have been kept to his own domain, which is certainly not that of ideal poetry.

It seems a curious transition from 'Quiet Hours' to 'Classic Heroic Ballads,' but the compiler of the former well-known collection has edited the latter also (Roberts Bros.). It is an admirable book, and should go with Froissart and Plutarch into every boy's library. The selections seem to us very nearly perfect; not quite, for Thornbury has ballads yet more vigorous than "The Cavalier's Escape"; and the author gives the weaker and diluted version of "Scots wha hae," instead of the stronger one. "On to glorious victory" can never have the ring of the original "On to victory"; and so with the last line of every verse. True, Burns himself made the alteration, but it was against his own better judgment.

The three volumes which complete the series called "English Verse" (Scribners) only confirm the opinion we have already expressed as to its merits and defects. In respect to quantity of matter they confirm the original promise of the prospectus, but in no other way. We are still left without alphabetical indexes of authors; still find a provoking inequality of execution. The volume of 'Dramatic Scenes and Characters' strikes us as by far the best, and in the preliminary essay Mr. Stoddard is on ground where he is strong. In the volume of 'Ballads and Romances' his work seems more perfunctory and his knowledge incomplete. He not only does not refer to the existence of Professor Child's great critical edition, now in process of publication, of English and Scottish ballads, but when he mentions that eminent editor's name he calls him "Childs" (p. xvi.). Least satisfactory of all the series is the volume of 'Translations,' in which there is a wide and creditable range in the languages represented, but a provoking narrowness in the selection of translators. Under Æschylus we have nothing from Browning or Fitzgerald; under Euripides, nothing from Milman; under Sophocles, nothing from Whitelaw; under Aristophanes, a version of the "Birds" far inferior to Cary's; under Theocritus, a translation not so characteristic and vigorous as one or two made by Mr. Stoddard's own friend Stedman. In the modern languages, it is worse. Longfellow's 'Poets and Poetry of Europe' is not even named among the authorities, nor is there a single translation by him; while the "Indian Song of Songs" and its fine companion ballads, by Edwin Arnold, are also omitted. Aubrey de Vere's Irish legends give a better impression of that remarkable school of tradition than any here included, and Mr. Linton should have

given at least one translation from Béranger from some other hand than his own. To render a line

"Of her great beauty raved *enthusiastly*" (p. 155)

is to give a very poor equivalent for the precision and clearness of the great French singer.

Some editor of an anthology of translations might well draw freely from a good rendering of 'The Odes of Horace,' by Henry Hubbard Pierce, Adjutant of the Twenty-first U. S. Infantry (Lippincott). As if there were some inherent doubt as to the scholarly trustworthiness of a book dated at Fort Vancouver, Washington Territory, the author's classicism is duly vouched for by Professor Fries, of Michigan University; but the translation tells its own story, and offers one a good deal of the soul of Horace in small space. We cannot so easily perceive the *raison d'être* of a volume called 'The Agnostic,' by another representative of the same family name, the Rt. Rev. Henry Niles Pierce, Bishop of Arkansas (Whittaker). The trouble with this work, as with most of the polemic writings of bishops, is that it simply puts up a man of straw to be knocked down. There are many who call themselves agnostics and yet distinctly recognize, in their own way, all that the worthy Bishop here claims.

The Rev. Mark Pattison's delightful little edition of Milton's 'Poems' (New York: Appleton) attempts nothing dangerous in the controversial line, but keeps to the still air of delightful studies. He gives translations by different hands of the Italian sonnets, and copious notes upon all. If we were to criticise the book, it would only be for too great insistence upon the Italian form of sonnet, which is rightfully now accepted as supreme, but must not blind us to the peculiar value of the Shaksperian form, the manner in which the closing couplet seems to give a completeness to the whole poetic structure, and sums up the meaning, while its music breaks like the tenth wave along the shore. Shakspere really created a distinct form of verse, as well as Petrarch, though the Italian's has proved more enduring; and to say, as Mr. Pattison deliberately asserts, that "it was an unfortunate choice of vehicle when Shakspere selected the sonnet form" (p. 42), seems clearly one of those instances where a critic simply criticises himself, marking his own limitations, not those of his author.

It is an easy transition from Italy to Mr. William W. Story, if indeed it be a transition at all. That perennial youthfulness of temperament, shown in so many ways by this accomplished artist, and forming a trait so agreeable in a man of sixty-four, was never more strikingly shown than in his little volume called 'He and She, or a Poet's Portfolio' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Both the verse and prose are very much such as he might have written in his exuberant youth in Lowell's *Pioneer*, of which he and Lowell contributed, under various pseudonyms, so large a part of the table of contents. Mr. Story himself was perhaps the best American type of what may be called the Crichtonism of that period—the theory, namely, that a brilliant young man might, could, would, and should try his hand at everything. 'Pelham' and 'Vivian Grey' were then still read, and the age of specialists had not begun. Not content with being lawyer, sculptor, and musician, Mr. Story experimented in painting, like Page, and in poetry, like Lowell; and while he did nothing very ill, he could not do everything well. We cannot find in this dainty volume anything that quite justifies its existence; yet many young people will relish it, though perhaps less vividly than their parents would have enjoyed it forty years ago.

Neither Mr. Aldrich nor Mr. Whittier will win many added laurels by the thin volumes containing this year's harvest of verse. Yet they will lose none, and this for two bards so well established is perhaps enough. The greater part of Mr. Aldrich's book, 'Mercedes, and Later Lyrics' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is occupied by a dramatic sketch which is really very powerful, but which has the defect, quite unusual with this author, of presenting too unmixed a tragedy. All the canons of criticism demand some relief, and the monotone here struck makes the work seem rather like a study for a drama than like the finished performance itself. Mr. Whittier's book, 'The Bay of Seven Islands, and other Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), gives us a few more of those versified New England legends of which we can never have too many. The aged poet has fulfilled the dream of his youth, and has become the Burns of his native region, having peopled the Merrimack and the Bay of Seven Islands with a race of ideal denizens as lasting as the imaginary clans mustered by Scott on Lanrick Mead. The shades of evening group themselves insensibly, but not sadly, over the poet's muse, and are touchingly expressed in a poem, "What the traveller said at sunset." The opening verse in particular has an image unusually daring for our moderate bard (his night thrush being, as we take it, the veery, which he has elsewhere sung):

"The shadows grow and deepen round me,
I feel the dew-fall in the air;
The muezzin of the darkening thicket,
I hear the night-thrush call to prayer." (P. 47.)

Mrs. Celia Thaxter, who always impresses one as being a spiritual child of Whittier, has collected her 'Poems for Children' in a handsome but feebly illustrated volume (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The verses are sometimes over-thoughtful for very young readers, and are sometimes weighted, like Whittier's, with a superfluous moral at the end; but they are graphic, wholesome, and so full of genuine American life as to be good nutriment for all children.

Mrs. Anagnos shows hereditary talent in her poems, 'Stray Chords' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.). Her mother, Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, has, perhaps, surpassed her in the condensed and finished utterance of a few poetic thoughts, as, for instance, in her "Rouge gagne"; but, on the other hand, the daughter escapes the turn for mysticism and abstruseness which mars most of the mother's poetic work, and which will forever prevent even the "Battle Hymn of the Republic" from being in a wide sense popular. Mrs. Anagnos has a dangerous facility of versification, but she has great purity and elevation of tone, and often shows real power of imagination. Among the poems which have most creative force we should select the following:

"THE NUN.

"Mouth, fair fount of frozen kisses;
Eyes, sweet sepulchre of blisses;
Brow, dear temple of dear joy;
White veil, clouding all so coy—
Wine to ice, and youth to age,
Change upon thy lovely page.

"Spring flowers struggling o'er a tomb
Seem thy fitful smiles and bloom;
Tender birds by Winter caught,
Sweetest buds by Winter taught
Not to open, not to sing,
For it never can be spring.

"Take me to that heaven of thine,
Where the moonbeams palely shine,
Where the roses bloom but white,
Where the stars are shy at night,
Where the breezes dare not sigh,
Where the heart must freeze and die—
I will shudder, pleasure flee,
If I may but worship thee." (P. 135.)

Mr. Denton's singular book, 'The Early Poetical Works of Franklin E. Denton of Chardon, Ohio, author of the Glass Dwarf' (Cleveland, Ohio: Williams), seems rather like a series of strains from one of the half-insane seers in 'The Bread-Winners' than like a serious production. What else can we say to such passages as the following:

"HYMN TO THE SUN.

"O Sun, hell wandering up the firmament!
God smiled! thou wert! thou art a laugh of Him!
I, but an one of all the billion ghosts
That wail and storm around this whirling world
In the delirium of consciousness.
How can I hope my wingless syllables
Will ever reach the golden ear of thee?
Thee who beheld the world travailed! beheld
It, ocean-robed, roaming a purple ball,
Coruscant in the chrism of thy beams!" (P. 20.)

Or this:

"How sweet to toss the bridle from our feeling,
Although to mind and body it bodes ill,
And from conception let our thoughts go reeling,
If they but be incongruous, at will;
Ere cachinnation is our teeth revealing,
To have the lachrymal its liquor spill;
To be an April day, for illustration;
An antithetical exaggeration." (P. 170.)

Mr. Denton is yet but twenty-three, and may possess talent; but not much is to be hoped for the future of a youth whose very sponsor and adviser, "A. G. R.," of Washington—presumably Mr. A. G. Riddle—selects for compliment, in his preface, such singular phrases as the following:

"I am a pinioned misery, Allana."

Perhaps Mr. Riddle would also commend the line—

"Earth is a gorgeous sponge soaked with divinity."
(P. 29.)

The preposterous phraseology of Mr. Denton is that of rawness and youth; but the curious dialect of Mr. P. W. Norris in 'The Calumet of the Coteau, and Other Poetical Legends of the Border' (Lippincott), forms really the most valuable part of his book, although it swamps his poetry, so to speak, in pigeon-English. The author was for five years superintendent of the Yellowstone National Park, and a guide-book to the park appears as an appendix to this volume, while the main portion is devoted to songs and rhymed narratives, often of the crudest description, but generally involving some local or historic if not poetic interest. A dozen pages of glossary will seem none too much to one who opens upon such a passage as the following:

"Il-la-hi, you come to see,
Lo-lo-io you want to be;
Chis-wout sk-o-kum, bold you come,
Mos-mos, stupid to your doom,
Ab-sa-ra-ka, tli-la-cume.
Que-u-que-u, lance and plume,
Min-ne-ke-wa cannot save,
Min-ne-wa-wa branches wave,
Kam-ooks gaunt around you glare,
Ka-kaws circle in the air.
By the blood of kindred slain,
Thine shall lance and fagot drain.
I-san-tau-ka, feel our ire,
Wa-kan-sche-cha, in the fire." (P. 105.)

As if to show that neither Ohio nor Idaho can monopolize uncouth phrases, we have in the choice type of Macmillan a specimen of English eccentricity in 'Poems and Lyrics, or the Joy of Earth,' by George Meredith. If Mr. Matthew Arnold finds in Emerson's quaintnesses reason enough for setting him far below the smooth Longfellow as a poet—a judgment, to be sure, which does not command our sympathy—what will he say to such freaks of his own cultivated fellow-countrymen, who knock Pharisees on the head with such clumsy bludgeons as this sonnet?

"A CERTAIN PEOPLE.

"As Puritans they prominently wax,
And none more kindly gives and takes hard knocks.
Strong psalmic chanting, like to nasal cocks,
They join to thunderings of their hearty thwacks.
But naughtiness, with hoggery, not lacks
When Peace another door in them unlocks
Where conscience shows the eying of an ox
Grown dully apprehensive of an Axe.
Graceless they are when gone to frivolousness,
Fearing the God they flout, the God they glut.
They need their pious exercises less
Than schooling in the Pleasures: fair belief
That these are devilish only to their thief,
Charged with an Axe nigh on the occiput." (P. 170.)

It is pleasant to pass to the grace and sweetness of another volume of English authorship, the 'Idle Idylls' of Edwin Arnold (Roberts Bros.). Those who were disappointed in 'Pearls

of the Faith' may turn confidently to this new book to find in it companionship for his 'Light of Asia.' He now gives us versions of passages from the great Hindoo drama, the 'Mahâbhârata'; in "Savitri, or Love and Duty," we have an Oriental Alcestis—as exquisite a tribute as was ever paid to the strength and self-devotion of woman; and in "The Great Journey," a picture of sublime disinterestedness, high as the Christian doctrine, and far higher than the accustomed Christian practice. The work is appropriately dedicated to one of those who, in the *Dial*, first urged the Oriental Scriptures on the English-reading world, Rev. William Henry Channing, Mr. Arnold's father-in-law.

Since the publication of so great a literature of Oriental translation made at first hand, within twenty-years, books made at second hand have lost much of their value. Rev. W. R. Alger's 'Poetry of the Orient' (Roberts Bros.) was one of the best of these, and will still no doubt find readers. Mr. Alger adds to this new edition some poems of his own, not Oriental in their character. Being a Unitarian clergyman, he of course writes poetry; but not so good, to our thinking, as that of his companion in that faith, Rev. John W. Chadwick, whose 'In Nazareth Town, and other Poems' (Roberts Bros.) contains many good things. One of the best has valuable local coloring, being a poem of Marblehead, called "Mugford's Victory."

Local coloring is to be found in very lively shape in 'Whispering Pines,' by John Henry Boner (New York: Brentano); and the few specimens which he gives of the plantation dialect will be likely to win more readers—in these days of 'Uncle Remus'—than the author's hymns or poems about external nature. The following, at least, has an irresistible ring and swing to it:

"CRISMUS TIMES IS COME,

I.

" Wen de sheppuds watch de sheep on de plain of Befle-
hem
(Crismus times is come,)
Dey was 'stonished at de star dat went a-swinging ober
dem,
(Crismus times is come;)
Dey lean upon de sheppud crooks a-shadin' ob der eyes,
(Crismus times is come,)
An' dey know de sun ob glory was a gwine for to rise,
(Crismus times is come,)
De wise men walk wid der heads ben' low
'Twell dey hear a ban' o' music like dey nebber hear
befo',
An' de angels come a singin' wid de stars in der han's
An' der flamin' wings a-shinin' on de heathun lan's.

II.

" De kings of de erf woke up dat night,
(Crismus times is come,)
An' der crowns look shabby in de hallyluyer light,
(Crismus times is come;)
But de po' man riz en tuck his ole hat down,
(Crismus times is come,)
An' hit look so fine dat he fought it wer a crown,
(Crismus times is come,)
Ole Jordan roll high en ole Jordan roll low,
An' de star stood still whar de folks had to go,
An' de angels flew away agin, a-singin' arter dem
A blaze road from Juda to de new Jerusalem.

III.

" Den pile on de light 'ood en set aroun' de fire,
(Crismus times is come,)
Rosum up de ole bow en chune the banjer higher,
(Crismus times is come;)
Dar's no mo' coonin' ob de log in de night,
(Crismus times is come,)
O glory to de lam' fur de hallyluyer light,
(Crismus times is come.)
De Crismus possum am a-bakin' mighty snug,
So han' aroun' de tumbler en de little yaller jug
Wid de co'ncob stopper, en de honey in de bowl,
An' a glory hallyluyer en a-bless yo' soul." (Pp. 106-7.)

Local coloring of a different fashion also abounds in the rather loose-jointed and ambling verses of Rev. C. Pelletreau, who writes in rhyme 'Reminiscences of the Seventh Regiment, N. G. S. N. Y., in State Camp, 1883' (Whittaker). In curious contrast with this is the essentially Pall-Mall flavor of 'The Poems of Frederick Locker' (White, Stokes & Allen). What is that imperceptible difference in flavor which makes Praed's *vers de société* still readable, after fifty years, while all other poetry of that class is like parched corn, which must be enjoyed while it is fresh and hot, or not at all? Mr. Locker's, we must confess, has already lost its crispness.

A History of Art in Chaldea and Assyria. From the French of Georges Perrot and Charles Chipiez. Illustrated with 452 engravings in the text and 15 steel and colored plates. Translated by Walter Armstrong, B.A., Oxon. 2 vols. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1884.

THIS second instalment of the translation of MM. Perrot and Chipiez's valuable and extended 'Histoire de l'Art dans l'Antiquité,' the first two volumes of which we noticed last year, will fully sustain the reputation of the authors for ability and fidelity in the task of gathering up the recent results of archæological research and arranging them in a connected series. They are thus producing a history of ancient art such as we have not before possessed. In this portion of their work it is shown that the ancient civilizations of the Tigris and the Euphrates were not less interesting or important than that of the valley of the Nile, notwithstanding that the remaining materials are less abundant, and some important facts less certainly known. In Chaldea are found no such records in sculpture of domestic life and employments as are found in Egypt; its graphic art being devoted chiefly to incidents of worship and sacrifice, to illustration of the military or hunting exploits of its royal personages, and to the realization of supernatural beings or symbolic creatures. The interpretation of Chaldæo-Assyrian inscriptions is, moreover, much less advanced than that of the Egyptian hieroglyphs. Nevertheless, by patient research and comparison, archæologists have succeeded in making out a good deal that was formerly obscure, and have thrown considerable light upon important problems.

Perhaps the most interesting and instructive portion of this part of the work is that which treats of the principles and general characteristics of Chaldæo-Assyrian architecture. This architecture, though, from the nature of the material (mostly sun-dried brick) to which the builder was restricted, exceedingly simple in its forms, is found to have possessed some features that have hitherto been thought to be of more recent invention, and not to have employed others which have been widely attributed to it. Neither piers, columns, nor architraves, and consequently nothing like orders or hypostyle arrangements, were generally employed. It is true that simple forms of shaft, with base and capital, were occasionally used, but they did not form a part of the general constructive system, and our authors affirm that a sufficient account of that system might be given without mentioning them. It was a system in which void spaces bore but a small proportion to the solid construction, and in which there were no apertures except doors. The barrel-vault, however, if not also the dome, is found to have been in general use. All this shows that our former conceptions of Assyrian architecture have been largely fanciful and inaccurate. As lately as the year 1851 so excellent a scholar as Mr. James Fergusson, in his work on 'The Palaces of Nineveh and Persepolis Restored,' made free use of the column, on the principle of the hypostyle halls of Persepolis, and excluded the vault. Until recently the general belief, shared even by Müller, was that all the ancient modes of construction were those of the simple pillar and architrave as employed by the Egyptians and the Greeks, and that to the Etruscans and Romans we owe the introduction of the arch and vault. But Mariette has proved that the principle of the arch was perfectly understood in Egypt in very remote antiquity, and we now find that it was not only known but systematically employed by the Assyrians—that it was, indeed, apparently the only means whereby they could roof their open spaces, possessing, as they did, neither large stones nor good timber.

The use of the dome is not so clearly made out as that of the barrel-vault. But the fact that domical structures are figured on some of the bas-reliefs, and that in a few instances fragments of *pisé*, having segmentally hollowed surfaces, have been found within now roofless square chambers, lends favor to the supposition that it was used. Moreover, the dome is constant in the palaces still in existence of the Parthian and Sassanid monarchs, which belong to an epoch midway between remote antiquity and the Græco-Roman period; and our authors suggest that possibly it may be discovered that ancient tradition helped to direct architecture into a new path in the last years of the Roman Empire. In this connection a class of buildings in Asia Minor is referred to, in which the dome is found resting on pendentives, from which it may not be wholly fanciful to suppose that the architects of St. Sophia were, in important particulars, but perpetuators of the principles established by the builders who wrought under Sargon and Nebuchadnezzar. In all such conjectures regarding derivation, however, it is easy to be carried too far. It may be just as probable that these architectural forms were invented independently at different epochs, and in different countries, in simple obedience to the conditions which called for them. Yet such derivations can often be securely traced, and even when they cannot, these striking similarities are highly interesting and instructive. Not the least so among those which our authors bring out, in what they call secondary forms, though the fact has been frequently remarked by others, is the likeness of one form of Assyrian capital to the Greek Ionic, and of another to the Corinthian. The carrying of shafts upon the backs of sculptured lions and griffins, so common with the mediæval Lombard builders, was common also in Assyria.

The beginnings of sculpture are more obscure in Chaldea and Assyria than in Egypt; but the oldest which is known exhibits, like the rest, a singular proclivity to copy nature. The study of Assyrian sculpture is shown to be especially interesting, not only because it created those anthropomorphic types which were adopted and perfected by the Greeks, but also because it established that principle of temperance in relief for which Greek sculpture became subsequently so remarkable. The Assyrian method had nothing in common with the Egyptian engraved process; nothing of that defining of contours by incised lines, or of modelling beneath the surrounding surface, which were such common practices with the Egyptian carver. There is, indeed, sometimes a slight reinforcing of contours by incision—as in the case of that wonderful wounded lioness in the British Museum; but this incision is never systematic, and the essential character of the work is always that of delicately modelled form rising gently from a flat field with no forced accents. The material used for sculpture in Mesopotamia was generally alabaster or limestone, the softness of which rendered freedom and incisiveness of execution natural; yet, as the authors remark, these qualities are never carried to excess. As far as his skill or his subject would permit, the Assyrian carver wrought his forms into lifelikeness with patience and care. His perception of nature in animals was remarkable. Indeed, there is no thing in antique art comparable to them in this respect, as those remarkable reliefs of hunting scenes in London attest. The Greeks, with their finer and more mature skill, carved the horse, it is true, as no Assyrian had ever been able to

carve it; but other animals they were content to render, when they did so at all, in a very conventional way. The Assyrian, however, presents the horse, the wild ass, the lion, the dog, and other animals with an animation, and an expression of peculiar character in each, which have not been surpassed by artists of any time; and this notwithstanding the apparent fact that in Assyria, as in Egypt, sculpture was regarded primarily as a means of record. All this is set forth and illustrated with admirable justice, and in addition an interesting account is given of minor works in moulded and modelled clay, carved ivory and bronze, both cast and hammered.

Painting in these countries is shown to have been of the same elementary sort that was practised in Egypt, though it differed in minor ways from Egyptian painting. It was but a simple and frank kind of illumination, without any gradation of tint or modelling of form. For interiors the color was laid upon a surface of plaster, according to the usual ancient and mediæval manner of mural painting; but in situations exposed to the weather, recourse was had to the more durable method of enamelling. A very interesting account is given in the chapter on decoration of the varieties of enamelled bricks that were employed, and of the devices that were depicted upon them. In both sculpture and painting the Assyrian artist was prolific in the adaptation of natural forms, among the vast range of which were types, some of them borrowed from Egypt, that were afterwards adopted and amplified by the Greeks. Conspicuous among these is that running border consisting of alternately open and shut lotus flowers, which has supplied the motive for a great many subsequent designs. Thus to discover the origin of decorative types as well as of constructive forms, and to follow them through their successive transformations, finding what peculiar impress each race of men has put upon them, is one of the most instructive modes of study both of the fine arts and of man himself. It is the intelligent effort to do this for the ancient arts that gives this book its value. The only fault of importance which we find in it is that of the diffuseness to which we alluded in our former notice. A great many portions of the book are needlessly spun out, and there are many wearisome repetitions. The substance of the work might have been fully presented in very much less space.

The illustrations in the text do not in all cases compare favorably with those in the original. They are apparently photo-engravings from the original woodcuts; and they have that heavy and smutchy effect in the closely shaded parts which is a constant defect of mechanical engraving. Even the original illustrations are in some respects unsatisfactory. Those representing sculpture are generally poor, and some of them are decidedly bad. That of the wounded lioness, Fig. 80, for instance, conveys no adequate expression of the subtle delineation which the original carving exhibits, and it conveys the impression of something in very much higher relief. But the faults of the book are insignificant in comparison with its substantial worth, and we shall look with interest for the volumes which are to follow. It is, we believe, the only book thus far which by competent hands, and in the light of recent discoveries, endeavors, with adequate fulness, to follow the chain of thought and effort by which man has expressed through the fine arts his moral and spiritual aspirations.

The Little Schoolmaster Mark. By J. H. Shorthouse. Macmillan & Co.

THIS work is called by its author "A Spiritual Romance," and the naming, though ambitious, is not inappropriate. Against a background of court levity and scepticism, the hero stands out as phenomenally religious, and the incidents of the little story are not unromantic. The character of Mark is quaint and beautiful, but its tone of spiritual aspiration and purity would vibrate more strongly in the reader's heart were less jarring discord admitted in the environment. The book is unsatisfactory. One feels as if the author were amusing himself with a graceful sketch, rather than giving the product of his whole earnestness and best endeavor. This impression is perhaps unjust, but is likely to be produced where a writer's real sentiments cannot be clearly seen. In this story, despite the fact that the personages too often lose their characteristics to express, at convenient points, the author's train of thought, his *opinions* remain for the most part undiscoverable. There are fruitful suggestions—as, for instance, this from the conversation of the Princess Isoline with Mark: "I warn you never to join a particular society which proposes as its object to serve God better than others." As may readily be inferred from what has been said, the book, though perhaps meant in part for children, is little suited to them, since much of it, while puzzling or meaningless to many, would be superfluous torment to those able to understand. The author says in the preface: "Should this little tale induce any one, at present ignorant of Stilling's 'Autobiography,' to read that book, they will forget any grudge they may have formed against the present writer."

George Eliot: A Critical Study of Her Life, Writings, and Philosophy. By George Willis Cooke. Boston: Jas. R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

The Essays of "George Eliot." Complete. Collected and arranged, with an introduction on her "Analysis of Motives," by Nathan Sheppard. (Standard Library.) Funk & Wagnalls.

MR. COOKE'S volume is not, properly speaking, a biography; it is rather a critical essay in which George Eliot's books and career are discussed incidentally. This, at least, is what he declares in his preface, but he has nevertheless gone pretty fully into biographical details. He has in fact undertaken to make his book very thorough, and if he has not succeeded in saying, has certainly made a conscientious attempt to say, what the French call the last word about his subject. While we should be loth to assert that Mr. Cooke endeavored to produce in his reader's mind a disagreeable impression of George Eliot, it is undeniable that he has in a sense done so; and this not merely through his disapproval of the tendency of her philosophical opinions, but by means of half-suggested criticisms upon her character. Thus, while we have a defence of her relations with Mr. Lewes, and a long account of her conjugal devotion to him, this, followed as it is by a very laconic statement of the fact that Mr. Lewes's death was, after an extremely short interval, followed by a second marriage, produces the impression that, after all, the less that is said about George Eliot's matrimonial affairs the better. In the same way, in referring to her casual remark about criticism and critics, that "the floods of nonsense printed in the form of critical opinions seem to me a chief curse of our time, a chief obstacle to true culture," and that the habit of forming "opinions" about books is of doubtful utility, he adds, "It is not to be forgotten, however, that George Eliot had done much critical work before she became a novelist, and that much of it was of a keen and cutting nature"—a reminder chiefly calculated to make us smile with a sense of superiority to such weak inconsistency. Mr. Cooke's statement of the nature of George Eliot's philosophy of life as it is propounded in her writings is fair enough. It was, as he says, altruism, or self-renunciation for the good of humanity. The altruism she got from Christianity; its new object she got from Comte and the positivists. In the Christian scheme, the motive for unselfishness is supposed to be a desire to be at one with God, and to do His will. In hers there is no God, no salvation of the individual soul, no hope of immortality; but the love of humanity takes the place of the love of the Almighty. But this is to the majority of mankind a very unsatisfactory substitute. It makes few converts, and to most people is hardly intelligible or appreciable. What is Humanity, that we should sacrifice ourselves to it? Are we not ourselves, in some cases, as good as the *Être Humain*, and who is to decide between It and us, in case of doubt? All this amounts to saying that George Eliot had no real system of philosophy at all, though she tried all her life to have one. Her discovery that self-renunciation and devotion to others is the secret of the nearest approach to happiness that man can make, is no more novel and startling than that made by Mill, that the direct pursuit of happiness defeats itself.

One great cause of the deep interest excited by her books, however, was undoubtedly the fact that she seemed to be able to reconcile the altruism of Christianity with speculations which led in a very different direction. Her books took a powerful hold upon the conscience of the public, both in England and here, and indeed she was the last of the great novelists who wrote with a distinct moral rather than a literary purpose. She carried the study of character to a point far beyond that reached by any of her predecessors, and towards the end of her career gave herself up to psychological analysis in a way that no other writer, of either sex, had ever done before. Mr. Cooke insists that had George Eliot believed in the immortality of the soul the tone of her novels would have been less sombre, and productive of more lasting good; but this is one of the remarks which give his book at times a tract-like flavor. It is as difficult to imagine George Eliot a believer in the ordinary Christian scheme of salvation as it is to think of Voltaire as an Episcopalian, or Cicero as a Methodist. In dealing with so great a mind as that of George Eliot the important thing is, to abandon at the outset all attempts to measure it by ordinary hard and fast standards.

It is as a novelist and reader of the human heart, not as a philosopher, that the world seems most likely to keep in reverence and preserve the memory of George Eliot. Coming after Dickens and Thackeray, she took their place, and became as interesting a literary figure as either of them. In some respects she was even superior to them. The mine which she worked was apparently inexhaustible. Although her last novels, as literary performances, are inferior to her first—the level of 'Silas Marner' and 'Adam Bede' was indeed one which it was almost impossible to maintain—they were works of nearly as great human interest, and they were works bearing the signature of living and vivid genius. She belonged to that great order of minds which do not fade or shrivel as they grow old, but remain vigorous and growing to the end. Dickens and Thackeray, mighty as they were in their day, ended by producing what were little better than feeble echoes of their earlier books. George Eliot never did this. She had always something new to tell, something original to report, some new problems of character and destiny to analyze.

In the perennial freshness of her mind, and her capacity of giving what, in her somewhat over-worked scientific dialect, would have been called always new and unexpected "reactions," she was a wonder to the last. Minds of this order are rare among men. Almost invariably, the rule is that a genius first delivers his message, and then, parrot-like, repeats it, with ever-decreasing force, till its echo character is detected and held up to ridicule. Only a few men, and still fewer women, appear in a century who are exempt from this law, and appear to have, as long as life lasts, some immortal, intellectual spring which saves them from the wear and tear of time. It is perhaps not unnatural that to some of these the dream of a *Grand Être Humain* should have proved so attractive, for they unconsciously saw in it, as we all must do, the reflection of themselves.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Day in Athens with Socrates: Translations from the Protagoras and the Republic of Plato. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Adams, W. E. Our American Cousins: being Personal Impressions of the People and Constitutions of the United States. London: Walter Scott.
Ames, D. T. Ames's Compendium of Practical and Ornamental Penmanship. The Author. $5.
Ashton, J. Humor, Wit and Satire of the Seventeenth Century. J. W. Bouton.
Baker, Sir S. W. True Tales for My Grandsons. Macmillan & Co. $1 50.
Belfield, Dr. W. T. On the Relations of Micro-Organisms to Disease. Chicago: W. T. Keener.
Bits of Precious Ore: F. W. Robertson, F. W. Faber, Geo. Herbert, Jeremy Taylor. 4 vols. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 40.
Blaikie, W. Sound Bodies for Our Boys and Girls. Harper & Brothers.
Brinton, Dr. D. G. Aboriginal American Authors, and their Productions. Philadelphia: No. 115 South 7th Street.
Buchanan, R. Annan Water: a Romance. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Craigin, Mrs. L. T. Sunshine: a Story. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Crawford, F. M. To Leeward: a Novel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Dyer, Rev. T. F. T. Folk-Lore of Shakspere. Harper & Brothers.
English Lyrics. The Parchment Library. D. Appleton & Co. $1 25.
Ewing, Juliana H. A Week Spent in a Glass Pond. R. Worthington.
Ferret, L. The Executioner's Revenge. Translated from the French. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $1 00.
Field, Rev. H. M. Among the Holy Hills. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Flashes from "Outda." G. W. Carleton & Co.
Gradie, Dr. H. Bacteria and the Germ Theory of Disease. Chicago: W. T. Keener.
Hale, Rev. E. E. Our Christmas in a Palace: a Traveller's Story. Funk & Wagnalls. $1 00.
Hall, I. H. A Critical Bibliography of the Greek New Testament as Published in America. Philadelphia: Pickwick & Co. $1 25.
Hamlin, Marie C. W. Legends of Le Detroit. Detroit: Thorndike Nourse.
Hand-Book of Winter Resorts. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Hannah Tarne: a Story. Macmillan & Co. $1 25.
Haynes, E. J. The Fairest of Three. A Story. American News Company. 50 cents.
Henry Irving, Actor and Manager: a Criticism of a Critic's Criticism. George Routledge & Sons. 50 cents.
Hunt, N. C. The Poetry of Other Lands. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $2.
Skelding, Susie B. Flowers from Hill and Dale: Poems arranged and illustrated. White, Stokes & Allen. $3 50.
Skelding, Susie B. A Handful of Blossoms. White, Stokes & Allen. $1 50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 27, 1883.

The Week.

SPEAKER CARLISLE'S committees are arranged very nearly as they had been guessed at by the Washington newspaper correspondents. Mr. Morrison is Chairman of the Ways and Means, and his colleagues are divided in such manner, politically and otherwise, that the country need feel no alarm on the subject of the tariff. Apparently Mr. Abram S. Hewitt will have the casting vote on the committee as between the extremists on either side, and it may be added that this responsible position could not be held by one better fitted in the present condition of things to fill it. Mr. Hewitt's views were given at length and with precision during the last session of Congress. His standing as a manufacturer ought to assure the protectionists that their interests will not be wantonly attacked by his vote, while his speeches will satisfy most of those who are classed as revenue reformers. Mr. Morrison was entitled to the Chairmanship upon grounds of long service as well as of familiarity with the business appertaining to the committee. It will be remembered that he was Chairman of the Ways and Means under Speaker Kerr. Mr. Randall is at the head of the Appropriation Committee, and Mr. Tucker leads the Judiciary. The latter is evidently a strong committee in its *personnel*. We regret profoundly that the Banking Committee should have at its head an enemy of the national banking system, and that the Coinage Committee should be under the lead of the author of the Bland bill.

The withdrawal of Mr. Ker from the prosecution of the Star-route cases, and the rumored withdrawal of Mr. Merrick, have started afresh the old charge that there is no sincerity in the Government's course in this matter. John A. Walsh appears as the chief spokesman of this view now, and declares positively that the "prosecution is not honest as a whole, and has not been since the death of President Garfield and the retirement of Mr. MacVeagh." He says there has never been any intention to bring Kellogg to trial, and intimates that he will be allowed to escape in order to secure for the Administration the Louisiana delegation to the next Republican Convention. He charges especial insincerity upon George Bliss, through whose conduct of the cases "all the wealthy mail contractors have escaped altogether, or had their cases referred to arbitrators." It is impossible to say how much truth there is in these charges. Much that Mr. Walsh asserts is clearly unjust to the prosecuting officers of the Government, and is evidently the outcome of bitter personal animosity. While it cannot be denied that the prosecution as a whole is a lamentable failure, and that all the big rogues have escaped justice, it must be said that the ablest and most sincere prosecution possible might not have had any better success, so long as the final decision had to be made by a Washington jury.

The process of expounding the Democratic doctrine of "a tariff for revenue only" is going on steadily in the Democratic papers, and it is very interesting reading. Some of them continue to say that a tariff for revenue only means out-and-out free trade—Cobden Club, British gold, pauper labor, and all. The Nashville *American* takes this view and denounces the great Democratic commentator, Mr. Watterson of the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, as the secret enemy of the Democratic party and, in fact, just as bad as David A. Wells. The *Courier-Journal* accordingly acknowledges that this is "a serious arraignment," and proceeds to explain how the matter stands. This is how it is: In 1856 the Democratic party demanded "progressive free trade." In 1876, it demanded "a tariff for revenue only." After the election the Republicans, in spite of their boast that the tariff for revenue only had defeated Hancock, felt that they could not rest safely on the existing tariff, and got up a Tariff Commission to make a sham revision of the tariff. The Democrats, however, thoroughly exposed them and drove them "speechless" from the Senate chamber. Now the Democrats have come forward again to perform the tariff revision which the Tariff Commission defeated. A further elucidation of the matter has since appeared in the same journal, however, which admits that the phrase "tariff for revenue only" may have "to slide," but it will be succeeded by another phrase meaning the same thing, which is, it appears, that no more revenue shall be collected "than is required to support the Government economically administered." "This is all there is in a tariff for revenue only," and all that the election of Carlisle means.

The New York *Sun* is still, however, as much puzzled as ever, and does not seem to know what will result from the situation. If the anti-protection movement in the Democratic party continues, it says, it will ruin the most available Democratic candidates, such as McDonald, Hendricks, Morrison, Hoadly, and Carlisle, but it says nothing about what its effects will be on the illustrious Holman. There will be nobody then left except Mr. Hewitt and Mr. Flower. But Hewitt is too much committed to free trade, so there remains only Mr. Flower, whom it endorses as a good Protectionist; so good that it apparently thinks he could be elected on a free-trade platform.

A systematic and almost brutal project is being carried out by the Republican Congressmen to squelch Keifer. He supposed that when Mr. Phelps, as the spokesman of the new Congress, withdrew all his objections and asked him to make him a visit and bring his trunk with him, and that when, following this interesting diplomatic manœuvre, the Republican caucus renominated and the Republican members almost unanimously voted for him for Speaker, he had been completely vindicated from the "aspersions of a corrupt and unscrupulous press." He accordingly came to the front promptly as the leader on the Republican side. The first blow came when he offered a resolution for adoption. Mr. Hiscock offered a substitute, and to Keifer's astonishment nearly the whole Republican force voted for the substitute. On Thursday a resolution of inquiry was introduced and referred to the proper committee, designed to ascertain the truth about Keifer's conduct in discharging a competent stenographer at the close of the last session, in order to enable his nephew to draw that stenographer's vacation salary of about $3,000. Some very annoying questions were asked him on this point. Later in the day he took the floor as the advocate of an amendment to the rules appointing a special committee on woman suffrage. When he arose the correspondents vacated the reporters' gallery in a body, and when the vote was taken the resolution was lost simply because Keifer advocated it. All this is deserved, but how much better it would have been for the Republicans if they had spared themselves the necessity for it, by giving him the one adequate and appropriate snub in the beginning—that of refusing him the "empty honor" of a renomination.

The final letter in the Canal correspondence appeared on Friday, but added nothing material to the controversy. As Mr. Frelinghuysen seems to rely greatly on legal doctrines affecting ordinary contracts between man and man, and continually talks about the "consideration" of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and the "voidable" character of the agreement owing to a "failure of consideration," we may suggest that there is another legal principle which in an ordinary court of law would be conclusive. Blackstone and Kent long ago showed that there can be no binding contract without a thing to contract about. Now in this case the thing which the parties intended to contract about—the Canal—is wholly non-existent. There is no canal, and consequently there is no contract. If Mr. Blaine had thought of this, how it would have delighted him!

There was some interesting discussion of the Mormon problem at the dinner of the Brooklyn New England Society on Friday. Mr. Beecher, who was the principal speaker, took strong ground against the somewhat popular notion that polygamy can be suppressed by the army and navy, and said, very truly. "that this question, like every other moral question, has got to be treated by moral means, and not by the law of violence. Every man," he added, "that wants to extirpate any form of mistaken belief in politics or religion by law and stricture and force, is a Puritan pure and simple," but he might better have said that

he is a bad politician, who knows little either of human nature or of the history of his race. The speech was all through good reading for those clergymen who are fond of the bayonet as a reformatory implement. The Rev. Dr. Newman, who followed him and apparently represented the other view, whatever that may be, held that the first thing to be done in this matter was to declare that Cannon, the Utah delegate, "had no right to a seat in the Congress of the United States." What the second thing to be done was, he did not clearly state, but as well as we can make out it was "to legislate against polygamy on the ground that it is a fraud, that it defrauds a man of his rights," because "if one man has a right to twenty-five wives, he thereby defrauds twenty-four men out of their natural rights." The way in which this legislation is to suppress polygamy he did not explain, probably by making the Mormons ashamed of themselves. The polygamists would put away their extra wives, we suppose, on learning that they were evidence of fraud towards unmarried men.

The "convict" case which has lately been argued at great length in the Supreme Court of Georgia, has cast grave doubts upon the legal character of the several penitentiary companies who control the convict labor of that State. These companies, having obtained leases of convicts for twenty years from the State, have sought to enjoin the keeper of the penitentiary from delivering to the Marietta and North Georgia Railroad Company a certain number of convicts granted it by legislative acts and resolutions passed after the making of their lease. It was maintained that these acts and resolutions impaired the obligation of the State's contract with the penitentiary companies. It is perfectly clear that if they are private corporations, they can with propriety complain of any legislative interference with their property rights. But it was beyond question proved that the act which sought to incorporate them was unconstitutional, and one of the companies had in effect acknowledged it by having secured a charter from the Superior Court, which alone has power to create such corporations. If these companies, then, are corporations, they are public corporations. As such, it is to be supposed, the Supreme Court of Georgia is anxious to consider them, wishing to uphold a lease pecuniarily advantageous to the State, and yet being unable to do so without confessing that the lessees are mere money-making corporations, to whom has been transferred the police power of the State; for if it holds that they are what Georgia is pleased to have them considered, mere governmental agents, it will be constrained, of course, to decide that contracts with such may be altered and even abrogated at will by the State. This would, indeed, be alarming to the lessees, for there are plain indications in Georgia of a growing desire to resume legislative control of convicts. The lessees cannot be sustained in this action upon the idea that they are partnerships, for the names of no partners are disclosed, as is required in pleading. As the original contractors with the State were forbidden by the Act to transfer their interest in the lease, such a disclosure might, it is thought, prove fatal to them, by showing that there had been a departure from its terms. As private corporations they have no legal existence. As public corporations they have no cause of complaint. It is difficult to say what character the Court will give them, for it is well known that, though presumed to be governmental agents, they have the odd features of stockholders. It is not improbable that every difficulty may be escaped by calling them quasi-public corporations.

The Boston Civil-Service Reform Association have called Mr. Long and Mr. Ranney to account for voting for Mr. Keifer for the Speakership, by asking them for what reason consistent with their avowed support of civil-service reform, they voted for him. They both answer that they had no idea that the issue of civil-service reform was in any way involved in the contest. Both say, too, that they understood that Mr. Keifer had rendered important aid in passing the Civil-Service Reform Act. He may have done so, but they apparently forgot his own performances as a civil-service reformer in his dealings with the House stenographers.

The *Financial Chronicle* has an important article on "Government Land Sales," showing the amount of public lands disposed of during the past six years in the several States and Territories, as indicating the direction in which population is moving. The total number of acres disposed of in the year 1883 was 16,830,455. The table of largest sales, in the order of magnitude, is as follows:

	Acres.		Acres.
Dakota	6,689,595	Mississippi	516,511
Nebraska	1,315,104	Oregon	491,770
Minnesota	1,292,969	Louisiana	487,599
Kansas	808,655	Arkansas	460,656
Washington T'y.	763,779	Wisconsin	454,003
California	704,274	Florida	434,749

Texas is not embraced in the list, as the United States have no public lands in that State. The list includes lands sold for cash, and taken under the Homestead and Timber Culture Acts. The sales for six years have been as follows:

	Acres.		Acres.
1878	6,855,781	1881	8,379,518
1879	8,649,259	1882	12,526,262
1880	9,090,495	1883	16,830,455

The increase of sales during the past two years has been very marked, being at the rate of 50 per cent. in 1882 over 1881, and 40 per cent. in 1883 over 1882. This extraordinary addition to the producing power of the nation, the *Chronicle* argues, must soon tell favorably on the existing business depression, for although the opening of new territory cannot be expected to show full results in the first or even the second year after settlement, "yet when it is remembered that during the two years since the depression set in, more than twenty-nine and a quarter millions of Government acres have been entered upon, it will readily be seen what a wonderful recuperative power this continued opening of new territory offers."

As the new year and the meeting of the Legislature approach, the railroads are no doubt getting their free passes ready and preparing to correspond with members on the subject. Politicians have recently discovered a way of making a little reform capital out of this effort to corrupt them by spurning the offer of a pass in the press, publishing the "tender," and also the scornful refusal with which it is met. Such correspondence is instructive as far as it goes, but in the case of legislators of good reputation it it is unnecessary, as they are not suspected, while suspected members are not cleared of suspicion, even by the most thorough advertisement of their little spurn. The only way to let the public fully behind the scenes, as we have suggested before now, is to make the companies publish a dead-head list every year, after the adjournment. A comparison of votes with rides enjoyed would probably throw a flood of light on the winter's work.

The hanging of O'Donnell has led to a meeting in Washington in which two or three Congressmen paid their tribute to the Irish vote. Mr. Robinson, of New York, demanded the recall of Lord J. Russell Lowell, Mr. Calkins, of Indiana, maintained that O'Donnell had been illegally convicted, and Mr. Finnerty declared that the President ought to have demanded the respite of O'Donnell for ninety days, and, in default of it, have suspended the diplomatic relations. He predicted that if, in consequence of this stern course, England had sent her fleet out here, she would have got the worst of it, as in the war of 1812. Mr. Belford, of Colorado, maintained the right of every man to kill a "sneak," and declared that had O'Donnell been tried in Colorado he would have been promptly acquitted. The bitterest rebuke, however, called forth by O'Donnell's execution, is the formal resignation by Mr. John Joseph Ryan of his American citizenship, and the return by him of his naturalization papers to the judges of the Court of Common Pleas. He scorns to be any longer the citizen of a republic which allows American citizens to be hanged abroad when they commit murder, or allows them to be imprisoned when they blow buildings up, under sentences which have not been approved by Irishmen in this country.

The movement for the protection of American labor against foreign emigration seems to be spreading. According to a despatch from Pennsylvania, the miners in the Connellsville coke regions have determined that "the Hungarians must go." If it were not for the anti-Chinese law and the well-known feeling in this city about the cheap Italian laborer, we should have taken the anti-Hungarian movement to be a joke of some free-trader. The complaint against them is that they are crowding out the local Pennsylvanians, who we presume are of Irish extraction, that they are "filthy in their habits, living on what Americans could not eat," that they are very immoral, and "unscrupulous," and ignorant, and also that they "will not become naturalized citizens," and cause a general loss of time and labor in attempts to elevate them in the social scale. Therefore they must go. After all, is this a "crusade," or is it a joke?

Interesting and edifying information about Mr. Blaine continues to accumulate. A correspondent of one of his most devoted organs visited him in his "workshop" in Washington a day or two ago, and found him at a "great big table" loaded with manuscript, proofs, and documents. The "great statesman seemed to be engaged in revising some proof-sheets of his book," and was not overjoyed to be interrupted. He was polite, however, and was gracious enough to say that "he was in love with his present work, and should hereafter follow the pursuit of writing. Nothing he had ever done was so in harmony with his tastes, and he was never so contented and happy." Another correspondent has been examining the State of Maine on the subject of Blaine as a Presidential candidate, and has found a great cooling off in enthusiasm for him there. He has also discovered that Blaine does not expect to be nominated next year; that he looks forward to 1888, and intends in the meantime to complete his "history," which "will be his monument." His chief aspiration outside of the monument is to be Secretary of State under the next President, in order to give the American Jingo policy that fair trial which he does not believe it has yet had.

The Hebron clergyman who, in the guise of a powerful sermon on "Polygamy," made a rattling attack upon one of his church members who had recently married a fourth wife, is in danger of losing his position. It will be remembered that the situation in which the assailed man was placed was an extremely trying one. His divorced third wife was present in the church when the sermon was preached, and was seated where she could fix her eyes upon the victim and see how he stood the attack. He was naturally much displeased by the occurrence, but, after calling the pastor a "liar and a hypocrite," he sold his house and left the town, leaving the pastor apparently master of the field. This retreat was, it seems now, a mere ruse on the part of the polygamous member. He took up his abode in a neighboring town, and began operations for undermining the minister. He has succeeded so well that it is now believed in Hebron that the minister will have to "go." All the people of the community who have been divorced, and all those who hope to be, have joined forces against him. The prevailing feeling among them is that the present tendency of the rural pulpit to descend to personalities must be checked by a decisive rebuke of some sort.

The business of drawing pen-photographs or paragraph portraits of eminent authors, statesmen, dry-goods men, monopolists, primadonnas, tenors, and poets, for the press is now well established, but the vocabulary of these word-pictures is hardly as definite and exact as it might be made. We have before us a column and a half of such sketches, recently published in an esteemed Boston contemporary, admirable in their way, but in which the description would hardly enable the reader to identify the person described on a casual meeting. For instance, we find a lady described as "medium-complexioned," "pleasant-featured, comfortable-looking," and "middle aged." Another is put down as "a magnificent blonde of generous proportions, with charming eyes of a hazel cast." A good deal of pains seems to be taken, in the case of men, to make the description hinge upon the way of wearing the beard, though sometimes without much result; *e.g.*, ——'s "gray hair and side whiskers are sometimes allowed to grow as they please, free from the pruning of the tonsorial shears," and this is followed by the extraordinary statement that "his ears are not always observable on account of this capillary growth." The remarkable thing about the descriptions is that so many of them refer to a "medium" or average, assumed to be generally known, the persons described being characterized by their approach to or departure from a medium stature, a medium height, or a medium complexion. Work of this sort, when really good, is always anonymous, but the sex of the writer may generally be made out. It is an unfailing mark of the masculine pen-photographer that he dwells with interest upon the weight of the person described, while the lady personnellist, if we may call her so, usually makes more of age and dress, particularly in the case of her own sex. Thus, in the list before us, one lady is put down as "very fond of dress, . . . not invariably suited to her advancing years." A woman is apt to be a good judge of such matters as these, but how the men in the business get at the weight of their subjects it is hard to conjecture.

A novel method of forging a will has come to light in England in the case of Priestman against Thomas. A gentleman named Whalley died, leaving a will written, as many wills are, on white paper, by which he bequeathed a property of $300,000 to his attendant, Thomas, an ex-railway porter. This was a great surprise to Mr. Priestman, a natural son of the testator's, who had good reason to expect the property himself; but everything appeared to be regular, and Thomas compromised by taking $85,000. This large sum of money so turned Thomas's head, that he waved a piece of blue paper at Mr. Priestman as the latter drove by his window. For some reason Mr. Priestman jumped at the conclusion that this piece of paper was the missing will in his own favor. The result was a lawsuit in which it appeared that the only genuine part of the "white" will was the signature. Whalley had been induced by Thomas to dictate a letter in pencil on a sheet of white paper to Priestman, but had signed it in ink. Thomas had then rubbed out the pencil marks, written in a will, and got some friends to witness it. The pencil marks were rubbed out with bread crumbs, but, as the event proved, this was a bad plan. The effect of rubbing pencil marks out by such means is not to destroy them altogether, but to raise the fibres of the paper so as to cover them. After a time they get smoothed down, and then the concealed marks come to light again. This, at least, is the testimony of Mr. Holmes, the Queen's librarian, in the case, and the reappearance of the old marks in the "white" will corroborated what he said.

The disorders often produced in court-rooms nowadays, by the replies of the prisoner to the question whether he has anything to say why judgment should not be passed upon him, have led to some inquiry into the reason for the practice. There is little doubt that it was originally asked before prisoners were allowed counsel, to enable them to move in arrest of judgment. As all such matters are now in the hands of counsel, the opportunity given to the prisoner does not seem to help him in any way, but it enables him, if he has a mind for it, to make an inflammatory stump-speech on the infamous way in which he is being persecuted, which is sure to find a prominent place in all the papers next morning, leaving matters at issue, however, exactly where they were before. On the conviction of Poole, for instance, for the murder of Kenny in Dublin, the prisoner, being called upon in this way, appears to have made some remarks in glorification of murder in general, or at any rate of murder as practised by him, and wound up with proposing three cheers for the Irish Republic. It would seem to be a simple matter to get rid of this abuse by requiring the judge to address his question to the prisoner's counsel instead of the prisoner. There is no hardship in this, as it merely places the conduct of this part of the defence in the hands which control all the rest of it.

The capture of Sontay by the French with trifling loss is not a great military exploit, but it is undoubtedly for the French Ministry a great political exploit. It enables them to take a bold front in the Chambers and show something for the large votes of money which they have been recently demanding, and which have begun to alarm the public seriously. The capture of Bacninh will probably soon follow, but the political troubles will not then be over. It remains to be seen what the occupation of a new territory will cost, and what China is going to do in the matter. Admiral Courbet apparently does not know whether the Chinese regulars really took part in the defence of Sontay or not, for it was evacuated during the night.

The latest report of the disaster to the Egyptian troops, near Suakim, given by an officer who was present, shows that it was by no means such an awful affair as has been represented. There were over 450 regulars in the party, besides sixty bashi-bazouks, and they had two field-pieces and a mortar. The only enemy they saw was about 150 Arabs armed with swords and spears, and some with big sticks only, whom they at first kept at a distance with the field-pieces. But after a while they formed a square, and the square was actually broken by thirty men, whereupon those who were not killed took to their heels, the Pasha in command close behind them, and never stopped till they reached the sea. The British Consul, Commander Moncrieff, stayed behind and showed fight and was killed. But the bulk of the party seem to be alive and well, but with their confidence in the square as a military device much shaken.

HOW THE REFORM IS WORKING.

SOME of the Civil-Service Reform Associations have begun to take testimony with regard to the practical working of the act, and more particularly with regard to its effect in relieving members of Congress from the pursuit of office-seekers. The New Haven Association has received answers to its questions from Messrs. Hawley, Edmunds, Kasson, and Platt, all four conspicuous men, who are likely to observe the working of the law without any special bias either way. Mr. Hawley says "emphatically" that it has relieved him from the pressure of office-seekers, and it is securing the end for which it was enacted. Mr. Edmunds says that it has not done him much good in the way of relief, for the simple reason that seven years ago he relieved himself by declining absolutely to make any recommendations or requests on anybody's behalf. The only fault he has to find with the act is that it is not stringent enough, and that the President may break through it whenever he pleases. Mr. Kasson, who is a convert of the eleventh hour, bears much the same testimony. He says members of Congress are relieved from pressure with regard to all those offices which are covered by the act, and that its effect with regard to offices which it does not cover has undoubtedly been to diminish the eagerness and zeal with which applicants pursue them; but he doubts whether the law is improving the *personnel* and efficiency of the service, or rather says the question is "involved in doubt," without saying whose doubt. Senator Platt of Connecticut says that Connecticut Congressmen were troubled less than most others by office-seekers even before the act was passed, and that they are now not troubled at all by applicants for clerical offices, but he is as much troubled as ever by applications for his "influence" in the matter of promotion, and it seems to him that it would be peculiarly appropriate that the right to promotion, as well as fitness for an original appointment, should be determined by competitive examination, and he will be glad to see the operation of the act extending just as fast and far as it is practicable. On the other hand, the testimony of the Democratic Senators, although it has not been published in detail, is said to be very unfavorable. They have apparently experienced no relief from pressure whatever. If they are subjected to pressure, however, it is undoubtedly due to the fact that they are expected to disregard or overturn the law at the earliest possible moment. There has been no indication at any Democratic meeting or convention of any general acceptance of the law by the party, or of any intention of enforcing it, or allowing it to be enforced, one minute longer than can be helped. The orthodox party doctrine, in fact, seems to be that the whole thing is a piece of Republican humbug, intended for the sole purpose of enabling the party to retain possession of the offices after having gone into opposition.

Mr. Platt's suggestion with regard to the use of competitive examinations, for the purpose of promotion, touches on what is probably one of the most serious difficulties in the practical working of the reform. There are certain fields in some of the departments—that of the Interior, for instance—in which the main element in the excellence of an employee lies in his special knowledge, and in which other qualifications count for comparatively little. In such fields a man's comparative fitness for a higher place can probably in most cases be ascertained by competitive examination with almost complete accuracy. But in most others to make promotion dependent altogether upon his ability to answer written questions better than rival candidates would strike a very serious blow at the responsibility which must be lodged in the hands of every head of the department. The chief of any office or establishment who does not know better than anybody else the relative value of his subordinates in almost all cases, is not fit for his place. As long as he retains it he must be assumed to know better, or he cannot be held with any fairness accountable for the way in which the work is done. The difficulty of fixing responsibility on the right person is the weak point in the whole American system of administration. The tendency of all changes in the nature of administrative reform for some years back in all the States has been in the direction of making this responsibility more clear and distinct, or, in other words, in the direction of making it easier for the voter to say, when things go wrong, who is to blame. If it should turn out that there was anything in the working of the Civil-Service Reform Act to hinder or divert this tendency, it would be unfortunate, both for civil-service reform itself and for the Government of the country. If the day should ever come when high officials would be able to say that shortcomings in their office were due to the unfitness of persons forced upon them for responsible positions by the new law, it would go far to condemn it utterly, and to commence a reaction which might carry us back irretrievably to the spoils system. It is in this matter emphatically better to rely upon the gradual dying out of the whole system of Congressional "influence" through the general discouragement given to it by the working of the act, aided by the increasing power of the resistance of Congressmen themselves, than to make any addition to the law which would be likely to interfere with the proper discipline and control of persons already in office. It is not at all likely that Congressional pressure about promotion will last very long after it has ceased to be of any use in procuring entrance to the service.

The addition to or extension of the act which we now need, is the repeal of the four years' limitation which the law of 1820 now places upon the tenure of offices not covered by the Pendleton bill. The mischief which this works has often been pointed out. There is probably no way in which it works so much mischief as in keeping alive the spirit or state of mind among office-seekers which made the Civil-Service Reform Act necessary, and which, in fact, created the spoils system. The reform will never be complete as long as there is a large body of persons of all ages in the country who are constantly thinking of the Government service as a means either of repairing broken fortunes, or escaping the sharp competition of ordinary business. It is this class which pesters Congressmen and makes politics corrupt, and it will not disappear until the whole service, as well as the clerical offices, is practically put out of their reach. We do not mean by this to say that places not now covered by the Pendleton bill, and held under the four years' tenure, should be thrown open to competitive examination, but simply that they should be held during good behavior, so that it should not be known to any one but the appointing power when a vacancy would occur, and that vacancies should not be made except for reasonable cause. As long as the whole country knows when an officer is to be turned out, there will be hundreds of persons kept from betaking themselves to some honest industry by the expectation that they can intrigue themselves into his place. It is right to add that those who advocate the repeal of the four years' tenure do not mean, as some have believed or tried to believe, any extension of tenure in the offices now covered by the Pendleton bill, but in those with which the Pendleton bill has nothing to do, and in which appointments are not made through competitive examination.

THE VOTING POWER OF STOCK.

SOME attention has been drawn recently in England to a plan for protecting the rights of minority stockholders in corporations, by doing away with the old rule which gives one vote for every share of stock. It is this which enables a single stockholder, by getting a majority of the stock into his hands, to outvote the whole host of little stockholders, and "run" the concern as he pleases. Formerly it was supposed that no harm could result from the majority principle, because the interest of the majority and minority would after all be only the interest of the corporation. But this, although true enough in the case of ordinary business concerns like a factory or an insurance company, does not seem borne out by the facts when we get into the region of the corporations whose stock is daily bought and sold in Wall Street, like railroads and mines. In these we frequently see a powerful operator get possession of a majority of the stock for the purpose of furthering some private scheme of his own, and it is possible for the great speculators by such means as this to ruin the minority interest, under guise of managing their property for them. In the Elevated Railway case now going on in this city, for instance, it is supposed that Jay Gould first depressed the stock in one of the companies, by a "bear" raid, helped by legal proceedings which he set on foot, then bought up the stock at low figures, and then, through the Board of Directors, made contracts with the other companies which he also controlled, the result being his own pecuniary advantage and the great injury of minority stockholders. According to testimony taken or offered in this litigation, notice in advance of an intention to "crack" the company was privately given.

Without going into the merits of these accusations, however, the precise truth of which will probably never come out, it is enough that operations which fall far short of a conspiracy to "crack" a company, and which are usually regarded as legitimate, may result in serious sacrifices of the minority's rights. The mere fact that one man can get possession and control and management of the entire property belonging, it may be, to a thousand small stockholders, and to a very great extent do what he pleases with it, is a serious matter, and this is what has recently happened in the case of a great English corporation, the Hudson's Bay Company; and something very like it always happens, unless the public is greatly mistaken, whenever a new railroad passes into the hands of the Brown, the Jones, or the Robinson "party." In England, attempts have been made, by a very simple device, to increase the power of the minority by limiting the voting power of stock. Thus, in the case of one railway, the London and Northwestern, every $500 of the stock gives one vote, up to $5,000; after that the voting unit is $2,500 up to $50,000; then one vote for every $5,000 beyond. In the London and Westminster Bank, a holder of ten shares has one vote, but a holder of fifty has only two.

The equality plan in stock elections evidently rests upon the idea of identity of interest, and is inherited from a time when most of the extraordinary phenomena of modern corporate life were undreamt of. The old idea of a corporation was a concern which would need for its creation and development an aggregation of capital contributed in small amounts by several people, and it seemed only proper that the amount of voting power should be exactly proportioned to the amount of money subscribed. But most of the money-kings and monopolists of our day do not get their immense wealth through corporations of this sort. In a large proportion of cases, the money contributed is represented by bonds, which have no voting power, while the stock represents nothing more than the probability of profit after the encumbrances have been provided for. Stock in this condition is the natural football of speculation, and of that sort of speculation which leads to all kinds of frauds and irregularities, as no one who recollects the history of the Erie, the Hartford and Erie, or the Crédit-Mobilier disclosures will question.

In the case of corporations already chartered in this country without restriction of any kind, it is, to say the least, doubtful whether the Legislature could interfere with the voting power of stock. The right to cast a vote for each share is a valuable property right under the charter, and a change in it designed to give small stockholders greater power, would be met with determined resistance in the courts. But the right to alter and amend corporate charters is now generally reserved by the Legislature, and whenever this is the case there can hardly be any legal objection to the change, for it would be in the interest of the good management of the concern. In the case of new corporations there is nothing to prevent the Legislature from making any rule as to the relation between votes and stock that it thinks expedient, and that the corporation will submit to.

But undoubtedly the phenomenon of the capture of corporations by the money-kings for private purposes, which we so constantly witness, is due in great measure to the fact that there are always so many thousands of millions of stock on the market which represent, not the money actually expended in the development of the property, but the chances of its yielding great profits in the future, owing to the extraordinary growth of the country. As the expansion of the country slackens, and corporate golcondas become impossible, and the rate of progress becomes steady, instead of consisting of leaps and bounds alternating with dead stand-stills, stock will more and more represent invested capital; and, as every one knows, regular dividend-paying stocks are not those out of which money-kings are generated. But even then it will be very questionable whether there is any sense or reason in giving every share a vote. The idea of one man being able to outvote forty in the management of the joint property, merely because he owns more of it, rests on a false idea of equality, and seems essentially undemocratic, as it makes numbers even when united powerless, and leaves the management of the joint interests to be determined by the brute power of wealth.

ART UNIONS.

The experiment is about to be tried again in New York of hot-bedding art. The exhibition which opened to a private view on Wednesday week is the first display of an institution which differs somewhat from any of which we have had experience, being organized and conducted entirely by artists. We who remember the old Art Union and its disastrous effects on the interests of art in general, may be pardoned a doubt as to the desirability of a repetition of the experiment. We may be sure that in the hands of the experienced artists who compose the "Board of Control," there will be as good taste in the selection of prizes as in the direction of the illustrated monthly journal which forms an unexceptionable part of the programme. But artists are notoriously bad business men, and it is in the working out of their plans that the hitch is generally found. The elder extinct institution was conducted entirely by business men, and financially was a great success. If its influence on art was adverse, it was probably due to the fact that those good business men imagined that the laws of trade, which they never would have lost sight of in reference to coffee or cotton, had nothing to do with pictures, and the new claimant for the old title does not show indications in the programme of having clearly in view the blunders of its predecessor.

An "Art Union" means to the ordinary apprehension a lottery of works of art drawn by the subscribers to the funds of the institution; and the "American Art Union," while it does not hold this as the peculiar object of its formation, allows it to be implied as an outcome of the organization. Now, a permanent lottery, in no matter what, means: firstly, the derangement of the laws of supply and demand; secondly, the lowering of prices as both direct and indirect consequences of the pushing of more articles on the market than there is a healthy demand for; and thirdly, the stimulation of the tendency of the young possible artists to adopt art as a livelihood beyond the point to which the taste and means of our community will sustain them in normal ways and times. Works of art follow the same law of the relation of supply and demand that rules the price of diamonds and potatoes; and when by means of a lottery a larger number of pictures are pushed on the market than the community wants, the price falls just as certainly as does that of diamonds in similar cases. And this is brought about by the operation of three distinct agencies: firstly, men will not buy pictures when they think that they can get them for the price of a lottery ticket; secondly, they value a work pretty much according to the price they paid for it; and thirdly (as we know from the workings of the old Art Union), the pictures drawn are rarely to the taste of those who draw them, and, being thrown on the market again at auction sales, are sold sometimes for a fraction of the price the artist received for them, with the inevitable result of knocking down the prices of all the artist's unsold works. To foster art we must sometimes discourage the artist. Healthy pruning and cutting out the weaker growth is good for forests and for art—both natural growths, and not to be stimulated by any artificial process. If art is to become a feature of American life, it can only be so by cultivation under the laws which control industrial activity in any other branch, and that means a growth in response to a genuine and healthy demand, as opposed to any system of encouragement which induces men to take pictures that they do not want, or to regard them as objects of speculation. The picture dealer and the art lottery are the chief enemies of art, and all the more dangerous as they appear in the beginning as the great friends of the artist.

The new Art Union, however, is not out of grace yet, and there is a direction for its operations in which we can see no danger of shipwreck, and which is, indeed, indicated in its programme as a possibility where it ought to be placed as a finality—*i. e.*, the formation, from the prizes, of local art-galleries. This will have the double good effect of putting out of the market the works of art drawn, and therefore out of the danger of influencing prices; and of developing a taste for art in those localities so favored, and conducing to private patronage on a healthy basis. Any other of the various plans indicated by the programme published by the American Art Union will certainly be disastrous to art, whatever may be its momentary effect on the individual artist. If the subscribers should, by the general vote provided for in the programme, decide to distribute the pictures, etc., by a lottery among themselves, the public morality, which imperiously militates against lotteries of any kind, and the interests of art alike, would demand the rigorous application of the legal remedies already provided, to the new institution as they were applied to the old.

A SOUTHERN "EXPERIENCE MEETING."

MADISON, Wisconsin, December 12.

A FITTING close to the volume of suggestions afforded by the recent meetings of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections at Louisville, was my visit to a seminary for colored girls and women at Atlanta, Ga. While under the control of the Baptist Home Mission Society, it owes its existence to two Boston women who, about eighteen months ago, went South with benevolent purpose. At first they gathered around them a few colored pupils in the basement of a church. The contagion of ambitious hopes soon spread itself not only among scores of Atlanta freedwomen, but far beyond the limits of that city. To-day there are nearly three hundred scholars availing themselves of the educational privileges offered, and young girls are flocking thither from many different places in the South. The old United States barracks are now used instead of the small church basement, which soon proved inadequate. The cottages of the row once occupied by army officers are now connected by a long covered piazza, and each is a cosy dormitory under the charge of one of the seven lady teachers at the present time employed. The large, beautifully located building, formerly known as a hospital, has been converted into a chapel with adjoining recitation rooms.

The ages of the scholars now in attendance range from eight to fifty years. The school was to me one of the most interesting and thought-awakening institutions I ever visited. Pitiful indeed is the mental and moral condition of the colored people of the South to-day. More especially deplorable seems the profound moral as well as mental ignorance of the female population, for it is one of the strongest barriers to successful efforts for the elevation of the colored race. According to the last census there are nearly six millions of negroes in "the South"; nearly a million and a half of the colored children are girls, prospective wives and mothers of millions of future voters, who, unless properly trained, can but perpetuate degradation and greatly aggravate national immorality. Is there, at the present time, any field for the home missionaries where woman's influence and peculiar tact are more needed, than among her ignorant and naturally depraved colored sisters in the South? The work required in this field is, in fact, such as only *women* can perform.

The preceding statements have been used for a background to numerous illustrations of the needs of our colored girls and women as they were revealed to me at an "experience meeting" which I attended while among them. Unlike our white scholars—whose natural timidity or self-consciousness prevents them from speaking even a carefully committed "piece," and much more seriously from expressing their own convictions without the most painful embarrassment—those colored girls were eager and anxious to rise in their seats and give utterance to their inmost thoughts. The hour devoted to vacation "experiences" was, for them, alas, too brief. Those who had to wait for their turn until the next Friday were very solemn in their necessarily enforced silence. As I con the leaves of my little note-book, which I used freely that morning, feeling that the recitals were too valuable to be forgotten in the many distractions of travel in the suggestive South, I see again the faces of those three hundred colored girls and women, and once more hear their plaintive voices. After singing a number both of plantation and gospel songs, among which were "I heard a voice, I couldn't tell where," and "Child of sia and sorrow," they began their remarks and narratives. From the many "experiences" in my collection, I submit the following specimens—all based upon fact, and culled from as faithful a record as my swift pencil could make:

Number 1. "I's been a workin' fur Jesus all de summer vacation. I don't ask fur no better times dan I has in dis yeah school where we all come to learn to work fur Jesus"; and number 1, a tall, gaunt girl, who seemed to be made up of knuckles, elbows, and faded pink ribbons, raised her voice to a high pitch and sang, "Never be afraid to work for Jesus," the whole school joining in the chorus.

Number 2. "I's been a workin' fur Jesus too. I's ben teachin' forty-five miles from yeah, an' I had twenty-seven scholars, most of 'em older than me, but they didn't know anythin' till I tole 'em all 'bout Jesus. They wanted to study 'rithmetic and geography—to please Jesus; an' dey was so glad I come back yeah to learn more 'bout him. I was so sad and so sorry kase I didn't know how to count furder. Jes' as we'd get on a piece, I'd have to stop. Oh, I was so 'shamed, I cried sometimes all night kase I couldn't help 'em more 'bout Jesus." And she sat down with eyes full of tears, because of her realization of the fact that she knew but little about Jesus—her synonym for the common English branches.

Number 3. "Dis chile didn't do no teachin' in vacation," said a big mulatto woman, with great pomposity. "'Twan't cos she didn't know nuff 'xactly, nor cos there wan't heaps dat needed to be teached. On every side iggorant niggers is as thick as flies. But my *preferment* was doin' suthin' else fur my blessed Saviour. Needn't think I didn't work for Jesus, my young sisters. I tell ye I worked mighty hard! I visted heaps o' sick niggers, an' I 'low I wan't lazy. Don't win ye no crown jes to go an' *look* at sick folks, unless ye *do* suthin fur um. I feel like as if my stomach was light and freed from bile, cos I nussed the sick, an' puttin my shoulders to the wheel, didn't look back like Lot's wife an' turn unto a pillow of salt, but minded my blessed Lord an' Saviour an' visited the sick—fur to please Jesus. I likes dis yeah school. Laws! I's mo'n fifty years ole or thar-'bouts, an' till I kum yeah I nebber know'd dat workin' fur Christ meant nussin' sick folks an' goin to see the widowers an' childless in affliction, an' keepin' unspotted from de world."

Number 4. "My bredren and sisters," began a young girl (and as there were no "bredren" present of course the school indulged in laughter, but she was not intimidated), "I've tried hard all de vacation to be a light to sinners. I'm proud, in meekness, to say dat I've converted twenty souls to Christ. Since I'se learned to read in dis yeah school I feel like as ef de Bible is so sprinkled in my soul dat I can't stan' roun' doin nothin': I must nudge all dem as sits in darkness. I tole many ob my friends 'bout de Atlanta Female Seminary fur girls, an' dey want to come yeah too, an' I see six of 'em yeah now. Dey'll werry soon learn how to count an' read, kase dey has gib dere souls to Jesus. I hope an' pray dat dese yeah white ladies from de Norf (yeah jes' to teach us cullud girls), will feel like as ef we had all done our duty in vacation an' come back to dis yeah place with our dues to Jesus all paid up." The room was perfectly quiet for several moments, but suddenly a sweet young voice led off and all joined in singing, "Jesus keep me near the Stream."

Number 5. "I's a stranger in dis school. I was nebber here before. But de Lord helped me to git introduced to Pinkie Starks, she dat's jes' been speakin', an' my ideas is open. I race to git yeah. I long fur to know as much as she does. I long fur to please Jesus, an' I pray fur an education so dat I kin read my Bible. Seems like as if I'd read it day and night when I once find out how to git acquainted wid my Lord and Saviour. Dat's what I's missed so much, young's I be, not knowin' how to read my Bible an' be a light to sinners like Pinkie Starks." She started the tune, "I'm in a strange land far from home," but only a few were familiar with the words, and most of the song was feelingly carried on alone.

Number 6. "I's been teachin' down in Florida, 'way down in de country. But oh, I knowed sich little! I could n' only count up to five, and there I had to stop an' think an' think what should I do? Oh, I was so 'shamed! I had twenty-five scholars. They was all poor, but it made um happy to hear 'bout Jesus. I showed um how to count and read. Oh, I tell you they was mighty proud! If you could only of seen me in the ole tumble-down meetin'-house tryin' fur to help my bredren and sisters in the Lord, you'd of laughed, I know. Fur I hadn't nothin' to teach with—none of the *inconveniences* that we have yeah: I had nothin' in my hands or head to boast of, but I had heaps *yeah*," laying her big black hand on her heart. "I *consorted* to all the means in my power. I made a blackboard out of a piece of dry-goods box, an' I blacked it with chimney-soot. One of my scholars brought me some vinegar to set the soot. It didn't work very well. Afterwards a boy got some shoe-blackin' fur me. I pounded on an ole tin pan to call the scholars together. Oh, how I longed to hear the sound of the little bell at this school! The colored folks in a city like Atlanta don't begin to know what 'tis for dem poor darkies to live way off in the country, so fur from any churches or schools, an' oh, so awfully poor. When they git money to spend anywheres they're cheated. They don't know anythin', 'specially how to count money. They is hundreds of um jes' dyin' and wastin' away all the days, 'kase they can't get to learn 'bout Jesus."

At this period a certain white lady in the room requested the school to favor her with the popular melody "Golden Slippers." After a long and somewhat ominous silence, a girl in the rear of the large chapel slowly arose and said: "You'll have to excuse us from singing dat song 'bout 'Golden Slippers.' *We don't consider dat very religious.*"

The "experience" of Sophronia Heard, who told us that she had learned how to *carry* herself, and instead of yielding to the influence of a certain "sinner-man," named Smith, had "converted" him during vacation; that of Indiana Turner, who had mastered the multiplication table, and was as pretty, interesting, and lady-like a young woman as one would care to meet anywhere; that of Missouri King, whose superstitious notions were a source of perpetual amazement to herself and pitiful amusement to the more enlightened; and, last but not least, the personal and private reminiscences of Miss Bug, who, after a really sad recital, plaintively sang—

"Don't be like de foolish vergens when dey came, when dey came,

"For dey had to go and *borry* when dey came,', etc., etc., and then led in the depressingly hopeful chorus, in which the whole school joined:

"What can wash away my sins?

"Nothing but the blood of Jesus"—

all combined to show how great, and indeed how imperative, is the call for missionary work among the colored girls and women of the South.

ELLA A. GILES.

Correspondence.

STATE AND LOCAL TAXATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It would be well if Mr. Blaine's letter as to the disposition of the Federal excise tax upon liquors should lead to a reform or a revolution of the present methods of State and local taxation. They are very onerous. Although direct, they do not meet the economic conditions of direct taxation. They violate at least three of Adam Smith's four canons. They are not uniform, nor do they promote the economy and vigilance in public expenditure which the economists claim attend direct taxation. Every taxpayer in your city and State will doubtless grant that. If there is a surplus Federal revenue, reduce the taxation that produces it. That is a plain case. There is no surplus revenue so long as there is a national debt and interest charge. There is, I believe, no proposition made by any free-trader for any tariff system that would not yield enough from customs to pay the expenses of the national government economically conducted. So there is no need to take alarm at Mr. Blaine's suggestion as though it were a plan to bolster up protection, or to maintain the collection of a surplus revenue by distributing it among the States.

The American people now raise easily from a tax on liquors, cigars, tobacco, etc., one hundred and forty-five millions of dollars a year for their Federal needs, and onerously, by a so-called direct tax, about an equal amount for their State and county needs. Does not the ease of the one method and the burdensomeness of the other suggest that the former method can be well and wisely put in place of the latter now, or when the former is no longer needed by the people for Federal purposes? I ask your aid to bring this—the only material phase of the subject in my opinion—before public attention, because you and your correspondent, Mr. Bourne, are chiefly insistent on that view which makes the proposed plan a distribution of surplus Federal revenue among the States. It thus becomes, and I think wrongly, a present and revived form of the plans to distribute the proceeds of the public lands and then of the treasury surplus which unprofitably occupied and perplexed the attention of Congress and the country from the administration of the younger Adams to that of Tyler. The American people should be as willing to use Federal as State or local methods of doing anything if the former are the best. If Federal methods are the best for maintaining an excise tax on liquors, cigars, tobacco, etc., for State and local purposes, those methods should be adopted, and the officials of the system should be elected by the people in the respective districts. Every Federal official should be elected save the judges. A local election of officials would obviate all dangers of centralization from this method of collecting a revenue.

Sam. M. Clark.

Keokuk, Iowa, Dec. 17, 1883.

POLITICAL ALGEBRA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Administration has recommended a policy which indicates the dictation of Wall Street bankers and the complete ignoring of the "exploded heresy" known as "the Ohio idea." As a citizen of Ohio I would like to ask whether this new policy does not bear the marks of a *reactionary* spirit.

The Comptroller of the Currency, after showing that 4 per cents have risen until it barely pays national banks to retain their charters, proposes to repeal the tax on circulation and allow a circulation of 90 per cent. on the *market* value of the bonds. Here we have a system which *regulates* the amount of currency by a *fluctuating* standard, and *insures contraction* as the market value of the bonds descends to par. This same system has the still worse feature of converting the Government into a stock-exchange bull. It is impossible that money invested in 4 per cents should pay better than money invested elsewhere. If these bonds could remain at 121 the national banks would be enabled by the Comptroller's proposition to realize a bonus of $2,023 per annum instead of $46. This is shown by the following table:

Given $100,000 of 4 per cent. bonds having 23½ years to run—

Annual interest		$4,000
Cir. 90 per cent. on market value	$108,900	
Deduct 5 per cent. redemp. fund	5,445	
	$103,455	
$103,455 loaned at 6 per cent.		6,207
Total receipts		$10,207
Deduct cost of redemption	$ 30	
" 1.23½ of premium	894	
		$924
Net receipts		$9,283
$121,000 loaned at 6 per cent.		7,260
Profit on circulation		$2,023

If 4 per cents, as in times past, rise until they are no more profitable for investment than other securities, we can find by a simple algebraic calculation what they will soon be worth. Let y represent the *market* value of $100,000 of bonds. Then $4,000 + 6 per c. of $85.5 per c. of $y - 30 - \frac{1}{23\frac{1}{2}}(y - 100000) = 6$ per cent. of $y + 46$. Working out the equation, we find that $y = \$159,435$. Under the proposed laws, therefore, 4 per cents at 159⅝ would be as good an investment as they now are at 121.

If the Administration would concede that there was a certain amount of common sense in the ideas which received the assent of Thurman, the support of Pendleton, and the whole-souled devotion of Ewing, I hardly think they would propose to repeal the tax. It is the national credit which gives value to our currency, and the nation ought to reap the benefit. Some of us in the West cannot help calculating that if *one* per cent. bonds were made the basis of circulation the national banks would still have a bonus.

Very respectfully,

Chas. B. Spahr.

Columbus, O., Dec. 13.

OUR COAST DEFENCES AND THE NAVY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his communication in 961 of the *Nation* on the subject of the navy, Mr. Chappel seems to have missed the point of the quotation he makes from the letter from "C. H. S.," in No. 957, and proceeds to demolish a theory which was not advanced. "C. H. S." merely said that "the well-known defenceless state of our coasts . . . would lead to an attack on our rich maritime cities." There is nothing in this about "a European state transporting an army sufficient to retain" them. Such a proposition is absurd. But the fact still remains that these cities are unprotected, and that an armored fleet of moderate power could enter any one or all of them and sail away unmolested, after exacting a heavy indemnity, which all the strength of this rich republic would be powerless to prevent in the present state of its navy and land fortifications. In 1879 the Admiral of the English Mediterranean Squadron said to an American naval officer that in three weeks after a declaration of war between the United States and England, fleets would appear before our great Atlantic cities demanding not money alone, but wheat and flour. Under such circumstances we should lose in a day the cost of an efficient navy five times over. Far better that the premium on our national insurance, as your correspondent aptly terms it, should be spent in yearly instalments in building a navy, and so paid to American artisans for American ships, than that it should be paid down on the nail to an enemy covering our coast cities with his guns. Granted that such a "state of things is extremely improbable." War is never improbable; this history teaches if it teaches anything, and in war it is the impossible which takes place.

"The United States ought not to indulge a persuasion that, contrary to the order of human events, they will forever keep at a distance those painful appeals to arms with which the history of other nations abounds. . . . If we desire to avoid insult we must be able to repel it. If we desire to secure peace, one of the most powerful instruments of our rising prosperity, it must be known that we are at all times ready for war."

This is as true to-day as when Washington said it ninety years ago. We have inherited from the civil war a dangerous confidence. The South had no naval power at all, no yards in which to build ships, no works to equip them when hostilities commenced. The North had nearly a year in which to prepare, and bought a heterogeneous fleet of vessels of every kind, from an ocean steamer to a Fulton ferry-boat. These served their purpose and were sold for half their cost when the war was over. The progress in naval science in the last twenty-five years is greater than in the two centuries preceding, and measures which were possible and feasible in 1861 would be useless now. The decisive point of a war of to-day may come in the first few months. There will be no time when war is upon us to think of means of defence. Peace is the time for that.

Our national defences are a standing reproach against us. Our forts are worthless. Our guns would be as effective against modern armored vessels as bean-blowers in the hands of our small boys. Our navy is composed of a few slow, obsolete wooden corvettes. We do not need such a navy as several of the European nations seem to consider it necessary to support. We have no outlying colonies to protect, no vigorous foreign policy to sustain, no possible enemy on our borders. We require an armored fleet of sufficient defensive strength to protect our coast cities, and swift cruisers powerful enough offensively to destroy the enemy's commerce in time of war, and protect our own in time of peace. They should be equal to any vessels of their kind in the world. The latter class will give us an ample number of ships for peace cruising, the former a reserve capable in a few weeks of passing from a peace to a war footing—in short, a navy that would be efficient, one that would require no increase in the number of officers now allowed by law, but a slight one in the present force of enlisted men, and at no greater annual cost to support than is now appropriated yearly by Congress for the purpose. In case of a foreign war it would be on the navy that the brunt of the fighting must fall. The *personnel* of our naval service is equal to that of any in the world. Our officers are a patriotic, well-educated, fine body of men. They only ask for modern weapons to fight a modern war—weapons that they will not be ashamed of and with which they will have some reasonable hope of winning the battle.

E. B. R.

Bethlehem, Pa., Dec. 10, 1883.

DECAY OF SPRUCE IN THE ADIRONDACKS AND NORTHERN NEW ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The suggestion of your correspondent in last week's *Nation* that the spruce throughout the

greater part of the Adirondack region is dying so fast that the region will be bereft of its timber through natural causes much sooner than by cutting it down for lumber, is certainly a strong reason why no lumbering should go on in that region at all. On the other hand, the owners would do well to send lumbering parties into the Adirondacks to cut down the dead timber, and thus prevent the further spread of the disease, whatever it be, whether constitutional to the tree, climatic, or entomological.

When our spruce forests suffer thus, the best treatment would appear to be to clean out the dead and dying trees so as to allow a new growth to spring up. That this would be worth trying may be seen from the following historical facts:

During the years 1878-80 large tracts of spruce and fir on the coast of Maine, from Portland to Warren, were killed outright by a little caterpillar known as the spruce bud-worm. The trees died *en masse* over large areas. The dead trees have by the more intelligent owners been cut down and used as fire-wood. The injury was most marked on the shores of Casco Bay. It now appears, from statements made to us by a clergyman of unusual powers of observation, and who suffered the loss of a fine forest of spruce on his own woodlands, and was shrewd enough to at once cut it down and sell it for fire-wood before it got too rotten—it now appears that the same woodlands were, early in this century, ravaged by the same or a similar caterpillar. According to two farmers well known to our informant, the spruces of Harpswell and Orr's Island were destroyed by worms in 1807. This was during the embargo, when no salt could be had. The owners of the woodlands turned the dead spruce and fir to good account. For six weeks they toiled, cutting down the trees and using the wood as fuel to boil the sea-water, and thus supplied themselves with salt. As we have reason to know, those woodlands were thirty years ago covered with a flourishing growth of valuable spruces, many of them a foot in diameter at the butt.

It is thus a fact that when spruce trees die down over large areas, by removing the dead or dying trees, leaving the healthy and slightly affected trees, and especially the young small trees and shrubs, a new growth will certainly spring up within thirty or forty years. This treatment, if applied to the valuable spruce forests of Northern New York and New England, will, it seems to us, certainly save these forests from otherwise hopeless ruin. This, if we mistake not, has been the remedy applied in Europe. But to add to the calamity by lumbering in these spruce forests would be folly. It would be the total and irretrievable destruction of these valuable possessions, to say nothing of the consequent partial dying up of the sources of our rivers, and the diminution of our water power.

A. S. Packard, Jr.

Providence, R. I., December 20, 1883.

OTHER-WORLDLINESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is Leigh Hunt who says (see 'Religion of the Heart,' published by John Chapman, London, 1853, page 60):

"Other-worldliness is the piety of the worldly. It is the same desire for the advantages of the world to come which the worldly-minded feel for those of the present, and it is manifested in the same way."

This, in answer to your correspondent from Easton, Md., who, in your last, questions correctly the soundness of Dr. Phelps in ascribing the invention of the word to Lowell, who can well afford to resign this one word to a brother-poet. W. O. White.

Brookline, Mass., December 21, 1883.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Stearns is right in tracing "other-worldliness" as far back as Coleridge. Henry Crabb Robinson, in his Diary and Correspondence (II., 215), quotes the following sentence from Allsop's 'Letters of Coleridge': "As there is a worldliness, or too much care for this life, so there is another worldliness, or other-worldliness, equally hateful and selfish."

Respectfully, Rollo Ogden.

Cleveland, O.

Notes.

The English Publishing Co., 23 Park Row, having made arrangements with the London publishers, will begin next week the reissue in this country of the *Fortnightly*, *Nineteenth Century*, and *Contemporary Review* at half the price of the original editions.

Under the title of 'English Rambles, etc.' (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.), Mr. William Winter has put together some pleasant letters recently written in England, and bound with them a number of agreeable verses, many of them of the "occasional" kind.

The art of flower-painting is one which, if followed as a specialty, demands thorough botanical knowledge, so far as flower construction is concerned, and the rendering of the specific characters. This may be done through either of two methods of representation, that of pure local color unmodified, of which Japanese flower-painting is the best example; and that which gives the actual optical color, *i. e.*, the local tint as influenced by light and shadow, reflection, etc. The former is, for purely scientific purposes, unquestionably the best, and that in which the artist is least likely to fail from want of artistic training, although the results of the other method, when thoroughly successful, contain all that botany requires, with an added grace of art. But it requires a sense of color of the greatest delicacy, and a training which, when obtained, does not often leave the artist in the flower-garden. To attempt a compromise between the two, as does the painter of 'Flowers from Hill and Dale, by Susie Barstow Skelding,' is certain to accomplish but mediocre results. To follow a pure local color through varying shadows and never disturb its purity, is not so easy as it seems. Of the still-life painters who accomplish it, the English William Hunt is the master. To give, in place of true *tone color*, a deeper shade of the *same tint*, as the painter of these flowers does, is one of those compromises which must be relegated with good intentions unfulfilled. The publishers (White, Stokes & Allen) have made a showy holiday book of them, which is also produced in the fringed Christmas-card form, each number containing four plates called "Flower-Song Series," and each plate being accompanied by appropriate selected poems, the whole of the parts being pleasant gift books, but not really artistic work.

Painting on porcelain is becoming a popular amusement with us, and a little book carelessly entitled 'China Painting,' by Florence Lewis (Cassell & Co.), will serve to introduce to the technical mysteries of that branch of decorative art those who already know something of painting. Its patterns are carefully executed chromos, which perhaps serve as well as any on paper could, but which will not show what troubles the beginner most, the change of color in firing. The taste of using realistic design in purely decorative work is debatable, but we do not accept it as in accordance with the best traditions and examples, or with the rationale of decorative art. Such work, to perform its function, must avoid all pretext of utility, and not try to do what it cannot do better than can be done by other methods. The best decorative art the world has yet seen, and the best schools of decoration to-day—the Japanese, Chinese, Persian, and Indian—employ designs either geometric or conventional. This is owing to a sound and correct taste (not to use the disputable term "art-instinct"). Naturalism is almost unavoidably the death of that freedom and playfulness which ought to be the element of true decorative design, and good ornament is consistent with the widest departure from nature.

John Wiley & Sons have issued the last two numbers of Ruskin's *Fors Clavigera*. "Dust of Gold" (apparently a reply to sundry hectoring letters, from young women who fear that they are plain, about the late number in which he prescribes seven beaux for every belle: "What are plain girls to do?") and "Ashestiel," a medley on Mungo Park and Sir Walter Scott. As the truest picture of the man Ruskin which he has ever permitted to be published, *Fors Clavigera* merits study of a more serious character than it has generally found.

The November *Portfolio* comes with two brilliant and exceptionally good etchings, one of the interior of Westminster Abbey, a good specimen of printing as well as etching; the other, of "Meadows at Marlow on the Thames," by Brandard, a plate which distinctly betrays the taste and training of a line engraver. The articles on Glasgow and Ravenna are needlessly weak in the illustrations, and that on Parisian architecture very well illustrated as usual.

The *Magazine of Art* for January (Cassell & Co.) contains, as usual, a large number of woodcuts not notable for any superlative quality. The most taking article is that on Carlyle, with all the known portraits, of which the only good one (as here rendered) is Boehm's statue. Whistler's portrait is villanously mistranslated. The frontispiece is a block-phototype print after Burne Jones's "Evening Star"—more interesting as reproduction than as picture.

The uncovering of the new façade of the Duomo at Florence took place on the 5th, accompanied by immense enthusiasm. The conclusion of this really admirable work, so long awaited, and which effaces one of the most annoying disfigurements of Florentine architecture, will as a whole be a great pleasure to visitors to Florence, whatever exception to the *ensemble* may be taken by the anti-restorationists.

D. Appleton & Co. have issued a revised edition of their 'Hand-book of Winter Resorts,' which is well calculated to give one a general survey of the field if not to determine one's choice. Those who have visited Monterey (Cal.) will find the account of it here given an understatement. If the editor, too, will read the last report of the State Geologist of New Jersey, he will perhaps feel justified in grouping the resorts of this State by themselves, as in the case of those of South Carolina, Florida, etc.; more of them, at least, ought to be mentioned.

Grace Greenwood has provided American girls with a volume of interesting and healthful reading, in her life of Queen Victoria in the "Exemplary Women" series (New York: John R. Anderson and Henry S. Allen). If exemplary means suitable to serve as an example, it may be asked whether the surroundings of royalty may not so far obscure the native elements of character, that the book, however entertaining and instructive, will fail of its direct moral purpose. This can only be answered by giving the book a trial. The autho

herself, in the preface, expresses her opinion on this matter with excellent sense: "I have done my work, if lightly, with entire respect, though always as an American and a republican. I could not do otherwise, for, though it has made me in love with a few royal people, it has not made me in love with royalty. I cannot but think that so far from its being a condition of itself ennobling to human character, those born into it have often to fight to maintain a native nobility—as Queen Victoria has fought, as Prince Albert fought—for I find the 'blameless Prince' saying: 'To my mind, the exaltation of royalty is only possible through the personal character of the sovereign.'" These words of Prince Albert express the spirit in which the work has been done; and they indicate also, we think, the real greatness of Victoria as a queen—that, for almost the first time on a large scale and for a long series of years, the moral standard of private life has been carried into the government of a great nation, and given it its character. A statesman of Mr. Gladstone's type is a fitting outcome of the Victorian period. The book, if it sometimes aims too directly at liveliness, is always entertaining and in a good spirit. One can hardly open at a page without being drawn on to read further. There are three portraits of Queen Victoria, one of Prince Albert, and one of the Duchess of Kent, mother of the Queen.

To teach athletics to the British nation would seem presumptuous on the part of Americans. The London firm of Sampson Low & Co., however, have bespoken of the Messrs. Harper a set of plates of Mr. Blaikie's new manual for home and school, 'Sound Bodies for Our Boys and Girls.'

Information comes to us from England that Mr. R. H. Shepherd proposes to issue shortly a reprint of the now very rare Boston 1827 edition of 'Tamerlane and Other Poems,' in which Poe's poems were for the first time collectively published. Not more than three or four copies are known to have survived an untoward fate. Mr. Shepherd's edition is limited to 100 copies.

A work deserving the attention of students of art history is the finely illustrated historical study by J. Rolland, on the Cathedral of Ste. Cécile, at Albi, France (Toulouse, 1883). This cathedral, which contains some remarkable art productions, including statues of the Apostles, and a painting of the Last Judgment, was begun during the troublous time in the Albigenses country about 1282, under the Bishopric of Bernard di Castanet, and completed in 1383. Many of the paintings and decorations show an Italian influence, some as late as the fifteenth century. The massive construction of the building, with its donjon-shaped towers, has a decided military aspect. The building has lately been restored, and the admirable photographs accompanying the work show it in all its primitive beauty and grandeur.

Outing and the *Wheelman* have become one—the latter absorbing the former, and remaining a very handsome and readable magazine (Boston: The Wheelman Co.).

We regret to read in the *Athenæum Belge* for December 15 an announcement of the discontinuance of that excellent journal, which has had a modest but useful existence for six years. Its continuance by other hands, the editors hope, is assured.

From across the water comes the news that the publication of the British journal of astronomy, *Copernicus*, is to be discontinued. This is much to be regretted, as *Copernicus* has held a unique place among scientific journals, the papers and articles which it contained being such as were found in no other periodical, and, moreover, being invariably of a very high order of excellence. The reason given for its discontinuance is that the editors cannot find contributors, and if this is the case it surely is a sad commentary on the present state of astronomical science in England.

The great comet which appeared in the autumn of 1882 is destined to take its place among the most remarkable of these celestial visitants, and it is satisfactory to know that permanent contributions to its literature are beginning to appear. The most recent of these is a quarto paper by Mr. William C. Winlock, assistant astronomer at the Naval Observatory, in which he has made a careful discussion of all the observations of this comet taken at the Naval Observatory, and arranged them in the most convenient form for future use. The paper is illustrated with several plates, containing drawings of the nucleus and head of the comet, and with diagrams showing the manner in which the observations for position were made. These diagrams will be of much value, as the chief difficulty in investigating the orbit of this comet has been due to the fact that different observers used different parts of the nucleus to observe on, and in many cases failed to mention the part which they used.

—A remarkable auction sale occurred lately in this city. It is nothing new that a large and valuable library should be accumulated in Providence, nor that it should be sold by auction. But it is new that the owner of such a collection of books should give five thousand dollars' worth apiece to ten libraries to be bought at the sale. The effect of the innovation on the prices was striking, and probably not foreseen by the donor. Ten dangerous competitors were added to the usual number of buyers at such sales. Most of the libraries to whom the bequest was made were poor, and would, in the ordinary course of things, not have sent any bids. It is always doubtful whether buyers at an auction have a right to agree not to bid against one another; in the present case it would have been in the highest degree dishonorable. Accordingly no such agreement was made. The ten beneficiaries bid independently, and, as each wished to spend the whole of his five thousand, and felt afraid that if he did not secure something early he should be left in the latter sessions with much money and few books that he cared to buy, the bidding was active and the prices unusually high from the very start. Many books brought from fifty to a hundred per cent. above their market value—that is, ordinary books, for the great rarities were not extravagantly dear. The consequence is that the ten libraries find that their nominal five thousand dollars has brought them about three thousand dollars' worth of books, for which it would be only human nature that they should not feel quite as grateful as if it had been called only three thousand at the beginning. The arrangement was an experiment. We shall be curious to see if it is repeated. It seems to have worked chiefly for the benefit of the auctioneer.

—*Harper's* for January opens with three good illustrated articles, "The Quaker Poet," with a portrait of Whittier, by Harriet Prescott Spofford; "At Mentone" (first instalment) by Constance Fenimore Woolson, and "The Old Packet and Clipper Service," by G. W. Sheldon. There is very little critical or essayistic writing except in the "Easy Chair," from which post of observation Mr. Curtis discusses several topics of the day, among others that of popular city government. If we have a bad government, he says, it is because we do not care to have a better one, or even "to try to have" one. "No device can supply the want of public spirit." This is true enough, but on the other hand public spirit can not be pumped into a city by demonstrations that the city would be the better for a larger supply of it. Public spirit, like private spirit, grows out of a feeling that political work will tell, will produce results. New York political cynicism, which among certain classes is pretty deep-seated, is the product of experience, and as such deserves respect from those who have a regard for the Veracities. Has the New York cynic, by the way—the amiable cynic, who believes not merely in the general corruption of the times, but that corruption is the motive power by which the city is carried on, and that the very reformers who get up "citizens' movements" and mass meetings are not themselves beyond suspicion—has this type ever been put into a novel?

—Mr. E. V. Smalley has in the *Century* a very good account of General Sherman, whose name will undoubtedly remain as one of the greatest produced by the war. Looking back to that period, it is hard to recall the contemporary impressions produced by his career, or to believe that the time when he was thought to be a little out of his head by some people was the critical moment in which he was really proving his right to the title of a great commander. "Husbandry in Colonial Times," by Edward Eggleston, is a good illustrated article, and among the serials most readers of the magazines will be surprised to find the concluding number of "The Breadwinners." We say surprised, because the foundations of the story were broad enough to suggest a much longer novel. As it stands its chief importance lies in the portrait of Maud Matchin—a type that had not before made its way into fiction. As a product of American life Maud is a repulsive figure. The one attraction is her beauty. The other qualities—her vanity, her want of respect for her parents, her gross ignorance, set off as it is by her superficial school-girl smattering of knowledge, her greed for money (or the jewels and dress and "carriage-riding" and luxuries that money implies), her consummate vulgarity—make her more odious than many a character of a more conventionally depraved sort; and yet it cannot be denied that the author has represented Maud as the result of conditions of life hardly to be found anywhere except in this country. "The Forty Immortals" of the French Academy (by "Y. D.") is a good illustrated article, and among the "open letters" will be found a disputation on the good old subject of "New York as a field for fiction," by Mr. W. H. Bishop and Mr. H. C. Bunner. After all, the only way to solve this problem is that which has been adopted in all large cities—to try it. This both these gentlemen have done, and for that very reason we are the more surprised that they should care much about the question in the abstract. No amount of critical writing will ever convince us that New York is really a good field for fiction, as the appearance of a thoroughly good New York novel will.

—Mr. Henry James contributes to the January *Atlantic* some pleasant reminiscences of Turgeneff, of whom he saw a good deal in Paris. A strange and interesting figure he seems to have been in the little literary coterie of which he was a sort of honorary member, and in nothing stranger, evidently, than in his lack of vanity. Mr. James is so much at home in Paris, he sees things so easily and quickly from the Parisian point of view, that he noticed in Turgeneff just what his French friends probably noticed—besides other matters of which they would have taken no thought. A genius without vanity, a man "impersonal" to the point of

being far more interested in the subjects he discussed than in his own relation to them, remained to the last something of a mystery to most of the clever but decidedly "personal" Frenchmen with whom he associated. He was in truth, as it is easy to see from his stories, more of a poet than a literary "artist." His poetry was that of human character and destiny, and it is interesting to learn that he had no methodical system of novel-writing, but was inspired, as we fancy many great novelists have been before him, by his characters. What first presented itself to his mind was not a plot or story, but a living human being, out of whose character a naturally dramatic novel evolved itself. None but geniuses can write in this way. In Thackeray, in George Eliot, in Flaubert, we recognize the breed to which Turgeneff belonged. He seems to have taken little practical interest in the fierce strife over literary theories which shakes Paris to its centre from time to time, and wrote without any theory simply what came into his head. Doctor Holmes has a poem on the Saturday club, which recalls the days of Agassiz, Emerson, and Longfellow, and might be taken as a text for the next article on the "decadence of Boston." Certainly a great change has come over Boston since their day. There are Darwinians and Evolutionists where the great Swiss naturalist used to stand; there is a lecturer on Emerson who denies him the first place as a philosopher, and as for poets, the race in Boston seems to have nearly died out. The feeling that the niches left vacant will never be exactly filled is a very natural one; but what is called the decadence of Boston as a literary centre, *i. e.*, the failure of any signs of a new intellectual growth comparable to the old one in the hold which it took upon the popular imagination, is a phenomenon not peculiar to that city, but one which extends all over the world. The general modern industrial feeling that literature is a poor sort of business to be in, and one which does not pay, accounts for it in part. As we leave New England and go west we find this anti-literary feeling stronger and stronger, but in the last twenty years it has begun to affect even Boston very powerfully, and to lead the young Bostonian to look upon a life devoted to things not material more, perhaps, after the manner of the bright Chicago drummer than he would have done a generation ago. There is something very silly about writing for a living, when you consider how much you have to write, and how poor a living you get, and how much more rapidly and easily you could succeed if you would drudge for a few years at dry-goods, or, better still, get the right "points" in stocks.

—Mr. Louis Judson Swinburne has an article on "Matthew Arnold in America," in the last number of *Lippincott's*, in which he insists upon the importance of Mr. Arnold's visit as that of the first genuine critic who has been over here. The function of criticism is so doubtfully regarded by most of us that his trip has already been productive of much comment of a curious sort. The early generation of travellers who came to this country and afterward amused themselves by publishing accounts of what they had seen were not critics in the sense in which we now employ the word. From Mrs. Trollope to Dickens, they brought with them not a desire to "see the thing as it is," but to compare what they found with what they had been accustomed to at home, and with what we promised they should find here; and their prejudices, favorable or unfavorable, played a most important part in their mental equipment. Mr. Arnold, on the other hand, is what may be called a cosmic critic of the modern school, whose only prejudice is against prejudice itself. The number of people in the entire world who really believe in criticism of the cosmic sort is very small, and probably smaller in the United States than in England, and in England than in France or Germany. Mr. Norman Pearson writes on undergraduate life at Oxford, and gives a curious account of the way in which he says the 'Tom Brown' literature has reacted upon the tendencies of manners at Rugby: "The Rugbeian character is of a very distinct and not always very agreeable type. It is 'Tom Brown' pushed to a morbid excess. The ideal set up in that admirable book is that of an English school-boy *par excellence*—sturdy, straightforward, truthful, firm to his principles, and with an honest scorn of anything mean or tricksome. In the Rugby school-boy of the present day these qualities are apt to degenerate into a certain priggishness, combined with an arrogant contempt for the feelings and opinions of others, an unpleasant roughness of manner, and a habit of flat contradiction which verges on the insolent."

— The November number of the *Antiquary* contains the second part of an article by Mr. G. Lawrence Gomme, upon "Primitive Agricultural Implements." The purpose of the article is expressed in the opening sentence, which speaks of the instructiveness of a method of archæological study which traces "step by step the development in any branch of culture or industry." This idea is carried out by tracing the development of agricultural implements, first in the stone age and then in the bronze. Both papers have interesting engravings, those of the second part being especially so. One illustrates a method of reaping, described by Pliny and Palladius, in which a sort of cart, with a toothed edge, is pushed by an ox against the standing corn; another, a process of reaping depicted in an Anglo-Saxon manuscript. An article by Clapton Rolfe upon the coloring of illuminated manuscripts vindicates the accuracy of these against a newly advanced theory. The argument rests mainly upon the fact that the illuminations give, in ecclesiastical vestments, only the five colors which are known to have been employed in England for this purpose—gold, blue, purple, red, and white. Two articles, one of them by J. King Watts, contain interesting facts in relation to early land tenures, etc., and an anonymous article proposes in "Measure for Measure," Act iii., Scene 1, the reading "*deleted* spirit" for *delighted*. An article by C. E. Keyser describes the various portrayals of St. Christopher in England.

—The *Revue Historique* for September-October contains an article by M. Xenopol upon the origin of the Rumanian or Wallachian people—a subject which has been ardently debated since the publication of Rösler's treatise in 1871, which undertook to prove that these people are not the descendants of Trajan's colonists in Dacia, but migrated across the Danube from the South in the thirteenth century. This theory has been generally accepted by German scholars, although it has always appeared to us unsatisfactory: a population of 3,000,000 in Hungary alone, to say nothing of Rumania, is not so easily accounted for by a migration which has neither distinct record nor adequate cause. Neither is it easy to believe that a community which has occupied a territory 150 years should disappear from it so completely as Rösler's theory assumes to have been the case. The Romans struck deep roots in every country which they occupied, and when we find in the nineteenth century several millions of people, speaking a language of Latin derivation, in a country which the Romans held for a century and a half, it would require the most positive evidence to make us believe that there was no connection between the two facts. M. Xenopol shows in this article that there is no such overwhelming weight of testimony, and, in fact, that there is pretty good evidence of the persistency of the Romanized population during the Middle Ages. He considers the opposing arguments in detail: The fact that the Rumanians have the Bulgarian form of Christianity he explains by their country having formed part of the first Bulgarian kingdom (ending 1018); the Slavonian character of the Slavic elements in their language (rather than Ruthenian), by the same circumstance; the alleged paucity of Dacian or Roman proper names, by pointing to the names of several rivers, and especially of mountains. Names of cities would, of course, not be preserved by a people which took refuge in the mountains, but it is noticed that the Rumanians give to the cities of Transylvania their Slavic names rather than the German or Magyar, from which it is inferred that they occupied the country after the Slavs entered it, and before either Germans or Magyars came. The Albanian elements of the language he attributes to the native Dacians of Thracian or Albanian race; and, in fine, he adduces several allusions to Wallachians in this region which seem inconsistent with the alleged migration. The same number of the *Revue* contains the second and concluding part of a very valuable article by M. Fustel de Coulanges upon the Immunities of the Merovingian period.

— A year and a day ago we called the attention of our mirth-loving readers to the oddest of all eccentricities in book-making, namely, the 'Schlau, Schläuer, am Schläusten' of C. M. Seyppel, or the tale of King Rhampsinitus and his treasure-house, printed on torn, stained, almost mouldy leaves, as if an Egyptian find of remote antiquity. The success of this "Ægyptische Humoreske," with its comical German verse, and its screaming illustrations after the Nile monuments, has inspired a still more elaborate joke, 'Er, Sie, Es,' by the same artist and the same publisher (Düsseldorf: Felix Bagel; New York: Westermann). In the present case, Seyppel has abandoned Herodotus, and trusted to his own wit in inventing a sequel to his former work. He (in the person of a would-be poet laureate, ready to lampoon the reigning monarch if his ambition is not gratified) tells how the clever thief who married the daughter of the late Rhampsinitus contrived to obtain a plébiscite in his own favor, as against his wife, for the succession to the throne. A final spree on the eve of his coronation involves him in perils requiring all his craft to extricate himself. In the civil dissension *Krimsab* acts as moderator, readily recognized as Bismarck by the three spikes on his helmet and by other signs. The fun is very good, but the ingenuity is not quite on a par with that of the legend of Herodotus. The archæological make-up, however, even surpasses last year's performance, particularly in the cover, which is an excellent imitation of mummy cloth, and bears a solid green seal of King Ruppsippos (the "Er" of the story). Dr. Georg Ebers, in a published letter, testifies to his enjoyment of this burlesque, all the more because of its fidelity to Egyptian art. Caricaturist as he is, Seyppel here and there—as in the picture of Ruppsippos crawling through the drain, and in the laughable design at the very end of the book—indulges his sense of beauty, which may never, however, win him greater renown than his invention of this extraordinary mode of "illustration."

—The large attendance at the first concert for young people, which Mr. Theodore Thomas and his orchestra gave on Saturday afternoon at Steinway Hall, proved that there was a real

demand for such a series of entertainments. The audience consisted of young and old children in about equal proportions, and all the pieces on the programme were welcomed with signs of appreciation. There is plenty of pianoforte music specially designed for youthful performers and bearers, but for the orchestra the range of juvenile literature is not extensive, and the programmes have to be chosen, therefore, from the standard works of the great masters, preference being given to what is graceful in melody, simple in harmony and rhythm, and, if possible, connected with some tangible image or story which facilitates comprehension. These characteristics were found in Saturday's programme, which was as follows: Overture to "Preciosa"; Larghetto, Beethoven's Second symphony; an aria from "Magic Flute"; Scherzo and Wedding March, from "Midsummer Night's Dream"; ballet air, "Paris and Helene" (Gluck); Waldweben, from Wagner's "Siegfried." The Beethoven and Wagner selections might seem at first sight rather "heavy" for children, but they are not. The larghetto is as simple in melody and structure as one of those fairy tales, of Grimm or Andersen, which old and young alike appreciate; and Wagner's Waldweben is such a realistic translation into tones of the idyllic scene where *Siegfried* lies under a tree and listens to the rustling of the leaves and the twittering of the birds, that no one could fail to appreciate this tone-poem. The vocal numbers were sung with clear voice and distinct enunciation by Miss Amy Sherwin. None of the children showed any signs of fatigue to the end of the programme, and the best proof that the concert was appreciated was shown in the manner in which the ticket-office was surrounded at the close for seats for the next concert, which will take place on January 12, at 2 P. M. It will consist of the following programme, which is, if anything, even more appropriate than the first: Overture, "Magic Flute"; airs de ballet from Gluck's "Orpheus"; Allegretto, Beethoven's Eighth symphony; Schubert songs (Miss Ella Earle); Weber-Berlioz's "Invitation to Dance"; Rossini's "Tell" overture; variations on "God Save the Emperor," Haydn; Schumann's "Two Grenadiers" (Mr. Remmertz); Gounod's "Funeral March of a Marionette"; Strauss's "Blue Danube Waltz."

JAMES'S WILD TRIBES OF THE SUDAN.

The Wild Tribes of the Soudan: An Account of Travel and Sport, chiefly in the Basé Country. Being Personal Experiences and Adventures during Three Winters in the Soudan. By F. L. James, M.A., F.R.G.S. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE appearance of this book at this particular time is certainly very opportune for the author and the publisher. All eyes are turned towards the Sudan, to see what new move will be made by El Mahdi and his horde of fanatical followers. Every one is anxious to know all that can be learned about those savage tribes which could, in a single battle, completely destroy an Egyptian army of 10,500 men, officered and commanded by Englishmen of rank and distinction. And if the book we have under consideration contained any information concerning the country and people of that part of the Sudan which is the field of the False Prophet's operations, the author's apology, in his preface, "for adding another to the numerous books of travel that have been written during the last few years on Africa," would be entirely unnecessary.

Unfortunately, however, for the reader in search of knowledge of the Sudan, the title is misleading and deceptive in the highest degree. The mongrel people which our author very sparingly describes, are really not Sudanese at all. They are a very insignificant tribe dwelling in a border land which lies between Abyssinia and the Sudan. Abyssinia is a high mountainous plateau region. The Sudan is a vast region of rivers and plains, deserts and jungles, which extends from the Nile indefinitely westward, and comprehends many provinces and peoples. Between these two is a hilly, broken country, in a part of which dwell the Basé. Like their country, they are a half-and-half-race, the result of a mixture of the Abyssinians with the real negroes of the further interior, with perhaps a small infusion of Arab blood in their veins. There are other similar tribes in the vicinity of Abyssinia. The Bogos tribe and the Shohos, who inhabit the hill country lying between the northern provinces of Abyssinia and the Red Sea coast on either side of Massowah, are a very similar people—similarly located and similar in appearance, manners, customs, and general characteristics. These border tribes, living thus between the fierce, semi-civilized, nominally Christian Abyssinians on the one side, and the crafty, well-organized, though decaying Mohammedan Arabs on the other, enjoy the unenviable position of being a sort of buffers between national powers greater than themselves. The Swiss, under somewhat similar circumstances, have been compressed and consolidated into a most homogeneous unit, whose internal strength has been able to resist centuries of external attrition. The African border tribes, on the contrary, are ground into a kind of ethnical powder, and are almost entirely devoid of tribal coherence. As Mr. James says of them, every man's hand is against them, and their hand against every man. Yet they are not friendly among themselves, and can hardly be said to have any tribal existence.

But when the inhabitants of a certain number of villages possess in common a predominance of certain characteristics, they are designated by a common tribal name. Such are the Basé, in whose country our author travelled and hunted during three seasons. His reasons for selecting their country were twofold. The Basé were an unknown people and their land a *terra incognita*. No Englishman had ever visited it except a Mr. Powell and his wife, who were murdered by the treacherous natives. But the grand charm which lured Mr. James and his party to this inhospitable region, and made them brave the craft and cruelty of a persecuted people, was that their country had not been "shot over," and was not "shot out" by huntsmen, as were other parts of Africa which were otherwise more attractive and more accessible.

And this gives us the reason not only for the journey, but for the book. The author is evidently a most enthusiastic hunter, and very proud of his prowess; and his book is little more than the diary of a huntsman. We have in the first few pages the usual description of preparations and outfitting for African travel; the gathering and organization of a party; the selection and securing of servants, waiters and cooks; and in this case even the employment of a doctor, who proved to be a personage very difficult to find to the entire satisfaction of the principals of the expedition. But in good time a start is made from England, and then comes the addition of Arab attendants in Cairo, followed by the trip to Suakim, and the gathering of camels, horses, porters, camel-drivers, and ostlers, and the organization of a caravan, with all the usual hindrances and delays caused by haggling traders. With all of these details readers of African travel are familiar *ad nauseam*. But we are destined to have several repetitions of the same dose.

From Suakim to Cassala the party finally journeys over a desert route, and accomplishes a disagreeable march with but little incident worthy of note. The sickness and death of one of the servants show Mr. James to be a kind and thoughful master, and here it may be mentioned that in all his travels, and under all circumstances, he seems to have been humane to the people with him, and to those among whom he went. This is in pleasant and striking contrast to the conduct of some travellers who have visited Africa for exploration or sport. At Cassala more preparations are made, more camels bought or hired, more camel-drivers obtained, and guides secured. And now, after having been with this party for one month and a half, and having followed their chief and chronicler through sixty pages of his book, we are invited to start on the long-promised visit to the Basé, and the untried hunting-grounds which they inhabit. The route follows the dry bed of the Gash, camping places being found either where water stands in pools in the river's bed, or where wells have been dug by the natives. Sometimes the trail leaves the river to cut off a bend in the stream, and carries the caravan through the thorny jungles of the banks. The party finds game abundant *en route* and in the vicinity of the various camps, so that the larder is well supplied with the flesh of fowls and ruminating animals. But they are much disappointed at the scarcity of lions, elephants, giraffes, and other nobler game.

After two weeks of this life we are at last presented to the Basé near one of their small villages, on the 30th day of January. The next day, a larger village, named Koolookoo, is approached, and we become better acquainted with the people whom we were told in the beginning were so formidable that friends and well-wishers of our party had advised against visiting them. The Basé proved to be, however, a very timid folk. At the first sight of the approaching strangers, hundreds of men, women, and children fly from their homes, and clamber, in frightened crowds, up the almost inaccessible heights behind their village. Friendly signs and the display of presents bring about a palaver, which results in the villagers becoming not only very friendly, but distressingly affectionate. The whole population abandons the village and surrounds the camp, seeking presents of beads and strips of cloth, and provisions. Though they become troublesome to the travellers, they serve one useful purpose in acting as scavengers for the camp. They eat voraciously all cast-off parts of the game.

From Koolookoo the hunters advance by a few short marches further up the river, until they reach a point where it is called the Mareb, thus establishing a geographical point of some importance, namely, that the Gash and the Abyssinian river Mareb are one and the same stream. Game becomes very abundant, and the hunters have fine sport. Buffaloes are frequently "bagged," an ostrich is stalked, elephant tracks are seen, and our Nimrods begin to feel that their brightest anticipations are about to be realized. But disaster awaits them. Two of the party, while hunting, encounter a company of Abyssinians about a hundred strong. They endeavor to make friends with the new-comers, and foolishly lay down their arms as a sign of peaceful intentions. At once the Abyssinians pounce upon the rifles, seize the horses, strip the hunters of their paraphernalia and some of their clothing, spear their servant, who offers some resistance, and hustle the whole party about in a very rough manner. But they manage to escape from their treacherous assailants, and make

their way back to camp. Here confusion and fear reign supreme for a while. Camel-drivers are about to stampede; guides are grumbling; servants are trembling. The Englishmen succeed in restoring order, but find in a few days that it is inexpedient to remain longer where they are, and impossible to advance. So their steps are retraced to a station named Haikota, about three days' march from Cassala. From this point the party moves across the country to the Settite River, and spends three weeks more in hunting and fishing, the Settite being a beautiful running stream. This part of the narrative is perhaps the most interesting, but it is too nearly a repetition of what has gone before to justify an extended notice of it. From the Settite a long and tiresome journey is made to Massowah, *via* the Egyptian posts of Amideb and Keren or Sanheit.

Such is a brief outline of Mr. James's story. We shall now have something to say of the manner and style in which that story is told. Briefly, it is very badly told. The descriptions of scenery and topography are not at all graphic, though the excellent woodcuts, made from photographs taken from nature, show that a real lover of nature might easily have been stirred to enthusiasm in making pen-and-ink pictures. The account given of the Basé tribe is altogether inadequate, considering the fact that Mr. James claims to have been the first European to make their acquaintance. Even the hunting experiences which, as has been already remarked, form the burden of the book, are told in a style so tame and halting that one feels grieved that so good material should be so badly used. After reading Captain Cumming's spirited descriptions of his famous hunting exploits, one follows Mr. James's feeble narrative with a feeling of impatience. Sir Samuel Baker, too, not only shot well, but wrote well, and carried his reader with a rush through his hardy adventures. It is true, some critics who knew Sir Samuel well declare that the accounts of his deeds are too highly colored, or are even apocryphal in some cases. Yet no one denies that his books are very entertaining reading. Mr. James's style is often very clumsy, sometimes even ungrammatical, and generally colloquial and inelegant.

The publishers' part in the manufacture of this book is, if we except the more gaudy than tasteful cover, worthy of all praise. The paper and print are both excellent, and few palpable typographical errors mar the letterpress. The illustrations are generally beautifully engraved. The maps are well executed, and the one containing the author's itinerary through the Basé country contains some new and valuable geographical information.

Life of William Rollinson Whittingham, Fourth Bishop of Maryland. By William Francis Brand. With portrait and facsimiles. E. & J. B. Young & Co. 1883. 2 vols.

THE interest of these bulky volumes will be almost exclusively for Bishop Whittingham's co-religionists, and more particularly for such of these as are more deeply interested in ecclesiastical than in moral and spiritual things. Bishop Whittingham was an ecclesiastic in every fibre of his mind. Whatever of personal, social, or domestic interests he may have had, they were subordinate to his ecclesiastical vocation. Such, at any rate, is the impression that we get from this biography. But the reason of this may be that his biographer was attracted to him mainly on the ecclesiastical side. Certain it is that he has given us hardly a glimpse of any other. We have hundreds of pages of official correspondence, memoranda, etc., and we have hardly anything besides.

The life of Bishop Whittingham had a remarkable consistency. He was a Nazarite from the womb. The impulse of his character and career came from his mother, a woman of remarkable abilities, who assumed the sole responsibility of shaping his mind, resenting any interference, and she never abdicated her original position. So long as she lived she claimed the first place in his affections, the first voice in his affairs. Unable as a child to enjoy her Christmas presents because thinking "We must die," this intense religiosity marked every period of her life and was transmitted to her son. It is astonishing that he was ever able to hold an active and influential position among men, his childhood and his youth were nursed in such inviolable seclusion. Seeking entrance to the theological seminary, he was asked at what college he had graduated, and answered, "None; my mother has always taught me." "But who taught you Latin, Greek, and Hebrew?" continued the examiners. "My mother," he replied. At this time he is described as being nearly six feet in height and very thin, wearing a round-about jacket and a wide turn-over collar, making a most unclerical appearance. His fellow-students were at first inclined to laugh at him, but his genuine manliness soon compelled their admiration.

The account given of his wedding-day is as characteristic of the man as any passage in his biography. It was on the 15th of April, 1830, when he was twenty-four years old. He arose at a quarter after five, and after exercises of devotion read the last of Bishop Ravenscroft's sermons and commented on it. After breakfast he drove from New York to Orange, New Jersey, with a friend, the two conferring as they went "on the test of Christian standing from St. John v. 30, and also on the power of grace in the destruction of evil tempers from Luke iv. 33–36." Arrived at Orange, he spent an hour at the piano with his parents and sisters. After dinner he wrote out a sketch of a sermon on "Overcoming evil dispositions through the grace of God," "thus fixing the thoughts of the forenoon." Then he visited a sick parishioner and solaced him with prayer and Scriptural exposition. The remainder of the afternoon he spent alone in meditation and prayer. In the evening he wrote a sketch of a sermon on "The example of Christ," finishing it just in time to proceed to the marriage ceremony at the church. At the wedding supper he obtained from a hesitating parishioner "an almost promise to receive baptism, and a full acknowledgment of the necessity of so doing."

Here we have in little all the sphere of the good Bishop's life. Holding an office to which the taint of worldliness has frequently attached, a less worldly man than he, it would be safe to say, has never been a servant of the Church. He was narrow in his culture and his sympathies, but he brought to his ecclesiastical labors an entire devotion, an unwearying consecration. The temper of the man was as ascetic as that of Dominic or Francis; its habit different from theirs only because he fell upon a different time. His abjuration of the "pomps and vanities" was no verbal matter. Not only the theatre but the oratorio he denied himself, as not tending to edification. Here was a nineteenth-century Puritan, an American Calvin, who would fain have made his diocesan rule as strict as Calvin's at Geneva. But he was a Puritan with a difference. He was very far from Puritanism in his delight in ceremonial observances. Romanizing tendencies, so called, were conspicuous in his speech and action. He magnified the ritual and the sacraments. Houses of religious celibates found favor in his eyes.

His earliest work was for the Sunday-School Union. A rectorship in Orange followed; then work in New York at denominational editing and publishing, and the rectorship of St. Luke's. An incident of his labors here was the great fire in New York, on which he preached a sermon for which a captivated listener gave him $20,000 cash for charitable purposes. Sickness, threatening consumption, drove him abroad in 1834 for fifteen months. He came back to a theological professorship, which he exchanged in 1840 for the bishopric of Maryland, and he held this office till his death, October 17, 1879. He was born December 2, 1805.

The Maryland bishopric was no sinecure. Its affairs at Bishop Whittingham's coming were in the most depressed condition. Gradually he brought order out of chaos, and established a rule that reflected ample credit on his administrative ability. When the civil war broke out he threw himself cautiously but firmly on the Union side. A reviewer of these volumes in the *American Church Review* wishes "that the recording angel might drop a tear upon this episode of Bishop Whittingham's career and blot it out forever." But to many it will wear a very different appearance. His biographer is careful to inform us "how utterly he abhorred that spirit which was cherished as philanthropy and called abolitionism." Yet he held that the white population was more injured by slavery than the black, and the slaveholding portion most of all; also that its abolition was impossible, "and its attempt *in any way* by the North, an enormous crime." Here was an astonishing position for a man to hold. But more astonishing was his assertion that while holding slavery to be a great social evil, the wisest and best of the Southern people had "no hope of its being removed from their posterity." The war was not for him the dawn of such a hope. It was not slavery but secession that put the South in the wrong, and justified national coercion. The Bishop's thinking here was of a piece with all his thinking: authority, prescription, custom, tradition were his ultimate foundations. To find a rational basis for doctrine or conduct was no part of his ambition; but what seemed to him right, for any reason, to that he held fast. His adherence to the Union cost him many friends. He would not have swerved if it had cost him all.

So immersed was Bishop Whittingham in ecclesiastical affairs that his life, by whomsoever written, could not have been very interesting to the general reader; but his present biographer has made the worst of a bad matter. His style belies him if he does not hold that the use of language is to conceal our thoughts. A judicious writer could have made a book not half so large as this which would have helped to make the Bishop's fame endure a while. This is a premium upon the waters of oblivion, for except by a few ecclesiastical Dryasdusts it will not be read.

Telegraphic Determination of Longitudes in Japan, China, and the East Indies; with the Latitude of the Several Stations. By Lieut.-Commanders F. M. Green and C. H. Davis, and Lieut. J. A. Norris, U. S. N., in 1881 and 1882. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1883.

THE earlier geographic work of Lieutenant-Commander Green and his parties, in determining with modern precision the longitude and latitude of a large number of points on the globe, chiefly in the West Indies in 1877, and on the eastern coast of South America in 1878 and 1879, is well known. He has now added very largely to his already enviable record by the publication of the results of his later labors,

which establish the precise positions of a dozen eastern Asiatic stations with a probable accuracy far exceeding all the demands of navigation, and which will meet the needs of astronomy for a century to come.

The longitudes of very nearly all the prominent positions in the East Indian Archipelago, and on the shores of the China and Japan Seas and the Western Pacific Ocean have been referred by surveyors and hydrographers to one of the following points, viz.: Singapore, Batavia, Manila, Hong Kong, Shanghai, Nagasaki, and Yokohama, the accuracy of the chronometric measurements from these central points to the various capes, islets, mountains, towns, light-houses, and other prominent positions, some 3,000 in number, leaving little to be desired, were the longitudes of the initial points exactly known. Unfortunately this has not been the case. The longitudes of these secondary meridians, which have been accepted for the last forty years, have depended mostly upon observations of moon-culminations, made doubtless with great care, and with the best appliances available at the time, but liable, in common with all such determinations, to an uncertainty of from one to four minutes of arc. This uncertainty has, of course, affected in an equal degree all chronometric measurements from the meridians in question, and longitudes have consequently been shifted back ward and forward by hydrographers of different nations on their respective charts, according as a greater or less weight was theoretically attached to various determinations of the initial point.

The proposed publication of new charts of the China Sea, on a large scale, by the Hydrographic Office afforded an additional inducement to attempt the removal of the uncertainties attending the longitudes in this part of the world; and the completion of the measurement from Europe to the Atlantic ports of South America having liberated the instruments used for that purpose, a party of officers was organized by the Chief of the Bureau of Navigation in the winter of 1880 1881, with the object of determining telegraphically, from one or more established meridians, the longitudes of the points in Eastern waters from which American, English, French, Spanish, and Dutch surveyors had made several thousand chronometric measurements. This work had been urged upon the Navy Department by the National Academy of Sciences by resolution at its April meeting in Washington, in 1880.

The established points were at Madras, in British India, and at Vladivostok, on the Siberian coast. The observatory of Madras has been for many years the point from which the longitudes of British India have been reckoned. The position of Suez was determined with great care in 1874, by the English transit-of-Venus astronomers; and in 1876 and 1877, officers of the great trigonometrical survey of India connected Madras with Suez, through the cables by way of Aden and Bombay. The cables of the Great Northern Telegraph Company in Eastern waters extend from Vladivostok to Nagasaki, Shanghai, Amoy, and Hong Kong, while those of the Eastern Extension Company join Hong Kong, Manila, Cape St. James, Singapore, and Madras, a branch extending from Singapore to Batavia, and to Port Darwin on the northern coast of Australia.

In pursuance of the execution of this work, the necessary instruments and observatories were despatched from New York to Yokohama by way of London and the Suez Canal, to avoid the frequent trans-shipment of the trans-Pacific route, and arrived safely in Japan in the middle of April, 1881. The U. S. S. *Palos*, a small gunboat attached to the Asiatic Squadron, was selected to transport the officers and instruments from port to port, and Lieut.-Commanders F. M. Green and C. H. Davis, and Lieut. J. A. Norris, were detailed to make the observations, permission having been previously obtained from the companies owning the telegraph lines to use them for the exchange of time-signals, and from the various governments to set up instruments and make astronomical observations at the respective points.

It is not a little remarkable that, notwithstanding repeated applications regarding the subject, the officers of the Japanese Government neglected to designate some point authoritatively as the prime meridian of Japan. A permanent monument was, therefore, established on the grounds of the United States Naval Hospital at Yokohama, in such a position that when the meridian is decided upon, it can be conveniently and precisely connected with the chain of measurements. The first exchange of signals took place between Nagasaki and Yokohama on May 27, 1881, and the last measurements were made January 27, 1882, between Madras and Singapore, forming the completion of a chain 6,450 miles in length. The prime meridian of India passes through the observatory at Madras, and the kindness of Mr. Norman Pogson, the Government astronomer, greatly facilitated the connection of this long chain with the Indian meridian. The uniformly generous courtesy with which these officers of the American Government were attended is handsomely acknowledged by Mr. Green, and is worthy of especial note here:

"Our experience in other parts of the world,' he says, "had prepared us for a cordial reception and efficient assistance at the hands of the gentlemen in charge of the various telegraph cables, and our anticipations were not in the least disappointed. Not only was every assistance given in the execution of the work, but at stations away from the cities, where the officers would otherwise have been obliged to live very roughly, the kindest hospitality was extended to them. The names of all to whom acknowledgments are due would include a complete list of the officials of the cable companies at each station. The fact cannot be too strongly expressed that without the zealous and persevering coöperation of the telegraph officials, no such undertaking as this can be successful, and no one without absolute experience can realize the discouraging delays and difficulties which would be almost insurmountable without the cordial assistance of the members of the cable staff.

"It may not be out of place to state that the completion of this report terminates the association on duty of the three officers who have been principally engaged in the work, and who have successfully carried on similar undertakings together since 1877, two of them since 1874, without the slightest misunderstanding or breach of perfect harmony."

The conclusion of Mr. Green's longitude work in the Eastern seas affords a result of no inconsiderable moment, as illustrating the accuracy with which distant positions on the globe are telegraphically determinable. The cable-lines through Madras, Singapore, Hong Kong, Shanghai, and Vladivostok, employed by Mr. Green, give for the longitude of this last station 8h. 47m. 30.92s. Vladivostok has also been reached from Europe telegraphically across the overland lines of Siberia, and its position determined in 1875 by Colonel Scharnhorst, of the Russian Engineer Corps, to be 8h. 47m. 31.32s. The difference of the measurements by Siberia and by India thus is 0.39s.—a discrepancy of no great magnitude when the inevitable difficulties of the work and the vast lengths of longitude-chains are considered. Mr. Green has prefixed to his volume a chart of the world, showing in an admirable way the principal lines of submarine cables used for longitude determinations by all the different governments which have been engaged in such enterprises.

The globe has now been measured in arc, with a degree of accuracy closely approximating to the limit attainable with the modern instruments, from Yokohama (about 140° east of Greenwich) to San Francisco (about 120° west), leaving thus an arc of somewhat more than a quadrant, across the Pacific Ocean, still to be measured to complete the entire circuit.

Slavonic Literature. By W. R. Morfill, M. A. Published under the direction of the Committee of General Literature and Education, appointed by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. London. 1883.

THIS little book is a very timely and useful publication. It supplies a deeply felt want in English literature, for, as the author justly remarks, "there is nothing in our language on the subject, except the work of Mrs. Robinson (Talvj), published in 1850, at New York, which is now out of date." Mr. Morfill treats, in ten chapters, of the "Classification of the Slavonic Races"; of their "Nomenclature"; of the "Early Literature" of the Russians, the Malo-Russians and White Russians, the Bulgarians, and the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes — together forming the eastern branch of the Slavs; of the "Early Literature" of Poland and of Bohemia; of the Wends in Saxony and Prussia; and of the extinct Polabes on the lower Elbe and the Baltic. The author's subjects are the growth and primitive development of the various Slavic languages, their folklore, and their earliest literary compositions—these exclusively—and the real title of his work is to be found in the running-title, 'Early Slavonic Literature.' On the title-page, however, the word "Early" has been dropped, a serial heading, "The Dawn of European Literature," being placed above the title. Advertisements shorn of this heading may attract many a reader and purchaser anxious to obtain information about the lives and the masterpieces of Lermontoff and Pushkin, Tolstoi and Tchernyshevski, Mickiewicz and Krasinski, or other famous Slavic writers of our century and the preceding one. Such a purchaser will find to his surprise that the works of these authors are completely ignored, but will also easily discover that the book contains sound "Christian knowledge" fully worth the price, and much curious information about things he never dreamed of. For Mr. Morfill has executed his "compilation . . . from original authorities" with conscientious diligence, and with comprehensive linguistic and literary learning. In fact, if he has erred, it is by presenting to the common reader too much that is interesting only to the assiduous student of Slavic lore. His sources are the very best, and his topics well selected, but he is too fond of names, original terms, and titles. His unrhymed translations of Slavic songs are neatly executed. Among them are two gems of Serb popular poetry, ballads referring to the fatal battle of Kosovo, or properly Kosovo Polye (Blackbird Field), in which the army, the King, and the independence of Servia perished by the sword of the Turk.

The date of this battle, June 15, 1389, is correctly given on p. 8; on page 158 it is changed into "the 10th of June, 1383." We have noticed several other slips, mostly owing to careless revision—such as "Fa/merayer" (page 3) for Fallmerayer, and "Sineus" (page 26) and "Sineous" (page 28) as identical names—but they are not numerous. The author has made a very laudable attempt "to spell the proper names of those Slavonic nations which use the Cyrillic alphabet on a fixed and accurate plan"—which is very rarely done, as we have repeatedly pointed out in the columns of this journal—and has naturally "retained the original orthography" of "the names of those Slavonic peoples who use the Latin alphabet." But the want of the neces-

sary diacritical marks used by the Western Slavs —which it is surprising that the publishing society did not find means to procure—compelled him to use such misleading spellings as "casopis" for *časopis* (pronounced *tchasopis*), and "Jagic" for Jagič (pronounced *yaghitj*). Why he invariably uses "Slavonic" for Slavic, while he constantly uses "Slavs," which was formerly avoided on account of its un-English termination, we are at a loss to explain. It is, perhaps, owing to this constant use of "Slavonic" for Slavic (Ger. *Slavisch*, which is different from *Slawonisch*) that he scrupulously refrains from introducing Slavonia proper (*Slawonien*) among the countries and districts inhabited by the Slavs, always covering it by the term Croatia, Hungary, or Austria, each in its widest sense. The geographical references of the author are altogether very lax. On page 2, Northeastern Hungary is forgotten as one of the seats of the Ruthenes ("Rousines"), and the Serbo-Croats are made to inhabit the "Principality" of Servia, following a Russian author who wrote before Servia became a kingdom. According to page 6, "the Russian language is hemmed in on the west by Polish, Magyar, and Rumanian, on the south by Little-Russian"; but Russian, in the sense of Great-Russian, in contradistinction to Little-Russian—as here spoken of—is hemmed in west by the latter idiom, and separated by it from both Magyar and Rumanian. On page 39, Buda is explained to be "the name of one of the parts of Pesth"—an explanation equally uncalled for and incorrect: Buda and Pesth form now one municipality, the capital city Buda-Pesth, but neither is a part of the other, and both may be presumed to be equally well known to readers of so learned a book as the one before us.

Political Recollections: 1840–1872. By George W. Julian. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 12mo.

MR. JULIAN was one of the earliest of the anti-slavery men who took the question into politics by the organization of the old "Liberty Party." He was also one of the first who gained a seat in Congress upon anti-slavery issues. He continued an active and honorable career in the Republican party down to 1872, when he supported Mr. Greeley for the Presidency, and has since continued to act with the Democratic party, though he has held no office. His 'Recollections' are therefore confined to the time when he was in close relations with those whom he now opposes, and was among the most unsparing of the denouncers of the principles and policy of those with whom he now fraternizes. The publication of this book is very good evidence, however, that he is not ashamed of his earlier career, and sees little in it to regret or apologize for. A few casual admissions that he was probably led by partisan heat to judge too harshly of some things, are the only indications that he has changed his point of view. This is honorable to him, for it implies that his present political attitude does not seem to him inconsistent with his former one, and that he looks upon the political questions of to-day as so different from those of twenty years ago that party lines cannot be quite the same, or have the same significance.

Mr. Julian was always a man of strong opinions, and has a vigorous and generally clear way of stating them. His loves and his hates were also intense. It is quite natural, therefore, that we should find the story of his personal share in the conflicts of his active career spiced with sketches of his great contemporaries, in which they are painted with the colors they had to him, and not always those in which their own friends would have presented them. It is plain, for instance, that no love was lost between himself and Governor Morton. They had been boys together in the same district school in Indiana, but their friendship turned to rivalry when Julian became an Abolitionist, while Morton grew into a Democratic politician. Morton was never thoroughly "reconstructed" in his eyes, or, if so, it was but a short time before Julian himself learned to look upon the work of the Republican party as done. Morton's hostility within the party was hardly less galling than his opposition when they were in rival camps. The picture of the "great war Governor" is not unfairly drawn, and will be of use in helping the reader to form a true conception of the man who is placed by his friends almost too high for frail humanity.

Interesting incidents concerning Lincoln, Thaddeus Stevens, Stanton, Chase, and other contemporaries are pleasantly told, and are worth a place in the literature of the time. The judgment of history will hardly give Mr. Julian credit for the sagacity and leadership which he perhaps feels should be accorded him; but his book will be found a useful narrative of the personal experience of a public man with just claims to considerable prominence. It sometimes tries too much to be a history, and so loses something of the zest of autobiography without grasping questions and events with the strength which real history demands. The line may not be easy to draw, but the reader becomes conscious at times of the treatment being something short of either style of writing. A fuller stock of personal incident might easily have been gathered, as it strikes us, and the work would have been improved by it. The history would then be chiefly the assumed thread on which the narrative would be strung, and we should not have the sense of disappointment that we have mentioned at finding the historical questions unsatisfactorily discussed.

Index Canonum, the Greek Text, an English Translation, and a Complete Digest of the Entire Code of Canon Law of the Undivided Primitive Church. Second edition, revised and enlarged; with a Dissertation on the Seventh Canon of Ephesus and the Chalcedonian Decree of Doctrinal Liberty. By John Fulton, D.D., LL.D., etc. New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co. 1883. 1 vol. 8vo.

IT is creditable to American theological scholarship that so learned and purely technical a work as this should have been called to a second edition. Yet we cannot but regret that the peculiar views of the author should have forced him to limit its usefulness by restricting it to those councils of the early Church which he regards as having been rendered binding on the whole body of Christians by the decrees of Chalcedon. The distinction practically is factitious. The canons of Ancyra, Neo-Cæsarea, Gangra, Antioch, and Laodicea, which he admits, were never respected by the Latin Church when it chose to disregard them; while the proceedings of the local councils of Africa and of the West, which he excludes, are quite as interesting as the others in the light which they shed upon the organization and customs of the Church. No student can obtain an acquaintance with the development of doctrine and practice without an attentive study of the whole; and if Dr. Fulton had extended his scope to that of the excellent and convenient manual of Bruns—'Canones Apostolorum et Conciliorum Sæcc. iv.–vii.'—with an alphabetical digest of subjects on the same admirable plan which he has applied to his more limited selection, he would have performed a work which would have entitled him to the thanks of all scholars.

From this larger enterprise, however, he is excluded by the very object and purport of the work, which seems, from his Preface, to be the proving that all the subtleties of orthodox theology are useless; that the definitions of the really œcumenical councils—the only ones under the undisputed guidance of the Holy Ghost—concerned themselves alone with the nature and divinity of Christ; that, consequently, this is the only tenet necessary to salvation in Christ, and, therefore, that the largest liberty of conscience and freedom of thought may be safely enjoyed by Christians who hold to the Nicæno-Constantinopolitan symbol, difference of views upon all else being comparatively unimportant (pp. xxi.-vi.). So far as it goes, Dr. Fulton's object is a most praiseworthy one, and if he could persuade the churches to adopt it the world would be spared much objurgation and unseemly consigning of fellow-Christians to the bottomless pit. Yet it is not easy for a layman to enter into the frame of mind which enables a theologian to decide in detail what was meant by Christ's promises that the gates of hell should not prevail against His Church, and that he would send the Holy Ghost to guide His Church unto all truth (pp. xii., xiii.). The latter promise, especially, would appear to be so general in its character, that it seems rather a begging of the question to decide *ex cathedra* that it did not refer to historical truth, or scientific truth, or truth about the creation, or even truth about the authorship of the canon of Scripture; and it is, perhaps, an abuse of the argument by exclusion when we are gravely assured that it is thus proved that the definitions of faith by the General Councils are not merely the absolute truth, but the whole truth.

Neither can we exactly share Dr. Fulton's pious exultation when he contemplates the wisdom of Providence in divinely preserving the Catholic Church from all doctrinal aberrations by preventing the holding of any real General Council since the Third of Constantinople, and thus precluding any definitions of faith, since the seventh century, by an authoritative body acting under the guidance of the Holy Ghost. To use his own words (p. xxi.): "The way in which the providence of God actually *has* saved the Church has been by suffering the holding of General Councils to become impossible. Thus the wrath and sinfulness of men has been made to subserve the safety of the Church." This new utility of schism and error is well worth recognition, but perhaps the innumerable multitude of souls which have incurred perdition through this schism and error would have preferred to be preserved from it by occasional General Councils, which, under the operation of the Holy Ghost, could certainly not have imperilled the safety of the Church. In fact, it is not easy to determine in what consists this saving of the Church, or how it has enured to the salvation of mankind. There appears to be some mysterious entity, known as "the Catholic Church," which "alone hath not erred, but hath been wonderfully saved from error." This, as well as we can make out, consists of the whole body of Christians; but in this case the whole is not the sum of its parts, for all its parts have erred, and thus have not been saved from error—"as the Churches of Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch have erred, so also the Church of Rome hath erred, and the Church of England hath erred."

We part from Dr. Fulton with the sincerest respect for his learning, and for the objects to which he devotes that learning, but we greatly fear that his methods savor too much of the sixteenth century to produce their wished-for effect upon generations that have so far outgrown them. It will require other arguments than his to reunite

jarring sects, and to bring about the reconciliation of science with religion.

The Prometheus Bound of Æschylus; with Notes and an Introduction by R. H. Mather, of Amherst College. Boston: John Allyn. 1883.

MAKERS of classical text-books are prone to forget the important difference between what belongs in the text-book and what should be reserved for the class-room—between what a student should have before him as he prepares his lesson, and what should be used to quicken his wits and broaden his views after the lesson has been prepared. Many editors put into their notes all that they have found useful in their own instruction. The answer to every question is given before it is raised, the clue to every difficulty is offered to the student before he appreciates the difficulty, and the appropriate illustration is presented before his appetite is awakened. His wits and his judgment are not properly trained.

Elementary text-books have long been of the character which has been described. In order to meet the wants of young men who are preparing themselves for college, most of the common editions of the 'Anabasis' of Xenophon are arranged with full grammatical references and notes to explain all but the simplest constructions. They are a system to teach "Greek without a master." This is a great injury to the preparatory schools. Methods have improved of late years, but there is far too much reciting and not enough teaching. Boys go to college without knowing how to attack a difficult sentence in Greek or Latin. Their commentaries have rendered it unnecessary for their teachers to instruct them in methods. It is much as it would be if mathematical problems were furnished with notes referring to this and that principle and rule which had been already stated, in order to enable every careful student to solve each problem without the teacher's aid. Such text-books make possible what is known as a brilliant recitation—a fluent translation and ready answers to all ordinary questions. They are popular with teachers and pupils. They reduce the mental exertion and mental gymnastics to a minimum. The effort of conducting a recitation where one of these books is used, is far less than that of leading the class on from principle to principle by the Socratic method, until the solution of the difficulty is evident. The books are sometimes made so perfect as to kill the recitation. Few teachers can add to the notes more than gleanings of wisdom. Cramming upon the notes is the sole end of work, in some cases. The recitation is made a mere examination to make sure that the notes have been carefully studied. It is considered warm praise of a text-book to say that it has brought the work within the comprehension of a learner; but this is the teacher's business, not the editor's. The editor should simply prepare the way for the teacher. Most of our college students have competent teachers in Latin and Greek, and the less experienced teachers are the very men whose instruction is most deadened by too full information in the notes.

A typical example of exuberant text-books is the handsome volume before us, filled with matter with which teachers have been wont to interest their classes. The class-room origin of the work is manifest on every page in chatty sentences and fervid eloquence. We can imagine the quiet, appreciative smile of the class which would greet the remark (when the ocean nymphs say that they have put away shamefaced modesty to visit the fettered Titan), that "this training by Oceanus of his children to be retiring and respectful is quite in contrast with certain modern manners of the young"; and when, in another place, on v. 560, he would tell them that in later ages in Greece the Homeric custom of buying wives was reversed. "In fact, parents were so anxious to dispose of their daughters that suitors advanced in years were quite acceptable." Such remarks and side-hits at the modern generation are unappreciated in the quiet of a boy's study.

The book evidently is intended to be a repertorium of our elementary knowledge of this play. The editor is over-anxious to say all that can be said, to leave nothing for the teacher to do. This is not only an error in itself, according to our view, but it leads him to fields with which he seems to be unacquainted. *E. g.*, early in the play Zeus is called by Æschylus the new *prytanis* of the gods. This prompts a note which tells us about the prytanes at Athens (including some details which rested on the weakest foundation and were refuted long ago), not considering that Zeus is represented not as one of a college of officers like those of Athens, but as ruling alone as the prytanis did in other Greek cities, of which the note does not afford a hint. A more striking example of the working of the editor's method is where the Titan Prometheus, hated by the gods and bound in an untrodden wilderness, far from the race of men which he has befriended, calls upon the elements—the "swift-winged breezes," the "many-twinkling smile of ocean," and the "all-seeing orb of the sun"—to behold his wrongs. This mention of the sun suggests to Professor Mather a note on sun worship, and next on the colossal statue of the sun-god at Rhodes, which he says was 70 feet (*sic*, for *cubits*) high and "bestrode the harbor." By the shades of Lysippus and Chares, in what attitude did the editor conceive that statue of Helios? The entrance to the harbor is something over 600 feet wide at the narrowest place, and a statue 70 or even 105 feet high could hardly bestride it and preserve the grace and dignity of the sun-god. A little more vivid imagination in this case would have supplied the lack of the learning which we expect. It is almost unnecessary to add that no ancient authority countenances Professor Mather's extraordinary statement.

In general, the editor's knowledge of antiquities seems very superficial. He says that Argus was "probably represented as a herdsman with form only dimly visible to the audience." How that would be possible in the clear light of the Athenian stage it is not easy to understand. The introduction is filled with matter which strikes us as so strange that we wonder whether the author has not received a special revelation, on gold plates, concerning the Greek theatre. But we find that most of the novelties are crudities or long-exploded fancies. To say that it was Æschylus who "made the rude chorus quiet and refined, and in place of their boisterous, extempore effusions taught them regular dances and wonderful poetry," is to forget Alcman, Stesichorus, Simonides, and the rest. The statement that "in Greece no play was given till it had met the approval of a select body of critics" is unsupported. That certain *cunei* of the theatre were "especially assigned" to women seems to be borrowed from an old edition of Becker's 'Charicles'; it was refuted in 1848. That a particular spot in the centre of the stage "was raised, and was used in the most important recitative passages," is contrary to reason, and has no support from ancient or modern authorities. That the "thymele was of square form, raised as high as the stage," was rendered improbable when the ruins of the great theatre at Athens were uncovered, in 1862. The editor seems to have learned little from the excavation of this theatre, as he knows nothing of the excavations at Dodona.

Of new interpretations there are but few. This is perhaps no loss if others were to be like that of v. 689, where we read: "*keep* (her) *off*. This is addressed to Pro. [*sic*] by the chorus, whose purity is shocked by the story of Io, and they wish to avoid all contact with such an accursed creature." The situation is as follows: Prometheus had been relating to the chorus the woeful fate of Io until they break out, "Hold off," *i. e.*, "Cease thy tale," and then say that they never thought that so strange a story should come to their ears, that such woes should chill their souls. Not a word indicates that their "purity is shocked." The editor elsewhere also foists in a mention of Io's "sin" which is not in the mind of Æschylus.

The editor tells us he has illustrated the play from itself, and yet, when the same or a similar construction is found more than once in the play, instead of referring to these examples he refers to those which are collected in Goodwin's 'Moods and Tenses.' So an unnecessary etymology is repeated on 23 and 395. In spite of the fine rhetoric, the full meaning of the original is not always given in idiomatic English in the translations. Two or three times the editor slips in the meaning of a word. On 452 either the printer or the editor is responsible for a bad mistake in the construction of the Greek. Professor Mather very properly avoids a show of learning, which some have striven to gain by frequent mention of German authorities. The book is intended for the beginner in the study of the Greek drama, and, therefore, avoids the more difficult questions connected with the myth of Prometheus and the arrangement of the trilogy as to which we are told little more than that in the trilogy "the character of Zeus as an all-wise, just, and beneficent father of all must have been clearly portrayed." Most teachers will regret that the book does not contain the fragments, in the Greek and in Cicero's translation, of the 'Prometheus Loosed.'

Recueil de Lettres Allemandes, reproduites en écritures autographiques pour exercer à la lecture des manuscrits allemands. Quatrième édition augmentée, etc. Publié par P. Lévy. Paris: Hachette et Cie.

The German Newspaper Reading Book. Containing extracts from forty newspapers. The orthography revised according to the new rules. Compiled and edited by W. T. Jeffcott and G. J. Tossell. Paris: Hachette & Co.; Boston: Schoenhof. 1883.

THERE is certainly to be no lack of means for introducing the present generation to a knowledge of the modern languages. Among recent works having this aim two publications of Hachette & Co. deserve mention as specimens of practical enterprise. M. Lévy, an inspector general of instruction in modern languages, who has done much for the study of German in French schools by editing and translating the principal German classics of the eighteenth century, has prepared a collection of German letters autographically reproduced, in order to afford opportunity for practice in reading German script. The work contains 295 pages in a great variety of handwriting, embracing 298 letters, many of which are facsimiles of communications from the most familiar names in German literature. Excellent judgment has been displayed in selecting the subject-matter. In the first part of the volume the usual assortment appears of invitations and announcements, epistles of condolence, of inquiry and of apology, which one expects to discover in the complete letter-writer; but many of the originals have become historic.

Among the letters of reproach, for instance, one finds the well-known remonstrance addressed by Klopstock to Goethe in referen..e to the latter's wild career with the Duke in the early days at Weimar, and Goethe's equally well-known incisive reply. The second part contains specimens of commercial letters, circulars, drafts and receipts, while the third part is devoted to military instructions, despatches, and orders of the day. The closing document is a facsimile order signed by the Emperor William! The volume is primarily intended for use in the military school at Saint-Cyr, as a kind of exercise in modern diplomatics; and we can conceive no more ready and agreeable method of familiarizing one's self with the intricacies of German chirography than by the use of M. Lévy's collection, which, so far as we are aware, is unique in variety and extent.

The second work alluded to is intended to acquaint the reader with the vocabulary and style peculiar to current newspaper literature, and forms the companion to a similar work issued recently in French. Originally intended to acquaint the reader with the living language of daily life without the necessity of introducing the obnoxious French novel or the equivocal French journal, the latter publication was found to be so successful that its companion has soon followed. The joint editors are two English scholars. It is a compilation of use to those desiring to enter competitive examinations, as well as to those who wish to become acquainted with the current vocabulary of the press. The style of the extracts is correct if not classic, and the variety is entertaining. Items from *Kladderadatsch*, the *Berliner Wespen*, and other comic sheets, alternate with the more serious contents of the *Kölnische Zeitung* and the *Neue Freie Presse*. Among the topics discussed are Cetewayo's captivity, the Egyptian war, Garfield's assassination, the Panama canal, President Arthur, the Irish troubles, and American strikes. Several pages of well-arranged advertisements conclude the selections.

The Story of My Heart. An Autobiography. By Richard Jefferies, author of 'The Gamekeeper at Home,' etc. Boston: Roberts Bros.

WHAT it has pleased Mr. Jefferies to call "an autobiography" is actually a discussion of problems in psychology, under the guise of a narrative of personal experience. The ordinary reader will hardly follow the passionate subtlety of his arguments, but no one can read without admiration his exquisite descriptions of nature. They have that wonderful accuracy and intimacy of knowledge which made the author's earlier books so remarkable, and they have something more. Choose which we may, the lonely splendor of mid-day on the great downs, or the crowded rush of mid London—"the vortex and whirlpool, the centre of human life today"—they are all, we know not whether to say exalted or illuminated by the intense desire to surprise the secret of Nature, the mystery of life. "Full well aware that all has failed, yet, side by side with the sadness of that knowledge, there lives on in me an unquenchable belief, thought burning like the sun, that there is yet something to be found, something real; something to give each separate personality sunshine and flowers in its own existence now—something to shape this million-handed labor to an end and outcome, leaving accumulated sunshine and flowers to those who shall succeed."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brehm's Thierleben. Chromo ed. Parts 105-112. B. Westermann & Co.
Caddy, Mrs. Adrian Bright: A Novel. Harper's Franklyn Square Library. 20 cents.
Carrol, L. Rhyme? and Reason? Macmillan & Co. $1 50.
Christmas Folio: Music. Richard S. Saalfield. 50 cents.
Claretie, J. French Celebrities. Part II. Funk & Wagnalls. 15 cents.
Edward, Cardinal Archbishop H. The Eternal Priesthood. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.
Encyclopædia Britannica. Vols. xv., xvi. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Genung, J. F. Tennyson's In Memoriam, its Purpose and its Structure: a Study. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Goldsmid, E. Bibliotheca Curiosa. An Account of King Charles the Second's escape from Worcester. From the Pepys MSS. Edinburgh: Privately Printed.
Greenwood, Grace. Queen Victoria. Her Girlhood and Womanhood. Illustrated. John R. Anderson and Henry S. Allen.
Halévy, L. L'Abbé Constantin. W. R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Koestlin, J. Life of Luther. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Lawson, J. D. The Law of Expert and Opinion Evidence Reduced to Rules. St. Louis: F. H. Thomas & Co.
Lacy, W. M. An Examination of the Philosophy of the Unknowable, as Expounded by Herbert Spencer. Philadelphia: Benjamin F. Lacy.
Linton-Stoddard. English Verse: Dramatic Scenes and Characters; Translations; Ballads and Romances. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.00.
Lorne, Marquis of. Memories of Canada and Scotland: Speeches and Verses. Montreal: Dawson Brothers.
Lowe, Martha P. Memoir of Charles Lowe. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Maudsley, Dr. H. Body and Will: an Essay Concerning Will in its Metaphysical, Physiological, and Pathological Aspects. D. Appleton & Co.
Metz, Prof. V. de. Hand-Book of Modern Palmistry. Thompson & Moreau.
Nabuco, J. O Abolicionismo. London: Abraham Kingdon.
Oberholtzer, Mrs. S. L. Hope's Heart Bells: a Romance. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
One of the Shepherds of Bethlehem. A Poem. Pittsfield, Mass.: J. B. Harrison.
Otis, J. Raising the *Pearl*: a Story. Harper & Brothers. $1.
"Ouida." Frescoes, etc.: Dramatic Sketches. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.25.
Owen, N. Her Second Love. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. $1.00.
Peterson, Dr. F. Poems and Swedish Translations. Buffalo: Peter Paul & Bro. $1 50.
Reiss and Stübel. The Necropolis of Ancon in Peru. Part 9. Dodd, Mead & Co. $7 50.
Ritter, F. L. Music in England. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Ritter, F. L. Music in America. Charles Scribner's sons. $2.00.
Rolfe, W. J. Shakspere's Tragedy of Titus Andronicus. Harper & Brothers.
Ruskin, J. Dust of Gold. Ashestiel. [For Clavigera; new series.] John Wiley & Sons. 10 cents each.
Scott, Sir Walter. The Surgeon's Daughter. Philadelphia. T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 50 cents.
Scribner, G. H. Where Did Life Begin? Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 25.
Seyppel, C. M. Er, Sie, Es. 4to. Ægyptische Humoreske. Düsseldorf: Felix Bagel.
Skelding, Susie B. Maple Leaves and Golden Rod. White, Stokes & Allen. $1.50.
Skelding, Susie B. Songs of Flowers. White, Stokes & Allen. $1.50
Souvenirs d'Amérique et de France. Par un Créole. Paris: Bourgt Calet & New York: F. W. Christern.
Stewart, Mrs. G. E. The Burnhams: a Novel. G. W. Carleton & Co.
Thiessant, P. D. de. De l'Origine des Indiens du Nouveau-Monde et de leur Civilisation. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Thomas, Annie. Jenifer: a Novel. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Townsend, Gen. E. D. Anecdotes of the Civil War in the United States. D. Appleton & Co.
Trumbull, Rev. H. C. Kadesh-Barnea: its Importance and probable Site. Charles Scribner's Sons. $5.
Tuttle, Prof. H. History of Prussia to the Accession of Frederic the Great. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2 25.
Vandegrift, Margaret. The Queen's Body-guard: a Story. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $1 50.
Wickes, Dr. S. Sepulture: its History, Methods, and Sanitary Requisites. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co.

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ERRATA.

Page 13, col. 2, line 6 from bottom. For "Woodbridge" read "Bouge."

Page 45, col. 3, line 8 from bottom. For "Chan" read "Oham."

Page 153, col. 3, line 24. For "French" read "Swiss."

Page 170, col. 3, lines 36, 37; also page 171, col. 1, line 19. For "Al-Makani" read "Al Makkari."

Page 337, col. 1, line 4. For "videat" read "ridcat."

Page 353, col. 1, line 26. For "Miss" read "Mrs."

Page 419, col. 3, line 33 from bottom. For "autographical" read "orthographical."